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ERRATA.

Page 85, col. ii, line 30. For "Brice" read "Bryce."

Page 112, col. iii, line 18 from bottom. Omit the *i* after the *l*.

Page 202, col. i, middle of Note on the Kabeirol. Transpose sentence "M. Kavvadias . . . Asklepios" to end of paragraph.

Page 215, col. i, line 23. For "fifteenth" read "fourteenth."

Page 221, col. iii, lines 26 and 27 from bottom. Omit "a tarbush and abba."

Page 234, col. i, line 43. Insert "a" before "Byzantine."

Page 235, col. ii, lines 12 and 15. For "horse" read "torso."

Page 236, col. i, line 15. For "Dyonsjotes" read "Dionysiotes." Line 16. For "in" read "is."

Page 261, col. ii, line 35 from bottom. For "Im Thurn" read "Im Thurn."

Page 262, col. ii. In the Note on Shelley and Beaconsfield, the character Herbert should be identified with Shelley, and Cadurcis with Byron, and not vice versa.

Page 408, col. ii, line 17 from bottom. For "Durrie" read "Draper."

Page 417, col. ii, line 12 from bottom. For "qualification" read "qualificative."

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 5, 1888.

The Week.

THE minority report of Mr. Pattison of the Pacific Railway Commission seems to be the wildest official production that has ever appeared in print since the Pacific Railroad was opened for business. Mr. Pattison recommends that all plans for recovering the Government's money be made subordinate to the "punishment of the criminals," and that the first step to be taken should be the forfeiture of the charters of both roads. How this forfeiture should be accomplished is not made very clear. If it is to be done by act of Congress, the fact that the Central Pacific's charter was granted by the State of California might constitute an obstacle. If it is to be done by a suit at law in which the United States is to figure as plaintiff, it might be objected that under the terms of the original act the debt to the Government is not due until some ten years hence, and that under the Thurman Act nothing is due except certain payments to the sinking fund, which have been duly made in accordance with the terms of that act. It might and would be set up in bar of such a suit that when the Government established a mode of payment by the Thurman Act, and received payments under the same, it was estopped from forfeiture proceedings as to any acts or things occurring before that time, so long as the terms of the act are complied with. The whole scope of Mr. Pattison's report bears the impress of crankiness. It is fortunate that two members of the Commission kept the main object of their appointment in view, and sought diligently for means to get the Government's money paid, just as any right-minded attorney of a creditor would do in handling a debtor's estate.

The main points of the report of the Commission are that the companies shall execute a formal mortgage to the Government in place of the present statutory mortgage, and shall include in it their branch lines and all their property; that thereupon the debt shall be extended to fifty years at 3 per cent. interest, payable semi-annually, with a sinking fund of one-half of one per cent. for the first ten years, at the end of which period a sinking fund shall be established which will pay off the whole debt at maturity. To this is added a proviso that the roads shall empower the Attorney-General of the United States to bring any suit he may see fit in behalf of the companies to secure restitution of moneys due to the companies from any private individual or corporation. This plan is perfectly rational throughout. It ought to be adopted by Congress at an early day.

The Stock Exchange seems to have taken amiss the action of the Vanderbilt roads in not increasing their dividends in proportion to their earnings, the quotations for all of them falling slightly after the decision was made. Probably a more rational view will be taken after a few days. The action of the companies was conservative and prudent in a high degree, as was also that of the Lackawanna Company, which decided in like manner to lay up a reserve fund against a rainy day. There are surpluses and surpluses—some which represent losses in former years, and which stand on the ledger for an indefinite period because the managers have not the courage to write them off the books. Very few of those venerable surpluses are available to make good a shrinkage of earnings in a bad year. But there can be no doubt, apparently, that the surplus kept back by the New York Central, Lake Shore, Michigan Central, and Canada Southern from the present dividends is a real reserve, which may be used either to make good a deficiency in some other year, or to avoid borrowing in case a necessary improvement is called for. In either case, the shares of the companies ought to advance rather than decline. It requires some courage to face discontented shareholders and withhold from them money which they think belongs to them, but it is only the first step that costs. It will be easier the next time. The experience of all these roads during the past five years teaches that no company can afford to distribute its entire earnings in times of prosperity. If the New York Central had divided only 6 per cent. during the heyday of good times, and had kept the balance in available form for the bad times that were threatened and that actually followed, it might have gone through the West Shore crisis without passing a dividend.

There has been no more melancholy sight in this country since the abolition of slavery than that afforded by the strike of the poor men in the employ of the Reading Railroad, at the beginning of the winter, most of them with families dependent on them. They had no grievance against the company except that it would not allow the train hands to decide for whom it shall carry freight, and they were controlled, under the organization of the Knights of Labor, by a band of scheming adventurers who insisted on the company's submitting this question to "arbitration," and levy money from the laborers' wages for salaries and office rent. There is no use in blaming the Powderlys, and Quinns, and Lees, and the like, for trying to live by organizing, and holding meetings, and issuing orders. Tens of thousands of men in all ranks of life would live in the same way if they could get the chance. What is most to be deplored in the matter is the immense mass of childish ignorance which these strikes represent, and which makes the "Grand Masters" and the "General Worthy Foremen" possible. Mayor Hewitt, on Thursday night, at the dinner of the Board of Trade, spoke some telling words about the responsibility of the class of politicians who encourage these "secret and irresponsible organizations" in their attacks on the peace and industry of the country, by pretending to think their existence and activity justified by the conduct of "capital."

It usually happens, in disputes and strikes where the Knights of Labor are concerned, that there are a lot of "private understandings" relied upon by the master workmen and executive committees to justify themselves to the public and their own followers. These private understandings usually consist of hints, winks, insinuations, or other deceptive contrivances on the part of the employer which convey to the master workmen, etc., the idea that if they will order the strike off, their demands will be complied with in some roundabout way. The history of the great Southwestern strike was full of such private understandings between Gen. Hoxie and Martin Irons, and even Mr. Powderly had resort to one such understanding with Jay Gould, although the written correspondence and short-hand report of the conversation between the parties proved conclusively that there was not and could not have been any such understanding. The Reading strike has yielded the usual crop of whispered agreements, the most important being the pretended agreement between the Superintendent and the Strike Committee to submit the differences to arbitration. Everybody with the least grain of intelligence must have seen that there was no room for arbitration, since there was no question of wages, or hours, or methods of labor to submit to arbitrators. The question in dispute was whether the Reading Company should obey a law which requires it to transport freight for all persons offering the same without discrimination. Was there anything here to arbitrate upon? Arbitration implies that a decision may be given against you, and that if it is, you must abide by it. It can have no other meaning. Suppose that the arbitrators in the supposed case were to decide that the Reading Company need not carry the flour of Taylor & Sons? Would such a decision relieve them from penalties under the Inter-State Commerce Act or under the law of Pennsylvania? Suppose the arbitrators were to decide that, although the Reading Company were obliged to carry the flour of Taylor & Sons, yet, if their employees refused to move the cars, the company had no right to put others in their places. Would such a decision save them from seizure by the sheriff? The very statement of the case shows that the alleged understanding between the Superintendent and the Knights was impossible. The evident truth is, that it was a fiction invented by the Committee to preserve their credit with their own deluded followers.

We are glad to say a publishers' copyright league has been formed to coöperate with the

authors in trying to secure international copyright legislation this winter. The absence of this coöperation has been until now one of the great difficulties in the way of success; publishers, as "practical men" and extensive employers of labor, having more weight with Congressmen than writers of books. As long, too, as there was enough comity between publishers to secure respect for any arrangement which any one of them might make with foreign authors, they were not very zealous in favor of a copyright treaty. The pirate has destroyed all that, however, and convinced them that there is no security except in legislation. This will go far to narrow the opposition down to simple enjoyment of theft—or, in other words, of benefit of some kind at another man's expense. Nothing is more comic or more novel, and yet more characteristic of our age, than the argument which one frequently hears in opposition to international copyright, that although it is wrong to clothe or feed yourself, it is quite right, and even praiseworthy, to develop yourself mentally, with the proceeds of another man's labor.

Whatever may be done about the case of Dakota, it is to be hoped that nothing will come of the scheme reported to be under consideration at Washington for admitting several Territories as States at the same time. New Mexico and Montana, which are said to be included in this scheme, are not fit to become States, and will not be for some time to come. New Mexico is still largely a foreign community, and has no just claim to exercise an equal influence in the Senate with great States like New York and Pennsylvania. Montana still retains many of the elements of a frontier region, and it is not yet certain that it will not prove well to change the boundaries between Montana and adjoining Territories. Washington Territory has been so long settled by a homogeneous population that it has a just claim to admission as soon as the question of rectifying its eastern boundary line is settled; but Montana and New Mexico ought to serve a long apprenticeship yet. The evils of the Territorial condition are grossly exaggerated by the politicians who hope to get the State offices, and they are really but small. Even if they were much greater, they should not offset the evils to the nation of making States too soon—evils which have been forcibly illustrated in the case of Nevada. One experience of that sort is quite enough for all time.

We did not know how largely the national prosperity is due to the tariff on potatoes until we read Monday's *Tribune*. We then learned from an interview with a dealer in the article that if the duty of 15 cents per bushel were repealed or materially lowered, we should not be able to compete with European potatoes in our own markets. Scotland, it appears, is our fiercest competitor at Washington Market, but England, Holland, Belgium, Germany, and Denmark are pressing the Long Island farmer with great energy. "If," says this New York dealer, "they send as much as they do while there is still a fifteen-cent tariff on potatoes, what would be the limit of this supply if that much profit is added to each bushel? It would, I think, soon be found unprofitable to raise potatoes in America." It might be added—and the reflection will occur to every logical mind—that if we cannot raise potatoes without a tariff, we shall soon be unable to raise wheat or cotton without it, and that we are rapidly approaching the condition of not being able to earn a living off the most bountiful land in the world without a system of taxation that locks up $100,000,000 a year of our money. The poultry dealers are already complaining of the competition of foreign-laid eggs. The ice-cutters a few years ago wanted a duty on foreign ice, and thought that they were ill used because they didn't get it. The fishermen have upset the Treaty of Washington and got us into a deal of trouble for the sake of a duty on salt fish. And now the sorghum-boilers in Kansas are protesting against any meddling with the duty on sugar because they say that they can make sugar as cheaply as it can be made in Louisiana. A hod-carrier in this city lifted up his voice the other day against any disturbance of the tariff, fearing apparently that brick buildings erected by pauper labor might rush in here from Europe. As to coal, how often have we been told that although we have about thirty times as much of this mineral as Great Britain and Canada combined, we should be compelled to leave it in the earth and depend upon foreign supplies if the duty were removed. Indeed, we can imagine a condition in which we should all be thrown helpless on our backs, and be compelled to receive our food, clothing, and fuel from foreigners, giving them nothing in return. How long they would continue to supply us on those terms, heaven only knows.

Gov. Hill has certainly done himself credit by his message sent to the Legislature on Tuesday. It is a plain, sensible, straightforward document, without any bunkum or demagogy in it, or anything on which one cannot differ with him respectfully. His recommendations are in the main very good. He advocates spring municipal elections and a revision of the charter of this city; the provision of a special counsel to the Legislature, to revise bills before they become laws—an excellent suggestion, which he has already made; a revision of the tax laws of the State, with the view of making personal property "pay its just share"—a chimerical idea, against which the experience of the civilized world is everywhere running. Personal property in our day is too readily concealed to be a proper object of taxation at all. He recommends the abolition of the State Board of Charities and of the State Board of Health, and the transfer of their powers respectively to a single officer—a step in the right direction—and of the Board of Regents as a useless and purely ornamental body; the calling of the Constitutional Convention; the permission to the Court of Appeals to affirm a conviction if, in its opinion, there was sufficient evidence to warrant it besides testimony improperly admitted—a much-needed reform, which would save the court from much popular distrust. He argues at much length, and with force, in favor of the restriction of the confirming power of the Senate to the cases in which it is called for by the Constitution; but reserves his heaviest artillery for the refusal of the Legislature to provide for the State enumeration and apportionment. On the liquor question he is as dumb as an oyster, and has hardly a word to say for "labor"—except that the Board of Arbitration is in "fairly successful operation," which will be news to most people. Some of his topics need more comment than is possible in a mere summary; but, on the whole, he has acquitted himself much more like Gov. David B. Hill than the "Dave Hill" of last year, who has hitherto afforded so much sport to the Republicans by allowing himself to be put "in a hole."

Gov. Hill's removal of Messrs. Jay and Richmond from the State Civil-Service Commission has been looked for every day since he asked for their resignations last July, without giving any reason. They refused to resign on the very good ground that such places as theirs ought not to be vacated without some explanation to the public of the cause of the change. The usefulness of these gentlemen, however, was greatly diminished by the Governor's unconcealed hostility to the law which they were trying to enforce, and the influence of his example in instigating nearly all the State officials to violate or ignore it in a greater or less degree. Mr. Jay and Mr. Richmond had the prime qualification of thorough devotion to their duty, and gave their time and attention unstintingly for what was to men in their position practically no compensation. What the Governor's motives in removing them are, can of course only be guessed at. His new appointments do not shed much light on the matter. From Mr. Manning and Mr. Treadwell it is perhaps fair to expect an honest attempt to execute the law. As regards the new President of the Board, Gen. Sickles, we shall have to get used to him in the character of a reformer before being able to pass any judgment on his merits. It will not do, however, to condemn the new Commissioners in advance. No matter what we may think of the motives or manner of their appointment, we are bound to give them a fair trial, and hope for the best from them. Possibly the fact that they are the Governor's own selection may help to secure from him more cordial coöperation than he was willing to give their predecessors.

Col. Fellows has begun his term of office as District Attorney in a somewhat unusual manner by giving a public feast. At the same time he makes this sweeping promise: "For the next three years I shall endeavor to make the city of New York an unhealthy and unpleasant place for the

criminally disposed." This lays out as large a field of work as any man would wish to enter upon. The Mayor, who naturally feels some responsibility for the Colonel's "simple Christian life" in the District Attorney's office, hastens to remind him on his entrance upon its duties that there are 15,000 bail cases awaiting trial in the pigeonholes of the office, and says: "I know that you are sensible of the deplorable consequences which result from the failure to dispose of criminal charges and to assure a prompt trial and speedy punishment in case of conviction." Now the District Attorney can in no way make New York more "unhealthy and unpleasant for the criminally disposed" than by bringing these bail cases to trial. They are nearly all for violations of the excise laws, and the greater part of them are against men who have "pulls" in politics. For years the criminal machinery of the city has been paralyzed by "pulls" of this kind, and the reason is that the violators of the laws are also political workers, whose liquor-saloons and gambling-dens are centres of political activity. The Colonel has a great opportunity before him by striking down this most pernicious conspiracy against the laws.

A despatch from St. Paul, Minn., makes this announcement: "The State Railroad Commissioners to-day issued orders that after January 1 each upper berth in any sleeping-car run or operated upon any railroad in this State shall remain closed whenever the berth beneath the same shall be occupied by a passenger, until such upper berth shall be needed for actual occupancy." If this brief order could be put in force all over the country, one of the meanest advantages taken of the travelling public by the sleeping-car companies would no longer have to be submitted to. In explanation of this order it may be stated that the aim of the sleeping-car companies (after charging, in addition to the regular railroad rate, as much for a sleeping accommodation as is charged for a room and board in our best hotels) is to make every passenger pay as much as can be extorted from him. Each "section" of a sleeping-car contains two "berths." If a passenger hires a lower berth and the one above him is not taken, the porters are compelled by the company, under a severe penalty, to let down the upper berth when the lower one is made up, thus cutting off air and light and boxing up the lower occupant as closely as possible. The object of this order is to compel the lower occupant to pay for the breathing-room above him as well as his bed beneath.

Mr. Joseph Chamberlain's speech at the Toronto Board of Trade dinner was encouraging in the sense that it promised an amicable settlement of the fishery dispute. Whether the settlement comes through arbitration (which was recommended as a last resort by the New York Chamber of Commerce) or otherwise, the country will be thankful, and accordingly has reason to be thankful when so cool a participant as Mr. Chamberlain tells us that, in his opinion, a settlement will be reached. Mr. Chamberlain is opposed to commercial union between Canada and the United States, because it would lead shortly to political union, and he does not want to bring on political union by roundabout means. But he does not say, and probably he does not mean, that he would oppose political union coming by direct means in obedience to the mutual wishes of the two countries uninfluenced by trade relations. As an English diplomat, he could not favor any step looking to the loss of Canada, although the loss itself he might acquiesce in when it comes without his active agency.

The London correspondent of the *Tribune* ought to be a little more careful about the facts in forwarding "free-trade" stories to his paper. He said on Thursday morning that "if anything is certain, it is certain that an Irish Parliament would adopt a policy of protection," and that, therefore, "home rule once granted, the Liberals will be in as much trouble as the Tories about fair trade." If he had ever taken the trouble to read Gladstone's Home-Rule Bill—the most extreme yet spoken of—he would know that the right of levying customs duties was reserved to the British Parliament, and that the Irish Parliament would have no power whatever to make a tariff. But what can we expect from a correspondent of the *Tribune* when the editor says he never maintained that the election of Cleveland would endanger American industry?

The uproar in England over the fresh reductions made in the Irish rents is another very curious illustration of the way the government of that unfortunate country is carried on. The process of reducing the rents by a Government Commission so as to make them accord with the reduced price of produce was begun in 1881 under Mr. Gladstone's Land Act. They were cut down on an average about 20 per cent., and any rent so reduced was called a "judicial rent." The work had hardly been done, however, when produce began to fall still further, and it became evident that the tenants would find it just as hard to pay the judicial as the ante-judicial rent. When the Tories came into power in 1885, an appeal was made to them to revise the judicial rents, but it was sternly denied, and the "Plan of Campaign," *i. e.*, refusal to pay any rent unless the landlord agreed to further reduction, was adopted by the National League. When the Tories returned to office the second time after Gladstone's defeat on the home-rule issue, Parnell introduced a bill providing for further revision, but it was rejected with horror, Goschen denouncing it as a characteristically dishonest proposal, and one which, if adopted, would weaken the framework of society. Gladstone's revision of rents was bad enough; it would not do to repeat it. It was soon found, however, that the Liberal-Unionists would not support this position, and that if it were adhered to, there would have to be a dissolution of Parliament. So a bill was introduced providing that the accursed thing should be done, and we now see the result. It left poor Mr. Goschen, who had to push it through the House of Commons, in a pitiable condition about the framework of society. Neither he nor Lord Salisbury, however, probably expected such sweeping reductions as the Commissioners have made, because they not only put the landlords in a worse position than ever, but they go far to whitewash the "Plan of Campaign" and justify Parnell.

The "war scare" in Europe is kept up with reasonable diligence, but does not seem to make much progress. Side by side with the accounts of the military preparations, there are always accounts of a disposition to settle on easy terms. Most of the trouble comes from the existence of semi-official or "inspired" newspapers in the Continental capitals. Now and then—perhaps once in four or five years—they get "the straight tip" from their respective governments, and the result is that everything they say in the interval has a factitious weight, although it may be pure speculation. A war scare is the best mode of running up "sales" known to them, because, as long as the armaments are so large, war will always seem a not improbable contingency, and the "movements" of troops near the frontier a good thing to "work up," either editorially or "reportorially." The way Lord Randolph Churchill has turned this to account by appearing on the scene himself, shows what a talent he has for advertising, and what a man he would be to push a ready-made clothing business. His visit to St. Petersburg is of no more importance than that of any John Smith, but all Europe is wondering what it means.

Various signs point to a new era of extravagance in Mexican financiering, after the irksome economies of the past two years. The loan of $52,500,000 just authorized by Congress is, on its face, a scheme to pay old debts by contracting new and more onerous ones. The terms of the loan are so vaguely defined that a leading commercial journal of Mexico is unable to say what they mean; they may imply interest at 6 per cent., or, more likely, 8½, or, possibly, 15. The Congress, also, after the established and vicious manner of intrusting large powers to the President during a Congressional interim, gave him authority to renew lapsed subventions to railroads, to make concessions and grant subsidies to newly projected lines, to make contracts for the survey of public lands, and for the planting of colonies. It is very natural, then, that on the heels of the adjournment of Congress come reports of a multiplicity of new schemes to "develop the resources of the country." There may be little substantial fact back of some of these large-sounding enterprises, but their being talked of is a sure sign that the speculators confidently expect a return of the good times of the lavish Administration of Gonzales. When it is remembered that all this is accompanied by the same wide gap between governmental receipts and expenditures which has been characteristic of the last three years, it looks as if the old financial policy of "after us the deluge" were to be put in force again,

REFORM OF THE HOUSE BY CONSTITUTIONAL AMENDMENT.

To the end that the Constitutional Amendment for the reformation of the House of Representatives, which we lately presented, may be more clearly apprehended, we reduce to a few plain, concise points what it will accomplish and what it will not do :

(1.) It now takes thirteen months to pass from a Congressional election to the time when the members elected assemble. The proposed amendment will enable the people to change *one-half of the members of the House in one month*, and the other half in the same time that they can now do it. With this fact so plainly in view, we are at a loss to understand the hallucination which says that the amendment will remove the House further from the people.

(2.) If an important change of public opinion should come over the country, say in two months after an election, it will be about *three years*, under the existing system, before the people can replace the recently elected House of Representatives. Under the proposed system *they could replace one-half of them in eleven months.* Constituted as the American Congressman is, we know that a decided expression of public opinion at these annual elections will be just as potent on the men who are not then elected as on the men who are; in fact, with an election before him "next year," a Congressman will be much more sensitive to public opinion than if he had just gained his seat. We can, indeed, conceive of no possible method for bringing the House of Representatives nearer to the people and making it more sensitive to the public will than that proposed.

(3.) Under the present system all the members of the House hold their seats through half of their operative official life (*i. e.*, through the most important session of Congress) after their successors have been elected, and when nearly two years must expire before another election can be held. Under the proposed system *no member will occupy his seat after his successor has been elected*, and the monstrous absurdity and abuse of the present system will disappear.

(4.) Under the present system, no matter what the public exigency, no matter what the condition of the legislative business, a law more unalterable than that of the Medes and Persians compels the dissolution of Congress in each alternate year at a fixed day and hour. The inevitable and gross abuses of the system are too well known to need repeating. Under the proposed system that arbitrary dissolution will disappear, the termination of the one session will be as manageable as the termination of the other, and *Congress will have no excuse for doing its work hastily or adjourning before its work is done.*

(5.) The present system, bringing dissolution as frequently as it does, involves the most astounding waste of everything that should be economized in the legislative system. Not only does Congress expire, but everything which it has labored upon, if not actually completed, expires with it. As we now go to press, the House of Representatives is still unorganized, and the single individual who forms the committees and who may, if he pleases, dictate the policy of the House, has not yet completed his selection. Under the proposed system, *the House will be organized from the hour when the Speaker is elected;* a working body equipped for work, and ready for work, and able on the second or third day of the session to take up the work of the nation precisely where the preceding Congress left off.

Let us now turn to the things which the proposed amendment will not do:

(1.) It will not retain the present vicious system of the short session.

(2.) It will not keep members in office after their successors have been elected.

(3.) It will not retain the arbitrary destruction of the legislative organization in each alternate year.

(4.) It will not bring together a large, unorganized mass of new members within a month, or two months, of their election (as proposed by the Crain amendment), with the heat of the election still upon them, and all the dangers of disorganization before them.

(5.) While it will make public sentiment felt annually, and almost instantly in Congress, it will not go to the dangerous extreme of enabling some temporary public excitement to overpower the national legislature.

With these facts plainly in view, we ask every thoughtful person to remember that while everything in our country has grown greater —its territory, its population, its intelligence —the product of our national legislation has not improved, and, indeed, has so deteriorated that the work of the last Congress is not comparable with the work of the first ; and then to ponder the following question : What would be thought of a great railroad corporation that in each alternate year, on the 4th of March, at the hour of noon, stopped all of its trains wherever they might chance to be, in the midst of a prairie or crossing a bridge; blew the water out of the boilers, put out the fires, invited the passengers to get out and walk, unloaded the freight, burned the tickets, blanks, and forms, cancelled their contracts, recalled their advertisements, and then took a long breath and began again? And what would be thought of a company that kept on doing this for no better reason than that they feared, if they did not, the brakemen might be a continuing body, and some day run away with the trains?

A plan to change the administrative methods of government will frequently attract no attention whatever, sometimes will arouse warm opposition, occasionally will receive decided approval. The Constitutional Amendment to change inauguration day from the 4th of March to the 30th of April was of the last class. Its merits were instantly perceived; the bar and the bench recognized the practical advantages which would accrue to legislative work; patriotic sentiment felt it to be a graceful commemoration of the one hundredth anniversary of Washington's inauguration: the press advocated it, and the militia sent in petitions asking for its adoption. But the Constitutional Amendment to reform the House of Representatives which we have propounded, has been remarkable in being received in none of these ways. Probably no other ever caused at the same moment and in the same persons so much commendation and so much doubt. Thus, in a very fair and intelligent article, wishing the question to be discussed and settled, the Washington *Post* says:

"It will require much argument to convince us that this plan is desirable. It is true that the Senate, being not only a continuing body but indirectly responsible to the people, is so slow of political change that the will of the people, expressed every two years in the election of Representatives, is often nullified by the Senate. But this does not seem to be any reason why the House should be less expressive than it is of prevailing political opinion."

And the Buffalo *Courier*, in a more extended and equally fair article, might be cited to the same purport.

A constitutional scholar who possesses the rare advantage of having lived for many years at the national capital, in familiar and confidential intercourse with the most distinguished statesmen of both parties, without having been in public office himself, and whose name we regretfully withhold at his request, writes :

"I entirely concur with so much of the reasoning of your article as relates to the necessity of modifying the despotic power of the Speaker, and of bringing the meeting of a new Congress into closer contact with each new election for its members. . . . As to the expediency of making the House a permanent body like to the Senate, in this respect I confess that I have some demur. Will not such a reformation tend still more to consolidate the power of the legislative branch of the Government—already stronger than the other branches? Will it not make change in Federal policies and Federal laws still more difficult of attainment? The great vice in the present polity is its ultra-conservatism—the fact that institutional means for effecting political changes do not keep pace with social and economic evolution. Will not the proposed reformation make our polity still more conservative?"

On the other hand, we have seen a private letter from Mr. Robert C. Winthrop, who not only is a veteran statesman, but was for ten years a member of the House of Representatives and repeatedly Speaker of the Massachusetts House, in which he says:

"I had read the article in the *Nation* with great interest, and have now read it again and with renewed satisfaction. I should gladly see the first amendment (relating to the inauguration) pass separately and on its own merits. But the second (relating to the House of Representatives) seems to me a great improvement on our present system. I heartily hope you may succeed in getting both adopted."

In presenting the proposed change to our readers, we depicted, illustratively, the House as it is and the Senate as it is in this matter of organization. The reference to the Senate, though merely an illustration which everybody knew something about, has led some correspondents and critics to suppose that we advocated changing the House into a body precisely like the Senate. No writer has, indeed, gone so far as to say that we desired secret sessions, or meant to reduce the number to seventy-six members; but the misapprehension has stopped short only at those points. We referred to the fact that the President pro tempore of the Senate is changed with every change of party; but the amendment under consideration will extend neither to the Speakership, nor to any matter of detail. Indeed, the term of the presiding officer of the House is not now regulated by

the Constitution. "The House of Representatives shall choose their Speaker," is all that is written concerning the tenure of the office; and, "A Speaker may be removed at the will of the House," says Jefferson's Manual. In other words, the Speaker of to-day holds his office, just as the President pro tempore of the Senate holds his, "at the will of the House."

The end to be kept in view, however, is not the term of the Speaker's office, but his power over and control of the committees. Some thoughtless talk has been indulged in; such as, that in the selection of the Senate committees there is doubtless a friction which the public do not hear and a manipulation which they do not see. Whether there be a friction or not, we neither know nor care—it is a friction which will hurt nobody outside of the Senate Chamber; but concerning the committees of the Senate three things are undeniable: (1) that there is no barter and trade between the presiding officer and persons who wish to control committees; (2) that there is a natural selection of the fittest, whereby the committees are well made for the work they have to do, and the ablest men of the controlling party are at the head; (3) that they are always organized and ready for work, and have their work well in hand. With a continuity of organization in the House, the actual experience of the Senate warrants a belief that the system of natural selection will naturally be adopted. Under the present disjointed system of biennial disorganization and reorganization, the despotic and dangerous power of the Speaker seems inevitable.

It has been said of the Senate that it is further removed from the people than the House. If that means that the Senate is less observant of the public will than the House, it is an error which every year of legislation contradicts. We cannot at the moment recall a single important non-political measure, such as the Presidential Succession Act, the Electoral Count Bill, the National Library measure, in which the Senate has not been years in advance of the House. It must be remembered that the Senate is part of the legislative power, part of the treaty-making power, part of the appointing power. The element of secret sessions, and the "courtesy of the Senate," which this paper has steadfastly opposed and condemned, spring out of the latter powers; but the legislative work of the Senate, considering what slovenly statutory work comes from the House, and the shameful manner in which appropriation bills have been held back, is, as a general rule, well done. Indeed, if there be one legislative body in the world which has been characterized during the last ten or fifteen years by dignity, decorum, freedom, and yet commendable temperateness of debate, and in keeping its own share of the legislative work always in advance of the other house—in short, a body which the intelligent citizens of a civilized country may look upon with reasonable satisfaction—it is the Senate of the United States.

That "continuity of organization" can render dangerous a legislative body half of whose members will go out of office every year is certainly an extraordinary fallacy. The Long Parliament was a usurpation, because for twelve years and more the people of England could hold no election of members. Organization is nothing more than machinery in working order. Dislocating the engine will not lessen the power of the engineer. No nation is ever going to be enslaved by legislators whose term of office is so short-lived as that of our Representatives in Congress. If usurpation comes, it will be the work of the bad and the unprincipled, who can find no instrumentality better fitted for their purpose than an unscrupulous Speaker and an unorganized House. The break between one Congress and another happens now to be an interval of some months, but it is only a few years since Congress was sitting almost continuously. The Thirty-ninth Congress expired on the 4th of March, 1867, and "the first session of the Fortieth Congress was begun, and held in the city of Washington on the 4th day of March, A. D. 1867." The interval of disorganization, the reëlection of the Speaker, Clerk, and other officers, the fresh deal and dicker of committees, did not lessen the power of the dominant party in that House, nor hinder the mad impeachment of the President during the ensuing winter.

In conclusion, we desire to impress upon our readers the simple fact that the constitutional continuity of the House of Representatives means simply continuity of organization; that organization means simply the machinery for doing its proper work; that a new Congress does not mean philosophically or practically the same set of politicians reappearing under a new name, but a new set of members, newly elected, bringing with them a new exposition of the public will; that the proposed amendment will secure two different but desirable results: (1) the unbroken business organization of the House; (2) the annual and immediate appearance of new members whenever they may be needed.

THE BLAIR BILL ONCE MORE.

THE question whether the Federal Government ought to appropriate money from the national Treasury to aid in the support of schools in the States, for the especial benefit of the South, received a thorough discussion while the proposition was before the Forty-ninth Congress. The scheme had been urged for some years before, without ever being subjected to careful scrutiny, and the public had inclined to give it a thoughtless approval. But during the early months of 1886 the facts and figures regarding the actual educational condition of the South, which were presented from time to time in the *Evening Post* and *Nation*, caused former supporters of the project to change their views, and resulted in a popular verdict against the bill, so that its failure to pass Congress was generally welcomed. The completeness of this revolution in public sentiment was shown in the most striking way possible by the action of the New Hampshire Legislature last summer. Mr. Blair appealed to the lawmakers of his own State for a resolution of hearty endorsement to serve as a lever in the Fiftieth Congress. The resolution went to the Committee on National Affairs, two-thirds of whom were Republicans, but by a vote of nine to two the Committee reported "inexpedient to legislate," and the greatest efforts of Mr. Blair's friends were required to save him from the humiliation of an adverse majority in the Legislature—a cold "approval" being finally granted, only by a vote of 136 to 127.

As the New Hampshire Senator insists upon being beaten again, it is well to restate the considerations which were urged against his bill two years ago, and to reinforce them with the new objections which have developed in the meantime. The plea for the measure is based upon the statistics of illiteracy furnished by the census of 1880, which showed that in a number of the Southern States nearly or quite half of the voters were unable to read and write. This fact is always presented by advocates of the bill as conclusive evidence that the South must have help from Washington; but, properly understood, it bears a very different aspect. While it is true that in 1880 there were in the South 4,715,395 persons over ten years of age who could not write, 2,961,371, or about two-thirds of the whole number, were men and women over twenty-one years old, who would never go to school if they had a chance. In other words, by far the greater part of the illiteracy which existed in the South in 1880 was hopeless, because by far the greater part of the illiterates were too old to attend school. It is absurd to say that the South in 1888 needs Federal aid to educate her children because in 1880 there were three million grown-up illiterates, born either slaves or "poor whites" of the slavery era.

The vital question is, whether the South is now herself educating her children so that they will not be illiterates when they grow up. Advocates of the Blair bill always insist that it is not, because the South does not have as good schools as cities in the North have. We have heretofore pointed out that the proper comparison is with thinly settled agricultural States, like Maine, New Hampshire, and Vermont, and have shown that illiteracy has been avoided in these New England States by a school system no better than that which many Southern States already have, and which the others will soon have at their present rate of progress. It was a great surprise to Northern people when we demonstrated that a number of Southern States keep their children in school more days in the year than New Hampshire does hers, but the truth is at last accepted even by New Hampshire, and the Concord *Monitor*, which is generally known as the "organ" of Mr. Blair's colleague, Senator Chandler, last April told its readers that "New Hampshire has less schooling than Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, West Virginia, or Missouri"—to which it should have added Texas and Kentucky, while Florida and two or three others are within a few days of the New Hampshire average. In like manner the *Monitor* might have shown that a larger percentage of the children of school age are en-

rolled in the public schools of some Southern States than in New Hampshire, while even South Carolina, which has the largest proportion of negroes, falls only a trifle behind New Hampshire in this respect.

The latest reports of the Superintendents of Education in the Southern States teem with proofs that outside help is not needed, a few of which must be cited. The average length of the school year in Virginia is already nearly six months, and the Superintendent recommends as perfectly practicable a further extension through the increase of local assessments. In West Virginia the average length is nearly five months, and the Superintendent urges an increase, remarking that "the additional tax for two months would scarcely be felt." In Tennessee the Superintendent reported that "our public-school system is growing in favor with the people," and the Legislature justified his statement by more than doubling the school tax within a month after the Blair bill lapsed by the expiration of the Forty-ninth Congress, while the counties in their turn are doubling the local fund raised for education. In Alabama the Superintendent recites the growth of the system within four years from 4,624 schools with 177,428 pupils and a school fund of $392,904, to 5,595 schools with 252,967 pupils and a school fund of $523,353; he says that "our educational facilities must be increased to keep abreast with the material prosperity of the State," and adds that "all know there has been a gratifying increase in the resources of the State during the past few years which requires an increase in the annual appropriation for schools." In Arkansas the Superintendent reports that "we are making rapid progress in our educational interests, and in a few more years Arkansas will stand side by side with the most favored of her sister States in the educational advantages she offers to her children"—a statement which is certainly warranted by the increase between 1883 and 1886 from 2,462 teachers, 112,233 pupils, and $479,471 expenditure, to 3,691 teachers, 175,935 pupils, and $866,892 expenditure. In Georgia the Superintendent reported an increase within four years of pupils from 244,197 to 309,594, and of expenditure from $498,533 to $723,161, while he showed once more that a small increase in the tax, which could be laid "without unduly burdening the people," would enable the State to keep the schools in operation for six months of the year. In Florida the Superintendent reports that the amount expended upon schools has risen within four years from $133,260 to $400,000, while the school year falls only a few days short of New Hampshire and Maine. In Texas the Superintendent reports a steady and rapid advance in the cause of popular education, and insists that "the school term throughout the State should not be less than seven months."

Space will not permit a full presentation for each State of the wonderful progress which has been made in developing the school system of the South within the past few years. The Blair bill was introduced in December, 1881, upon the ground that the South was so "impoverished by the war" that it could not raise any more money for schools than it was then raising, and that Federal aid ought to be granted for eight years. Six of the eight years have passed; the amount raised for schools has been largely increased in every State, and doubled or trebled in some, while the man who should now talk about the South being "impoverished by the war" would provoke the derision of every self-respecting Southerner. The rigorous test of time has been applied to the plausible pleas which were originally made for the passage of this bill, and their fallacy has been clearly exposed. The South has shown herself able to overcome the difficulties of the situation, and her success is another tribute to American self-reliance. The most satisfactory feature of the matter is the fact that the opposition which has defeated the "Bill to Promote Mendicancy" was largely the opposition of self-respecting Southern men, like Senator Butler of South Carolina, who put the case against it most forcibly four years ago, when he said:

"We ought to pause and reflect, for fear that in throwing this large amount of money into the States you will check the effort in those States to develop their own common-school system in their own way. Why, Mr. President, there is no success in life comparable to the success which attends individual effort, none so enduring, none so satisfactory. I would, therefore, be very cautious before I would appropriate money and put it with the States, the effect of which, I am afraid, would be, among others, to induce a very great many men who are now earnestly struggling to build up their own local institutions, to put their hands in their pockets and say: 'The general Government is going to educate everybody—what is the use of any man paying taxes for education?'"

PICTURES AND PICTURE-BUYERS.

A CORRESPONDENT in the West writes, on behalf of some local economists who are just now occupied with the tariff discussion, to ask us whether we set paintings down among the things known as "luxuries," and therefore a fair subject for Custom-house taxation. The question will most probably come up this winter in connection with the 30 per cent. duty which we now levy on the works of foreign artists, and which we believe nobody any longer defends on the ground that it is legitimate protection for native industry against foreign competition. Thirty years ago there were American artists who dreamed of the possibility of making by the aid of the tariff a sort of art vacuum in this country which native talent would fill with a purely and distinctively American school, owing nothing whatever to European precept, spirit, or example. But this dream has for the most part passed away, and American artists have resigned themselves to taking part in the general struggle for distinction and a market without any adventitious aid.

If any are now disposed to rely on the tariff at all, it is rather for protection against the dealers in this country than against professional rivals abroad. They say, and with a good deal of force, that in no country is the dealer so powerful an influence in the picture market as in this, because in none are there so many buyers with long purses who do not venture to rely on their own judgment in making their purchases. When the time comes in their career, therefore, at which they think it is incumbent on them to fill their houses with works of art, they put themselves unhesitatingly into the hands of an importer, and he generally covers their walls with the products of foreign studios, and, if he allows them to buy American pictures at all, recommends them only for bedrooms and the less frequented parts of the house.

Against this discrimination the human nature in American art naturally revolts, and if the tariff would do anything towards repressing it, we imagine a good many advocates for the duty on foreign pictures would be found among American painters. But as a matter of fact the duty on foreign pictures, although it may in some degree prevent importations being as large as they would be in its absence, has not perceptibly diminished them. The ebb and flow of the American demand for European pictures seems to be more affected by the condition of the stock market than by any other influence known to us. In truth, the ordinary American picture-buyer is rather stimulated than deterred by dearness. The addition of 30 per cent. to the price is in nine cases out of ten more likely to increase than to cool his ardor. In his own ignorance of the conditions which fix the value of a picture in money, he is apt to defer to the judgment of those who profess to know something about them, and to conclude that their asking a very high price is a sort of confession of the importance of what they have to sell. He does not know, what is literally true, that the picture market now closely resembles the stock market—that it has its bulls and bears and corners, just as Wall Street has, and that dealers not infrequently "sell short" works which they know are held in considerable quantity by a rival, in order to break him down, or "make corners" in works which they know he is seeking, and unload freely on "lambs" from the West works in which their own expectations have been disappointed.

So that, on the whole, the effect of the tariff on the sale of foreign pictures, though doubtless considerable, can hardly be said to be perceptible. It keeps foreign pictures out to some extent, but we do not know to what extent. The only aid in approximating to an estimate of it is to be found in the large number of counterfeits of distinguished European artists which are to be found all over the country. A French connoisseur came here a few years ago to catalogue, if possible, the more valuable works of French art to be found in this country in private collections and public galleries. He had not gone very far, however, before he came on forgeries, enough to astonish him, of the more readily imitable works of such painters as Corot and Rousseau. In fact, we have ourselves been assured by a leading American painter that there is in one of the suburbs of New York a Corot factory, from which you can obtain works of this master of any size or in any quantity you please—either by the dozen or the single copy. That the

tariff fosters frauds of this sort is very certain. The smuggler and counterfeiter always follow close behind the custom-house inspector.

The objection to the picture duty which American artists, we imagine, feel most keenly, is the discredit it inflicts on us in the eyes of foreign nations, which contain a large proportion of the public whose opinions they value. We are the first civilized country which has ever sought to make difficult the importation of works of art. All the leading governments of Christendom spend money in buying pictures for public galleries, and encourage by every means in their power the introduction of them from abroad by private individuals, both for their own greater glory and for the cultivation of the popular taste in an important field of human expression. We enjoy the amazing distinction of being the only people to put pictures on a level with cotton goods, and pig iron, and raw wool. Every American who occupies himself either with literature or art or science, or with the cultivation of the ideal in any field of human observation, is, of course, compelled to hang his head for shame when he is asked to explain this to a foreigner. But the reason why he hangs his head for shame in talking to the foreigner is also the reason why he is puzzled and embarrassed when he is called on to explain to the ordinary Congressman why taxes on works of art are all wrong. He cannot make the Congressman understand the part which art plays in the higher development of the race any more than he can make the foreigner understand the Congressman's indifference to it. If a man sees no educational value in art, one can hardly reveal it to him by any sort of exposition. It is, like color-blindness or the absence of ear for music, a difficulty which can only be overcome by faith. That is to say, people who see nothing in pictures, whether old or new, must trust that immense body of the best men and women of all ages who have treated art as "the flower of humanity."

The accumulation of first-rate pictures in America, in spite of all difficulties, is very rapid. They are, it is true, luxuries, in the sense that only rich men can buy them. But they are luxuries which rich men cannot consume, which delight the eye and cultivate the taste and imagination of millions who could not afford to buy them, and in a vast number of cases they find their way in the long run into public galleries and become to all intents and purposes the property of the people. We can hardly check this tendency by any import duty, however heavy. The money the present duty brings in is a mere bagatelle, so that in levying it we accomplish little beyond making our legislation seem barbarous.

THE CHACE COPYRIGHT BILL.

Senator Chace of Rhode Island has again presented to the Senate his International Copyright Bill, with no change in the text except that the date in the enacting clause is set forward one year to July 1, 1888. We have before summarized the provisions of this bill, and now desire only to revert to the clause which prohibits the importation of any foreign edition of a book reprinted in the United States. Although the two measures proposed to secure copyright to British authors which, for the moment, are attracting the largest share of public attention, both originate in Philadelphia, they are diametrically opposed in one respect. While Mr. Smith's proposed bill is designed to give the utmost latitude to competing editions, upon the plea that in this way the lowest price will be secured to the reader, the effect of the prohibition-of-importation clause in Mr. Chace's bill is absolutely to remove competition. Should this latter bill, as it is now worded, become law, American readers may find themselves obliged to choose either to go without the book, or to pay for the American reprint of Tennyson's next poem double or treble the price of the original English edition. This is no fancy illustration. Whenever an English author of established popularity shall announce a new work, American publishers will hasten to compete for the privilege of issuing it in America, and the bidder offering the highest price to the author will, of course, secure the right to republish. Having thus obtained the entire American market for his edition, with the absolute prohibition of importation enacted in the bill barring out any and every competing foreign edition, the acute publisher will very naturally hasten to recoup himself for his outlay by demanding from American readers the highest obtainable price for the work thus secured.

This is so plainly the practical result of the legislation proposed that it is with considerable curiosity one turns to see what the projectors and defenders of this bill have to say in defence of this stipulation. The arguments made are threefold: (1) That it is "an invariable rule in all countries where copyright exists"; (2) that it is necessary to enforce the requirement of the American manufacture of each book copyrighted; and (3) that the "apparently harmless concession" of an importation of copies of the authorized English edition by the author or copyright proprietor "would overthrow the whole design and purport of the bill."

Concerning number one, we have before pointed out at some length that so far is it from being the "invariable rule in all countries" to prohibit the importing of the *authorized* original edition, that it is entirely without precedent in the copyright legislation of any and all countries; only *surreptitious* reprints are thus prohibited. As regards the second reason advanced, section two of the bill distinctly requires that, in order for the foreign author to secure any copyright at all in this country, he must, within three months after recording the title of his book, deposit with the Librarian of Congress "two copies of the best edition of the same *printed in the United States*"; and if he does not, he remains in exactly the same position as regards an American copyright, after the enactment of the proposed law, as that which he now occupies. It is, therefore, but a transparent pretence to claim that the prohibition clause is necessary to secure American manufacture. At number three, however, we arrive at the true reason for the insertion of this clause. Instead of being, according to reason number one, simply an article usual in all similar legislation, we discover from Mr. Henry C. Lea's words, quoted above, that the enactment of this article is necessary to secure the real purpose of the entire bill.

Mr. Chace states in his report that the present tariff on books of 25 per cent., added to what is repeatedly referred to by Mr. Lea and himself as the high price of the original editions, would not afford sufficient "protection" to the American manufacturers engaged in the production of books. In other words, the importation of the "expensive original editions," even with the addition of a duty of one-quarter of the English price, would produce a competition detrimental to the interests of the American republishers. It is necessary, therefore, to enact a law which will allow the American reprinter unhindered opportunity to add as much per cent. to the English price as will enable him to meet the additional cost of manufacturing the book in this country (which, according to Mr. Chace, "just about balances the amount of duties imposed"), and, in addition, secure to himself a handsome profit. And this is very evidently "the whole design and purport of the bill," which would, as Mr. Lea says, be thwarted were the prohibition-of-import clause removed. As the interests of the English author and the American reprinter are identical, so far as obtaining the highest possible price for the reprinted book is concerned, it is easy to agree with Mr. Chace that they "will both be protected," but it is by no means so easy to "perceive that the interests of the American reader will suffer no detriment" by giving the first two parties an absolute protection from competition.

During the copyright agitation of 1871-72 the publishers and others of Philadelphia held a meeting in January of the latter year, at which Mr. Henry Carey Baird presided and Mr. Henry C. Lea was present. Fearing that the Copyright Bill requiring American manufacture which was then urged upon Congress might become a law, a resolution opposing it was passed upon the ground that its enactment would "enable the foreign author and his assignee in this country, by an absolute monopoly in the production, to fix the price of his book without fear of competition." At that time, it should be borne in mind, there was no question of giving the reprinter such absolute monopoly as would result from cutting off the competition of the imported edition, and the remonstrance Mr. Lea then sanctioned would, therefore, apply with much greater force to the bill he now urgently advocates. A further resolution, however, setting out that this obnoxious monopoly would fall into the hands of the "great capitalists of the Atlantic seaboard," *i. e.*, the publishers of New York and Boston, gives rise to the conjecture that it was this possible danger to Philadelphia reprinters which was the real grievance.

PROTECTION TO LIQUOR-DEALING.

THE Excise Board presents both a majority and minority report to Mayor Hewitt, in making suggestions, in compliance with his request, for changes in the law. The majority, Messrs. Andrews and Von Glahn, are opposed to high license and in favor of licensing houses instead of persons, and of issuing licenses to "keep open all night to liquor-dealers in certain portions of the city, in the restaurants, hotels, and drinking places about the markets, at the ferries, railway stations, about the printing-offices, and at certain points on the main thoroughfares." They would also license certain places to keep open on Sunday during specified hours, for the accommodation of that large portion of the community who take beer or wine as part of their daily diet. On the number of drinking places they would place no restriction whatever, and as they would only charge a "moderate fee" for the privilege of carrying on the business in any particular house, and as they admit that "the rental value of places licensed is greater for that than for any other business as a rule," they must contemplate an indefinite expansion and cultivation of the business by all property-holders desirous of securing an unusually high rent for their premises.

Mr. Woodman, the minority, on the other hand, would restrict the number of licenses granted to one to 500 of population, which would cut down the number of drinking places now existing in New York from 8,000 to 3,000, and would make the license fee very high, and add imprisonment to the fine for violations of the law, and would in all cases compel the landlord of the premises on which liquor-dealing was carried on to go on the applicant's bond, if he were not himself the applicant. Both reports are worth careful reading as the expression of the two great divisions of public sentiment about the liquor business. Mr. Woodman represents those who think that

"the Excise Law was not made, and should not be administered, in the interest of the liquor-seller. It was made not to promote, but to restrict the traffic; not to protect the seller in his business, but to protect the public against the inevitable evil results of that trade. So inevitable and so evil are these results that the tendency of public opinion and of excise legislation in all civilized countries for many years past has been towards severer curtailment and control of the liquor traffic. In several States of our Union it has culminated, through popular vote, in absolute prohibition.

"Every new step, therefore, should be towards further restriction and repression. The saloon, as it has developed in this city, is a gigantic evil in the vastness of its proportions and in the character it too often bears. It is sapping the strength and endangering the safety of the commonwealth. I believe it to be in the highest degree unwise to do anything to enlarge its scope or strengthen its grip upon the community."

Messrs. Andrews and Von Glahn are not equally explicit in stating what their attitude towards the liquor traffic is, but it comes out clearly enough incidentally through their recommendations. They evidently consider it a source of comfort and convenience to a large body of the population, liable to abuse certainly, and therefore to be regulated, but in no way to be discouraged or frowned upon. Obstacles are not to be opposed to the business. The conduct of it is to be made safe and convenient; the license is to be transmissible to heirs and executors; the applicant is not to be required to reside in the county in which he sells liquor; licenses are to be issued for short terms for special occasions; connection with theatres and places of amusement is to be permitted; there are to be no prohibited hours or days for *all* drinking places. In fact, the only condition worth mention which they would attach to permission to carry on a liquor store, is the condition which is attached to permission to carry on a bakery or dairy lunch-room in all civilized communities—that is, abstinence from disorder and indecency. For, most assuredly, if it appeared that bakeries or dairy lunch-rooms were the favorite resort of bad characters of both sexes, and noted for the number of fights and murders which occurred in them, and for the number of persons who issued forth from them to commit assaults in the streets, or go home to "pound" their wives and smash their own furniture, bakers and milk-dealers would be carefully licensed and looked after by the police.

Now, whatever be the merit of this assumption of Messrs. Andrews and Von Glahn, it is certainly not the one which now commands general acceptance, or on which the bulk of this community will any longer allow liquor legislation to be based. Whatever change is made in the law in this State must be, and we believe will be, made in the direction indicated by Mr. Woodman. In other words, public opinion demands, all over the country, with increasing force, that since liquor-dealing cannot be abolished, it must be discredited; that entrance to it must be made difficult; that the number of those engaged in it must be restricted; that liquor-dealers must, by hook or by crook, be ousted from their present influence in our politics; that all regulation of the traffic must openly recognize and provide for the fact that it is by far the most fruitful source of crime and disease and poverty known to the modern world. There is not a civilized country to-day which is not dealing with this problem on these lines. All thoughtful men are everywhere seeking to make liquor-dealing an uncomfortable and disreputable calling. This tendency may be temporarily baffled here and there, but its triumph is certain in the near future, and no flummery about "reputable persons conducting an orderly place in a moderate way," or about "honest, thrifty, law-abiding" drinkers, will arrest its progress.

MUTATIONS OF THE BOOK TRADE IN GERMANY.

THE decadence of the book trade, outside of our largest cities, has been much discussed by those immediately interested, but it is to be feared that the reading public fails to perceive that the disappearance of the country book-shop implies a corresponding narrowing of the area of literary culture. In this connection it is interesting to learn (from an article in the *Preussische Jahrbücher* for November) that the same result is threatened in Germany, though the German trade suffers from only one of the evils which afflict the American. These are three in number: first, the dying out of the habit of buying books as part of the furniture, as it were, of the homes of all families of even moderate wealth and cultivation. This is chiefly owing to the enormously increased taste for bric-à-brac, engravings, artistic furnishings, and the like, the gratification of which absorbs the margin of income formerly spent in providing well-bound sets of the Waverley Novels, *Littell's Living Age*, the *Atlantic Monthly*, and the newest volumes of Huxley and Lowell. Want of space forbids our discussing this point in detail, and we therefore refer those interested to Mr. Henry Holt's New Haven address of last year. Another evil is the revolution in values—that is, in the instinctive consciousness of what one ought to pay for a book, caused by the existence of the twenty-cent libraries. The literary democracy which these have established has destroyed the aristocracy of good editions and authors' monopoly, which, apparently, had nothing to support it except custom and tradition.

These two causes would probably have been sufficient to limit the bookseller's stock to "libraries" and a few gift-books for the holidays, and this limitation is fatal to his prosperity, because the margin of profit on the "libraries" and on school-books is very small, while the gift-book season is short, and the danger of being left with damaged or *passé* stock is great. But that which, in the opinion of the trade, is the greatest evil, and the one from which, in a different form, the Germans also suffer, is the underselling, by which a few dealers are able to profit at the expense, and eventual ruin, of the majority. This is the "bazaar" nuisance, the system under which publishers sell quantities of their most salable books, at the same or greater discount, to the miscellaneous shops modelled on the Bonne Marché or the "Universal Provider," one, at least, of which is now to be found in every considerable town, and which use books, along with dentifrices and soaps, as decoys to entice buyers of their other wares. Nor is the influence of these shops confined to their immediate neighborhood, for some of them do a large business by post.

The same thing, it appears, is going on in Germany, and is ruining that particular feature of the German book-trade which, according to our *Jahrbücher* friend, is the envy of foreigners, and which has undoubtedly, as he says, largely helped to make Germany the country in which learning is geographically most widely distributed. By means of it, the scholar who lives in the remotest country town enjoys the same advantages, as regards current literature, as the dweller in the largest city. He has only to give his local bookseller the name of any book which he possibly may find valuable, and by return of post it is on his table. He may keep it several months, and after making any useful extract, return it without compensation for the loan. Two-thirds of the books he receives are thus, at the end of a year, returned to the publisher, and the bookseller makes his living out of the profit on the third book, which is bought. The rural scholar is thus never obliged to buy a pig in a poke—he has ample opportunity to learn, by examination, whether a work is indispensable, and to have the use of the larger number which, though not of permanent value to him, are of great temporary use. Another advantage of the system is that it implies the presence in every little town of a bookseller who is obliged to anticipate, to a large extent, the wants of his circle of customers, and hence to be a man of considerable intelligence, if not a scholar, him-

self, and whose shop, in a small way, is a "literary centre."

But some clever Berlin dealers a few years since conceived the idea of offering publishers to take at one time a large quantity of each book on which they were sure of a large sale, the publishers, in consideration of the large number sold, to give a discount of 40 or 50 instead of the usual 25 or 33 per cent., at which rate they were able to sell the book at about the same price which it cost the small bookseller. By this arrangement publishers and dealers alike profited, but the old-fashioned retailer, of course, came to grief. Two years ago the publishers discovered that this was a short-sighted policy—that their sales through the large dealers in the end were smaller than they had been under the old plan, and 600 of them agreed to have no dealings with firms which dealt on this principle. On September 25, 1887, this boycott was strengthened by a resolution of the Book-dealers' Union hereafter to regard every dealer who gave a discount of more than 5 per cent. as coming under the ban. But though the local bookseller in Germany, thanks to these sharp measures, will die a more lingering death than his American brother, his doom seems to be just as certain.

The resolution of the Union, which we mentioned, has been unfavorably commented upon by the press, and the *Jahrbücher* article is largely a reply to these criticisms. The writer maintains that the prices of serious works are low enough, but admits that those asked for school-books and belles-lettres are too high. In defending these positions, the (anonymous) writer gives some interesting statistics, which, as the *Jahrbücher* is issued by a highly respected firm of printers and publishers, are, we suppose, trustworthy. Incidentally the exports and imports of Germany are compared with those of France, the result of which, in view of their political relations, is highly surprising. In 1885 France imported books, engravings, etc., to the value of $6,400,000, and exported $9,000,000 worth. But taking the trade with Germany by itself, the proportion was reversed, the importation being $3,600,000, the exportation only $765,000. The total German trade for 1886 was—imports $6,000,000, exports $15,530,000.

We get, too, some light on the pecuniary profits of authorship in Germany, though the writer apologizes to his brethren for telling tales out of school. It seems, then, that the cost of putting on the market a strictly scholarly work, of which the number that may be sold will not exceed 500, and assuming the author to be neither unknown nor famous, is: Composition and presswork for an 8vo volume of 320 pages, 500 copies, $175, paper $41.25, *author's compensation*, $125, incidental expenses $33.75; total $375. Moreover, the author of a work of more popular character, which may be expected to sell 1,000 copies, or of a novel which sells 1,500 copies, gets no more for his labor; but the compiler of a school-book which is likely to sell 5,000 copies, gets the fabulous sum of $150! The insignificance of the sums paid the authors of works of scholarship and fiction might be accounted for on the ground that so many works of these classes are published with a view to benefit the author's reputation rather than his pocket; but compilers of school-books do not usually work for "glory."

THE YELLOWSTONE PARK AS A FOREST RESERVATION.

WASHINGTON, January 2, 1888.

Of the varied beauties of the Yellowstone Park much has been said in praise. The splendor of the Grand Cañon, the grandeur of the Lake and of those scientific curiosities, the geysers and hot springs, have been described over and over again until every one is more or less familiar with the natural marvels of this wonderland. Now that the once famous pink and white terraces on the shores of Rotomahana in New Zealand have ceased to exist, the similar deposits in the Yellowstone Park stand unrivalled. Notwithstanding all that has been written, based upon sentimental considerations, in favor of a maintenance of the Park by the general Government, the most forcible argument for its preservation is an economic one far outweighing all others in importance. It is one which has received but slight attention outside of a narrow circle of the friends of the Park who realize the true value of the region.

The object of first importance in maintaining the Park is the preservation of its forests. Forest preservation is rightfully attracting increased attention in all parts of the country, and it is now very generally admitted that a rigid enforcement of the proper restrictions in the cutting of timber is demanded for the public welfare. Owing to the many conflicting interests in the more settled communities, additional protection by legislation is by no means a simple problem. Nowhere is this better shown than in the struggle in New York State to preserve the timber of the Adirondacks against the encroachment of lumbermen.

The Park is a natural reservoir admirably adapted by its topographical structure for the storage of water. No region of equal area in the heart of the Rocky Mountains presents so many favorable conditions for receiving, storing, and distributing a liberal water supply. For the preservation of this water the dense forest which covers this region is of incalculable value. The central portion of the Park is a broad, elevated volcanic plateau between 7,000 and 8,500 feet above sea level, with an average elevation of about 8,000 feet; it is accidented by broad depressed basins and scored by deep gorges and narrow valleys. Surrounding it on the south, east, north, and northwest, are high peaks and mountain ridges rising from 2,000 to 4,000 feet above the general level of the enclosed table-land. Across this plateau from the southeast to the northwest, with a very sinuous course, runs the Continental divide, separating the waters of the Atlantic from those of the Pacific. Several large bodies of water, notably Yellowstone, Shoshone, Lewis, and Heart Lakes, form such characteristic features on both sides of this divide, that the country has deservedly received the appellation of the Lake region of the Park. Hundreds of smaller lakes occupy irregular depressions either in the lava flows or in shallow basins of glacial origin high up in the neighboring mountains. Scattered over the plateau, in striking contrast with the greater part of the Rocky Mountains, occur numerous ponds, marshes, and meadows, which hold very considerable amounts of water throughout the greater part of the year. More than 3,500 thermal springs bring up their waters from below to swell the surface flows, while innumerable cold springs coming out from beneath the rocks add their share to swell the current.

Careful observation of plateau, mountain, and valley shows that about 84 per cent. of the Park region is forest-clad. The bare portions of the Park are mainly areas above the timber line, steep mountain slopes, and wet marshy bottoms. The forest is essentially coniferous. A few groves of aspen (*Populus tremuloides*) add brilliancy to the autumnal foliage, but are so insignificant that from an economic point of view they may be discarded. Quite two-thirds of the trees are what are known as black pine (*Pinus Murrayana*), and one may travel for miles over the gravelly ridges of the plateau without encountering any other species. On moist ground at high elevations, and where the snows lie later in the season, this species gradually gives way to the balsam (*Abies subalpina*) and the spruce (*Pinus Engelmanni*). Over large areas, of course, the three species occur more or less mingled. In a few favored localities the statelier tree, the red fir (*Pseudotsuga Douglassi*), is conspicuous by its size and vigor. The black pine rarely attains any great size, trees more than two feet in diameter being exceptional, while over considerable areas they are so diminutive as to be locally known as "lodge-pole" pine. The young forest is generally made up of shapely, graceful trees, but the maturer growth is not specially attractive. The charm of the forest is found in the natural groupings and park-like character of the trees in the more open country, many of those on the mountain slopes being of exquisite beauty. For grandeur and imposing appearance they are not, however, to be compared with those of the Sierra Nevada or Cascade Ranges.

Precipitation of moisture throughout the arid region of the Far West is governed in part by mountain mass and in part by the great altitude of single ridges. Across the Park plateau and the Absaroka Range to the eastward the country is unsurpassed in average elevation by any area of equal extent, and is so situated as to form one of the storm-centres of the northern Rocky Mountains. The moisture-laden winds coming up from the southwest precipitate rain and snow upon the plateau and the western slope of the Absaroka Range, innumerable streams bringing the water from the mountains back into the Park. In consequence, the climate of the region is exceptional, the amount of snow and rainfall being higher and the mean annual temperature lower than over the adjacent country. Unlike the greater part of the Rocky Mountains, heavy rains occur frequently through the summer, and snow-storms are of common occurrence any time between September and May, the snows lying upon the ground well into midsummer. The region is one of the nation's grandest reservoirs, sending its waters thousands of miles to both oceans. A closer examination of this water-supply shows its preservation to be a question of vast economic interest. Two rivers, the Yellowstone and Snake, carry off the greater part of these waters; the former draining more than one-half the area of the Park, and the latter the entire western side of the divide. Yellowstone Lake, the great reservoir for the river which gives its name to the Park, is a body of water of great beauty, measuring twenty miles in length, with a breadth across its greatest expanse of fifteen miles. It has a very irregular outline, with an indented shore of nearly one hundred miles, and an area of one hundred and twenty-one square miles. Not only is the Yellowstone by many times the largest lake in North America at so high an elevation above sea level (7,741 feet), but it ranks among the first in the world at high altitudes. Upon the western side of the divide, less than six miles from the Yellowstone, and separated from it by a ridge not more than two hundred feet in height, lie Shoshone and Lewis Lakes; the former with an area of twelve square miles, and the latter four and one-half square miles. Heart Lake, at the eastern base of Mt. Sheridan, measures three square miles. These reservoirs pour their waters into the Snake, which also finds its source near the southeast corner of the Park.

In the autumn of 1886, with a view of obtaining some data upon the amount of discharge, the largest bodies of water were accurately measured. Not only was the time selected the dryest period of the year, but all lakes and streams stood at a lower level than at any time during the previous five years. Yellowstone Lake stood twenty inches below the high-water mark of early summer. The measurements may be said, therefore, to have been taken at the minimum discharge. Measured just below the outlet of the lake, the discharge of the Yellowstone River was found to be 1,525 cubic feet per second, or, in other words, 34,000,000 imperial gallons per hour. The outflows from Shoshone, Lewis, and Heart Lakes combined yielded 104 cubic feet per second. The Lamar, Firehole, Gibbon, and Madison Rivers were gauged, and careful estimates made of the Gallatin and Falls Rivers, based upon the size and flow of the streams and the area of the country drained. According to estimates of Dr. William Hallock of the United States Geological Survey, who kindly undertook the gauging of the streams, it was found that the minimum discharge was equal to one cubic foot per second per square mile over an area somewhat more than 4,000 square miles, and that the amount of water running into the Park and leaving it through the five main drainage channels would make a river five feet deep and one hundred and ninety feet wide, with a current of three miles per hour. While this may not indicate a large supply as compared with certain highly favored areas, yet it is for the arid region of the West an exceptional and excessive amount.

In an arid and sparsely timbered country and one of unequally distributed rainfall, forests and moisture maintain reciprocal relations. Experience has shown in Europe, and unfortunately already in America, the injurious effect of disafforesting a country near the headwaters of large rivers. One instance will suffice to illustrate this protecting influence of the forest. The report of the recent Forestry Commission of the State of New York says, speaking of the sources of the Hudson River, "that the summer flow of the Adirondack rivers has decreased within the memory of men now living from 30 to 50 per cent. Many of the small streams which a quarter of a century ago were abundantly supplied with water during the entire summer are now dry during many months."

Remove the forests from the sources of the Yellowstone and Snake, and the region would become a barren waste. The snows, under the scorching rays of the sun, would rapidly disappear, and early spring freshets and floods, carrying devastation before them, would strip the rocks bare of the meagre soil with which they are now covered. Under the influence of the forests the soil and vegetation are protected, which in turn act as a sponge, regulating the flow and slowly supplying the springs and streams. The climatic benefits derived from this forest-protected region can scarcely be overestimated. From the cool, wet surface of this broad storehouse of water, the dry winds coming from the West absorb immense quantities of moisture, which is again precipitated over the agricultural and grazing lands to the eastward. Not only should the present reservation be carefully guarded, but the area of the Park should be enlarged to the east and south, so as to take in a dense forest region useless for agricultural purposes and destitute of mining resources. It embraces a rough and mountainous country abounding in streams, the real sources and feeders of Snake River, Yellowstone River and Lake.

The proposed increase extends the boundaries twenty-five miles to the eastward and nine miles to the southward of the present ill-defined limits, which were established at a time when the region had been but little explored. By this enlargement, not only the entire western slope of the Absaroka Range, with its mountain torrents flowing into the Park, but the timber-lands near the heads of streams which run eastward (the waters of which drain into the Big Horn, an affluent to the Yellowstone), will fall within the protected area. To the southward, on the opposite side of the Continental divide, the country, although less rugged, is equally well supplied with streams, springs, and lakes, whose waters uniting make a broad deep river of the Snake before it fairly leaves the mountains for the plain below.

A proposition looking to the enlargement of the National Park has already been brought before the present Congress by Senator Vest of Missouri. No obstacles exist to-day against for ever setting apart this additional territory adjacent to the Park. If left alone, it will soon be invaded by the lumberman, charcoal-burner, and railway-tie cutter, the advance guard of a rapidly increasing population. The preservation of the Park is a necessity to the nation, but to no part of it more than to the Territories of Dakota, Montana, and Wyoming.

ARNOLD HAGUE.

CHAMBER AND PRESIDENT IN FRANCE.

PARIS, December 13, 1887.

THE third French Republic has already had four Presidents. The first three retired voluntarily before the end of their terms. M. Thiers resigned his power, in a moment of anger, in the hope that the Constituent Assembly would recall him immediately. Marshal MacMahon was protected by the constitutional laws enacted soon after his accession to office; he was irresponsible, and could play the part of a constitutional king. But when he dissolved the Chamber, with the consent of the Senate, in accordance with these new constitutional laws, the general elections were hostile to his Cabinet. He remained, however, a little longer in power, with M. Dufaure as Prime Minister; he might have remained to the end of his term if he had been willing to play exactly the part which is played in constitutional monarchies by the sovereigns, since the Constitution under which we live places the Presidential power above all parties. The Marshal could not persuade himself to obey in everything the dictation of his Ministers; he revolted when he was asked to exclude from active service in the army some of his old friends and comrades. The soldier was stronger in him than the President; he resigned, and M. Grévy was elected in his place. The new Constitution was this time put fairly on its trial. M. Grévy affected to take no part whatever in the politics of the day; he uttered no opinions, he seemed to have no opinion; he merely watched the Chamber of Deputies, and gave the power of forming a Cabinet to whoever could dispose momentarily of the majority of the Chambers. The struggle for power became very fierce, and the Cabinets were very short-lived. Every man was tried in his turn; the President seemed to live in a higher sphere. His retired life, his solitude, helped to surround him with a certain halo. He was thought to be a safe, prudent, shrewd man, who could use men at his will, who remained calm amid the conflict of passions, and he was especially credited for his adherence to a policy of peace, though he allowed the expeditions of Tunis and of Tonquin to take place. At the end of his first term, he expressed a desire to be reëlected, and this desire was immediately obeyed by the Chambers, though he was becoming old, and there were already some men anxious to obtain his inheritance.

When M. Grévy was reëlected, nobody could have the slightest doubt that he would quietly end his second term, if he lived long enough. But fate had decided otherwise. I will not enter here into a painful analysis of the incidents which determined him to resign and to abandon an office which he might have kept five years longer. I will only examine the question from a constitutional point of view. The term "Presidential crisis" has been often pronounced in France in the past two months, and nobody seems to have felt its impropriety very much. People have used it as naturally as they do the term ministerial crisis. A change of Ministers seems as natural an incident as a change of weather; a change of Presidents ought to be quite another thing. According to the Constitution, or rather to our constitutional laws (for we have, properly speaking, no Constitution), the President can only be removed from his office in case he commits acts which go under the name of high treason. There is nothing in the constitutional laws which gives the Chamber of Deputies the means to remove the President from the Presidential chair; but what have we seen in the case of M. Grévy? We have seen what can only be called a ministerial strike. M. Grévy offered the Premiership to one after another of the public men who are in the Chamber of Deputies, after this Chamber had upset the Rouvier Cabinet; one after another, these public men refused to undertake the formation of a new Cabinet. The Chamber of Deputies openly, distinctly, refused to give Ministers to the President.

There remained the Senate. Unable to govern with the Chamber, M. Grévy could go to the Senate, and as the constitutional laws do not give him personally the right of dissolution, he could ask the Senate to come to his help and grant him the permission to dissolve a Chamber of Deputies which refused him the means of governing. An appeal to the people, in such a case, seemed the proper remedy, and the only remedy. M. Grévy did not send a message to the Senate, and he made a mistake in not doing so, as, in such a crisis, everything must be made public. He contented himself with conversing with the President of the Senate and with some of his friends. The Senate, which is haunted with the memory of the 16th of May (when a dissolution was granted to Marshal MacMahon), which is also afraid of the Chamber of Deputies, and anxious to prolong its own existence, which at times is threatened by the Radical party, did not in this case defend its own prerogative and the prerogative of the President. There was hardly any struggle, any discussion. M. Grévy was made to understand at once that the Senate was not disposed to allow him the right to order general elections. It thus happened that though the Constitution makes him irresponsible, and gives him the right to form at his will responsible Cabinets, the President found himself placed in the impossibility of accomplishing the duties of his office. He was like an animal placed under the pneumatic pump, who dies for want of air. Irresponsible in theory, he became responsible in practice, and not even responsible for his own faults—for faults which he had not himself committed.

Those who still care for constitutional law must see that a dangerous example has been given. Let us leave aside the person of M. Grévy, and let us talk only of the Presidential power. The Chamber of Deputies has learned

by what method and by what means it can dispose of a President almost as easily as it does of a Cabinet. The leaders of the various groups have nothing to do but to form a passive coalition; they can oppose their *non-possumus* to the President almost the day after his election. The Chamber of Deputies has learned, also, that the Presidential power does not find in the Senate a sufficient support. The present drift of our institutions is therefore markedly towards the convention system—the direct and absolute government of one chamber.

The Presidential power, so essential to the stability of the republican government, could only regain its importance if it was confided to one of those remarkable men who are a power in themselves, and who have an innate faculty for the government of men. M. Thiers may be cited as one of those men. He was capable of using any constitution so as to obtain the maximum of power. But the men of his type are rare. M. Carnot, who has been chosen by the Congress of Versailles as the successor of M. Grévy, was chosen for his negative rather than for his positive qualities. It was because the two fractions of the Republican party, which go under the name of Opportunists and Radicals, could not unite on the name of M. Ferry or of M. de Freycinet that they chose a third candidate. M. Carnot was elected by the unanimous vote of the Republicans of the two Chambers, but this unanimity itself shows that his personality was not very well marked, and that both parties expected to find in him an obedient instrument.

The division, which had ceased for a day, or, to speak more correctly, for an hour, became apparent as soon as M. Carnot attempted to form a Ministry. As he had been elected by all the Republicans, he attempted to satisfy them all, and to form a Cabinet of what is called Republican concentration—a singularly ill-chosen word, since, when you mix wine and water, you cannot be said to concentrate the wine or the water. M. Carnot tried, in his turn, every man in the Chamber, and spent ten days at the Élysées conferring with the parliamentary leaders and chiefs of groups. He took notes, and studied the situation with the exactness and method of a pupil of the Polytechnic School and of an engineer. Last night he finally succeeded in getting a Cabinet. The attempt made upon the life of M. Ferry in the lobbies of the Chamber of Deputies probably helped to hasten the solution. It was high time that the crisis should come to an end. The Radical press had inflamed the public mind, and the wretched man who fired at Ferry was incited to his crime by the bitter denunciations and ravings of the revolutionary party.

We have now a Ministry, as we have a President, and the fever may subside. The budget has to be voted; the new year is coming with its customary "grève des confiseurs." But the late events have left behind them a bitter and an ominous lesson. M. Carnot is known to be an upright, honest man; he is, no doubt, animated by the best intentions. He belongs to a republican dynasty, if the word may be used, and his very name is strength to the Republic. But he finds the Presidential power weakened, deprived of its prerogative, humbled, and almost impotent; he finds the Republican party split into two sections which are becoming more and more irreconcilable, as one of those sections is becoming allied to the communistic and anarchical elements of the population of the great cities. The walls of Paris have been covered with red placards signed with the names of the surviving leaders of the Commune of 1871. M. Rochefort, during the Presidential crisis, was a power in Paris. The Municipal Council received deputations from all the anarchical societies, and sent deputations to Versailles; it was all ready to proclaim the Commune if M. Ferry had been elected by Congress. It is idle to speak of "concentration" in the face of such demonstrations. No government would be possible if a handful of agitators, followed by a drunken mob, could dictate its will to the legislative power and appoint the executive power.

The present Chamber is doomed. It can neither give sufficient strength to the Executive power, nor can it reduce the revolutionary minority of the country to its natural insignificance. It has diminished the Presidential power, it has increased the danger of Communism. Sooner or later it will have to be dissolved, and the Senate will be forced to consent to its dissolution.

Correspondence.

THE PRESIDENT'S MESSAGE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The President's message has already done the country a great service, even though its recommendations should be successfully opposed for a time. It calls into action a large class of cultivated men who had become disgusted with politics, and who were threatened with paralysis of all patriotic feeling. This condition of things constitutes a danger not less grave than the financial and commercial "condition" which it is sought to relieve. A few of these men, to be sure, have expressed their discontent with the low standards of the existing political parties, and, though few, they have already exerted a powerful influence. But many who naturally belonged with the "Mugwumps" or "Independents" took no active part, and did not even care to vote in the last Presidential election.

The late message has cleared the air, and one of the surprises of the next Presidential campaign is to be the number of cultivated men who will resume their functions as citizens. To rouse a large body of honest and well-informed citizens to exercise their rights, and to stir their patriotic feeling with a sense that it is once more worth while to consider the public good, and to strive to promote it—this is a service second to none rendered by any President since Lincoln. Mills Whittlesey.

Lawrenceville, N. J., December 24, 1887.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A general observer of political events might readily come to the conclusion that the voters and press of this country were divided into hostile camps, one composed of the friends of the President and the other of the adherents of Mr. Blaine. For the nonce, personal following seems to have taken the place of party ties, and the question is, not whether you are a Democrat or Republican, but whether you are a Cleveland man or a Blaine man. This state of affairs has had its immediate origin in the recent message of the President. Whether or not he intended to announce a policy of his own, such has been the result of his recommendations to Congress.

Never before in the history of the country (as far as the writer knows) has a message of the President been met, before the ink was scarcely dry, by a counter expression of views from the candidate whom he had defeated. Are publications of personal opinions, in the nature of pronunciamientos, by leaders of parties who more or less have control of party machinery, to take the place of platforms made by national conventions? If this is to be the case, our country may soon find itself on a level with South American republics, and be governed by a dictator.

If the politicians of the country rally to the support of this or that man as embodying the supreme intelligence of the country, let the voters of each party unite in choosing discreet and able men as their unpledged delegates to their respective national conventions, who will set forth in the platforms the distinctive principles of each party, and nominate men who will worthily represent those principles.

Yours truly, Talbot J. Albert.

Baltimore, December 27, 1887.

HOW IS THE TARIFF TO BE MODIFIED?

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I am greatly interested in your clear and elementary articles on the tariff question. With free-trade education and proclivities, I am, nevertheless, in the iron business. You often refer to the iron trade. Would you object to giving a few plain answers to problems that are presented to any one in my branch of trade, taking a practical view of the situation?

(1.) I want to know what the President, Mr. Carlisle, and your editor mean when you advocate a reduction of revenues that will prevent a surplus. You oppose abolition of internal revenue, and therefore, of course, would take the $100,000,000 off the customs revenue. Now how would you do it? Abolish all tax on all raw materials, including wool, and you have made only one-eighth of the necessary reduction. Take off all tax on every form of iron and steel manufactures, and you have reduced another eighth. Take off that tax, and increased imports would prevent any reduction. To make the necessary reduction, therefore, must not Congress necessarily sweep the board and bring in free every form of cotton, woollen, silk, iron, steel, jute, chemical, and other manufactures? Is there any middle course? If so, give us an approximate idea of it.

(2.) What can the President possibly mean in proposing to so shape this enormous reduction of import duties as not to seriously affect the dignity and reward of American labor? I take it that other protected interests are not radically different from iron, and in this industry I speak from knowledge, being actively interested in blast furnaces in three widely separated American districts. A ton of pig iron on the furnace bank represents labor, and nothing else. The average cost now, taking the country over, is not less than $15.50 to $16.00 per ton—all labor. Take this to Chicago or St. Louis at an average freight, say, of $3.00, and it represents not less than $18.50 per ton, labor and freight. Add $1.00 per ton for profit, and you have just about the average market to-day at the great Western centres. (In Pittsburgh the selling price to-day is probably below cost of manufacture.)

Now, Scotch and English iron can pay $6.72 per ton duty and come within one or two dollars per ton of meeting these prices in Chicago and St. Louis. Take off this $6.72 protection, and there is an instant advantage of at least $5.00 per ton for the foreign manufacturer in the very centre of the American Continent. My furnaces have plainly one of two courses to pursue—shut up, or reduce cost (labor) by $5.00 per ton, or 33 per cent. Can you think of any other way? If not, do you think American mechanics, artisans, and laboring men, and the farmers who find manufacturing centres their highest priced markets, will permit any party to stand which advocates such action?

I ask these questions, not to argue for a system that has many inconsistencies, but to get

light on the practical phases of a question affecting every American citizen. H.

CINCINNATI, O.

[We have never advocated taking $100,000,000 off the customs revenue; but if that were desirable, we could find ways to do it without producing all of the evils apprehended by "H." The Bureau of Statistics classifies our imports, for purposes of convenience and simplicity, in six schedules, with the amounts of duty collected, thus:

Class A—Food and live animals.....	$67,998,330
Class B—Articles to be manufactured	19,567,903
Class C—Manufactures to be further manufactured.....	20,393,494
Revenue from these classes.....	$107,959,727

The other schedules are "manufactured articles ready for consumption" and "articles of voluntary use, luxuries, etc.," which need not be here considered. The "manufactured articles to be further manufactured" consist of tin plates, wire rods, paints, dyes, and chemicals, lumber, leather, furs, materials for hats, and woollen and worsted yarns. Pig iron is in the list of crude articles to be manufactured, and is an inconsiderable item so far as the revenue collected from it goes.

An effectual measure for the reduction of the surplus would be the repeal or reduction of taxes on the following articles:

Domestic tobacco.....	$30,000,000
Sugar (reduce one-half).....	30,000,000
Other food and raw materials.....	30,000,000
	$90,000,000

The surplus is a tremendous fact. It was $55,000,000 on the 1st of December. It is now $66,000,000. Any person who objects to any particular mode of reducing it is bound to show a better one.—ED. NATION.]

"IN THIS CONNEXION."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: One of your correspondents, some months ago, ventured to characterize the words of my heading as at once "a New England phrase" and "a very illogical provincialism." My compendious reply to him, in No. 1127, was: "It is neither; and I could make good my contention." I now do so.

By normal development, *connexion*, originally abstract, has come to be also concrete, for "person or thing in connexion or connected"; and it is, further, used collectively, as in "the Whig *connexion*," "the Methodist *connexion*." But the fact is overlooked, by lexicographers, that it has been synonymized with *context;* except that, in this acceptation, it is seldom, however unobjectionably, found immediately preceded by the definite article. "*The connexion* goes to show," or the like, I do not remember to have met with more than once.

Etymologically considered, though not with the sanction of ordinary usage, like the Latin *contextus*, *context* signifies, according to Dr. Johnson's first definition of it, "the general series of a discourse"; a definition which the latest editor of Dr. Johnson's Dictionary, Dr. Latham, has omitted. As all but invariably employed, the term imports, with reference to a discourse or composition, viewed as a complex, one of its items, clauses, or topics, regarded relatively to something to which it is either adjacent or allied.

Connexion, precisely so taken, is exemplified in the subjoined quotations, &c.:

"This word, in certain *connexions*, denotes," &c.: "The word, . . . in all its *connections* throughout the Hebrew scriptures," &c. Rev. Martin Madan, *Thelypthora* (1780), vol. i., pp. 48, 62.

"Martin took the sentence out of its *connection*." Richard Porson, *Letters to Mr. Archdeacon Travis* (1790), p. 310.

"Here, then, we have not only the same argument stated, but stated in the same *connexion*." William Hazlitt (1807), *Political Essays* (1819), p. 413.

"By placing any of the arithmetic signs or words . . . in different *connexions*, they may seem (but only seem) to acquire and express different meanings." James Gilchrist, *The Labyrinth Demolished* (1815), p. 22.

"In such a *connexion*, . . . the indefinite article answers a useful purpose." *Id.*, *The Etymologic Interpreter* (1824), p. 138.

"Sulpicius also happens to mention, in *another connexion*," &c. Cardinal Newman (1833, &c.), *The Church of the Fathers* (2nd ed. of 1842), p. 412. And again (1842) in the Cardinal's *Essay on Ecclesiastical Miracles* (1843), p. 82, and in other works of his.

"Those who pick the word out of its *connexion*," &c. Rev. Dr. S. R. Maitland, *Remarks*, &c. (1836), p. 31.

"Its influence on the planting and manufacturing interests is a subject to be considered in another *connexion*." Miss Harriet Martineau, *Society in America* (1837), vol. i., p. 103 (ed. 1839). Also in vol. ii., pp. 117, 252, 306.

"This is almost the only *connexion* in which the word 'woman' is used." *Id.*, *ibid.*, vol. iii., p. 83.

"I certainly had not read it [*scil.*, a certain passage] in its original *connexion*." Rev. Dr. W. H. Mill (1846), *Five Sermons on the Nature of Christianity* (1848), p. 130.

"In another *connexion*." Rev. Mark Pattison, *Oxford Essays* (1855), p. 277.

"In such a *connexion*." Mr. Walter Bagehot (1859), *Literary Studies* (1879), vol. i., p. 213.

"In a different *connexion*." Dr. W. G. Ward, *Nature and Grace* (1860), pp. 349, 416.

"In different *connexions*." Rev. Benjamin Jowett, *Essays and Reviews* (1860), p. 371.

"In a different *connexion*," "in another *connexion*." Prof. John Conington (died 1869), *Miscellaneous Writings* (1872), vol. i., pp. 266, 458.

"In a somewhat different *connection*." Mr. Richard Congreve (1870), *Essays*, &c. (1874), p. 364.

"In such a *connection*." Mr. John Morley, *Critical Miscellanies*, vol. i. (1871), p. 313. "In the present *connection*." *Id.*, *Voltaire* (1871), p. 295 (ed. 1872).

"In such a *connection*." Mr. Leslie Stephen, *Hours in a Library*, First Series (1874), p. 321. "In any other *connection*." *Id.*, *History of English Thought*, &c. (1876), vol. ii., p. 403.

"In several *connexions*, . . . in different *connexions*." Mr. Matthew Arnold, *God and the Bible* (1875), p. 297 (ed. 1884).

"In the same *connexion*." Prof. Sidney Colvin, *Landor* (1881), p. 21.

Passing by unnoticed a great many similar proofs of my position which are at hand, I give four quotations exemplifying the not unusual substitution of *connexion* for *context* in a tralatitious sense:

"Many ideas may be excellent as parts of a great whole, which, when violently torn from their *connection*," &c. William Godwin, *An Enquiry concerning Political Justice* (1793), p. 220.

"A subject in all its import, meaning, *connections*, relations, aspects, and bearings." James Gilchrist, *Reason the True Arbiter of Language* (1814), p. 79.

"Meantime, the clergy were pretending to find express sanctions of slavery in the Bible, and putting words to this purpose into the mouths of public men who do not profess to remember the existence of the Bible in any other *connexion*." Miss Martineau (*ut supra*), vol. iii., p. 231.

"How should a story prove the existence of God, which, if told in any other *connection*, would only prove its narrator to be the victim or the author of a lie?" Mr. Leslie Stephen, *Hours in a Library*, Second Series (1876), p. 142.

On at least one occasion, William Hazlitt pretty clearly extends the meaning of *connexion*, so as to make the word equivalent to *discourse*. It is where, having premised the names of Byron and Scott, he goes on to say:

"We shall treat of them in the same [*i. e.*, one and the same] *connection*." *Spirit of the Age* (1825), p. 159.

Connexion is here much the same as *contexte*, agreeably to the first part of one of the definitions of it in the Dictionary of the French Academy: "Un texte quelconque, considéré par rapport à l'ensemble d'idées qu'il présente, ou au sens que certains passages empruntent de ce qui les précède ou de ce qui les suit."

The word *context*, in all likelihood, seemed too formal and technical to those who proposed, in place of it, *connexion* used restrictively. The latter has, however, but little affected, on the whole, the prevalence of the former; and we find, in the pages of a living author, even "in this *context*," in preference to the phrase which has been objected to. Mr. Richard Congreve has (1873):

"But, if I wished to indicate the general defect under which we labour, a general ground for our not producing a greater effect than we do, I should avail myself of the words of one of our number—not used *in this context*, but suiting my present purpose,—and say," &c. *Essays*, &c. (1874), p. 480.

As respects the particular combination "in this connexion," possibly it had not yet appeared in 1800; and, at present, I am unable to show that its age is more than half a century. That all along during that time, however, it has had the support of very good authority is evidenced by the ensuing quotations and references:

"Such, at least, is the theory; and one fact, *in this connexion*, is," &c. Miss Martineau (*ut supra*), vol. i., p. 277. Also in vol. ii., p. 28, and vol. iii., p. 75.

"*In this connexion* we are led to quote," &c. Cardinal Newman (1841), *Essays Critical and Historical* (1871), vol. ii., p. 272.

"*In this connexion*, therefore, it is full of interest to trace back," &c. Bp. Samuel Wilberforce, *A History of the Protestant Episcopal Church in America* (1844), p. 13 (ed. 1846).

Prof. F. W. Newman, *History of the Hebrew Monarchy* (1847), p. 354: *Miscellanies* (1869), p. 302.

Rev. G. S. Faber, *The Many Mansions*, &c. (1851), p. 437 (ed. 1862).

Rev. Dr. S. R. Maitland, *Eight Essays on Various Subjects* (1852), p. 150.

Saturday Review (1861), vol. xi., p. 662.

Literary Churchman (1861), vol. vii., p. 447.

Mr. John Morley, *Critical Miscellanies*, vol. i. (1871), p. 322. *Id.*, *On Compromise* (1874), p. 116.

Mr. Leslie Stephen, *Hours in a Library*. First Series (1874), p. 192: Third Series (1879), p. 198.

Rev. J. D. Aylward, in *Essays on Religion and Literature*, edited by Cardinal Manning, Third Series (1874), p. 86.

Dr. C. E. Appleton (1876), *Life and Literary Relics* of him (1881), p. 175.

Mr. J. A. Symonds, *Shelley* (1878), p. 85.

"George Eliot," *Impressions of Theophrastus Such* (1879), pp. 271, 348. The expression is there used figuratively.

Dr. W. G. Ward (1882), *Essays on the Philosophy of Theism* (1884), vol. ii., pp. 122, 132.

The want of sufficient specification in some of my old notes prevents me from referring here to the Rev. Dr. Whewell and many other authors of acknowledged repute.

Even if "in this connexion" stood, as it has been supposed to do, for the elliptical "in connexion with this," still it could not be arraigned either as "very illogical," or as violently unidiomatical. Nearly on all fours with it, thus understood, is "in his company," with which may be compared "on this account," "on this score," "in his stead," and similar expressions in abundance. Madame D'Arblay's "in its comparison," for "in comparison with or of it," is certainly very peculiar. See her *Diary and Letters*, vol. vi. (1846), p. 199.

"In this connexion," "in another connexion," "in such a connexion," &c., are, obviously, homogeneous. The second occurs, in the range of

my reading, as early as the first. Cardinal Newman has been cited for both of them; and, in the absence of proof, it is not lightly to be assumed that such a master of English idiom would countenance so illegitimate an ellipsis as "in another connexion," for "in connexion with another matter," or the like.

Finally, if the use of *connexion* for *context*, frequent as it is, had not been overlooked, probably the expressions here discussed would have incurred no censure. As regards "in this connexion," the late Mr. Edward S. Gould was well advised in declining the advice given him to condemn it. That it is "not often employed by the best writers in England" is one of the numerous statements hazarded by the editors of Dr. Webster's Dictionary which require modification, while their primâ-facie explanation of it, "in connection with this subject," calls to be revised.—Your obedient servant, F. H.

MARLESFORD, ENGLAND, December 13, 1887.

ROBERT SOUTH AND THE ENCYCLOPÆDIA BRITANNICA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the last volume of the 'Encyclopædia Britannica' (volume xxii), in the article "Robert South," it is said: "In 1710, he (South) showed himself a keen opponent of Sacheverell." Now, in the memoir of Dr. South which is prefixed to the edition of his works published by Bohn of London, in 1850, it is said (page vii): "His zeal for the welfare of his beloved Church lost none of its ardour, and we are not surprised to find that, among the last acts of his public life, was his interesting himself on behalf of the notorious Dr. Sacheverell."

Again, Dr. Lake, the present Dean of Durham, says in his essay on South (Kempe's 'Classic Preachers of the English Church,' p. 64): "[He] was a warm supporter of Sacheverell." Confidence in this statement may be somewhat impaired by the fact that Dr. Lake adds that this occurred "in 1670," whereas Sacheverell was not born till 1674. The internal evidence, however, would be all in favor of Dr. Lake and the Memoir and against the 'Encyclopædia Britannica.' Sacheverell was an ardent Tory, who preached two sermons in 1709, declaring the Church in danger from the course of the Whig Ministry. For this he was prosecuted in February, 1710. South, too, was a strong Tory, and was all his life proclaiming the divine right of Church and State and non-resistance to royal ordinance. It is in the highest degree improbable that he should be a "keen opponent" of a man whose position he so thoroughly sympathized with as that of Dr. Sacheverell. I have not at hand the means for consulting authorities more widely and determining whether the 'Encyclopædia Britannica' has made a mistake here, as would seem to be the case. Can any of your readers settle the question?

It is also stated in the same article that South was, before the Restoration, "a strong supporter of Presbyterianism." I can find no evidence of this, except the fact that in 1655, the year in which he took his B. A. degree at Oxford, he published a Latin panegyric on Cromwell. When we remember that Latin verses in England, even in our own day, are not the most natural medium for the expression of the author's opinions, and that the subjects for such verses are often set by the college authorities, stronger proof of South's ardent support of Presbyterianism will be needed than these verses. As negative proof that he was not attracted to Presbyterianism are to be noted the facts that he satirized the Puritans in his public capacity of *Terræ Filius* at Oxford; that he drew upon himself the severe reprimand of Dr. John Owen, Cromwell's Vice-Chancellor of the University, for continuing to worship according to the liturgy, after it had been prohibited; that he was admitted to holy orders in 1658 by a deprived bishop, whereas, if he had been an adherent of Presbyterianism, he would naturally either have sought ordination from Presbyterian authorities, or, if more Episcopally inclined, from some conforming bishop; and that in 1659 he made a violent attack in his sermon, "The Professors of Godliness, but Workers of Iniquity," on the Independents—though this, it is true, it is possible he might have done if he had been a Presbyterian. South has quite enough to answer for in being always the champion of the established fact, without compelling him, unless such was unquestionably the case, to answer so grave a charge as that of a change from a "strong supporter of Presbyterianism" to a bitter opponent of it in a very brief time. Can any one confirm or convict the 'Encyclopædia Britannica' here again? FREDERIC PALMER.

JENKINTOWN, PA., December 28, 1887.

Notes.

CHAS. SCRIBNER'S SONS' near publications are the 'Memoir of Fleeming Jenkin,' by Robert Louis Stevenson; 'The English in the West Indies,' by J. A. Froude; 'Old Spain and New Spain,' by the Rev. Henry M. Field; a new edition, thoroughly revised, of J. J. Knox's 'United States Notes'; and an English translation of Prof. Franz Delitzsch's latest edition of his 'Commentary on Genesis.'

Anson D. F. Randolph & Co. will publish immediately 'The Triumph of the Presbytery of Hanover; or, The Separation of Church and State in Virginia; to which is added a Concise History of the Presbyterian Church in America, from 1705 to 1888,' by Jacob Harris Patton, M.A., Ph.D. They will also put their imprint on the 'Life of Samuel Morley,' by Edwin Hodder, author of 'The Life of Lord Shaftesbury.'

The Dante Society announces that the Concordance of the 'Divina Commedia,' upon which Prof. E. A. Fay has been engaged for some time, and of which we have already spoken, is now ready for printing. The volume will contain between eight and nine hundred pages, and the greatest care will be taken to insure accuracy in the printing. The price in cloth is ten dollars, by subscription. It is hoped that there will be a ready response from the scholars of the country to aid in crediting America with so valuable a publication. Subscriptions may be sent to Mr. John Woodbury, 10 Tremont St., Boston, or, in Europe, to Messrs. Trübner & Co., Ludgate Hill, London.

Prof. W. I. Knapp of Yale is still desirous of obtaining material for his Biography of George Borrow. A condensed sketch of the career of this remarkable man was prepared by Prof. Knapp for the November *Chautauquan*, and he has reprinted it as a little brochure for private distribution in furtherance of his researches.

We have already noted, at the time of their appearance in *Scribner's*, the letters of a young woman at the beginning of the century, which are now published in an attractive book-form under the title 'A Girl's Life Eighty Years Ago' (Scribners). The scope of the correspondence, which ranges over Portland, Boston, Saratoga, New York, and Charleston, gives a broad view of the conditions of our early social life. The illustrations are numerous and well printed, and the portraits of old Salem and other worthies have almost an historical interest in our social annals. Clarence Cook furnishes a sympathetic and competent introduction.

An American edition of S. C. Hall's 'Book of British Ballads' was published in 1844. The collection seemed a proper one for the series called "Knickerbocker Nuggets" (Putnams), and it takes its place there so far transformed as to have very abridged notices of the several ballads, relegated to an appendix instead of being prefixed, and all the original illustrations reduced in size to fit the tiny page. For decorative purposes this reduction is no loss. The finest type called for by the scheme is an occasional hardship to the eyes.

Dryden's Poems, more of Plutarch's Lives, Shakspere's "Winter's Tale" (with its progenitor, Greene's "Pandosto"), and Southey's 'Colloquies on Society,' are the latest issues in the pocket "Cassell's National Library."

The 'Jubilee and Plantation Songs' published by Oliver Ditson & Co. is a selection which one may be glad to own who cares to preserve specimens of this indeterminately large class of truly American compositions. It draws upon the stock of the various colored college singers, with but little indebtedness to the best extant collection, the 'Slave Songs of the United States.' Even when the titles and words are the same, a great difference in the airs is often remarkable.

L. K. Strouse & Co., New York, send us seven numbers of the first volume of the official edition of the Inter-State Commerce Commission Reports—a series destined to be classical in the literature of transportation the world over.

A *Civil-Service Chronicle and United States Consular Record* is to be edited in Boston by C. B. Norton, and published monthly at a low price. It will supply practical information in regard to the civil service, examinations for admission to it, preparation and study for it, etc. It will keep the run of consular affairs, and give extracts from consular reports. It will favor the growth of foreign trade, and advocate steamship subsidies to South American ports.

Book-Lore has been absorbed into the *Book-Worm* (London: Elliot Stock; New York: Geo. J. Coombes). The first number of the new journal bears date of December, 1887. It is smaller, handier, and typographically more attractive than its predecessor. Its aim, as well as we can make out, is to popularize the love of books by spreading readable information about "old-time literature." It is illustrated, and starts with an interesting table of contents, in which Mr. Henry B. Wheatley's paper on 'John Wesley's English Dictionary' would be generally allowed to be of first importance intrinsically and in the line of the magazine.

The *Art Age* for December issues as a detached supplement an admirable engraving, by Elbridge Kingsley, of a wood scene, "Silence," after the painting of that name by Wm. Bliss Baker. The block is very large (14½x10), and in all respects the print is suitable for preservation by framing.

Vol. ii of *Modern Language Notes* (1887) lies before us, neatly bound. It would be impossible, of course, to give even an inkling of contents so diversified. We can only congratulate the managing editor, Prof. Elliott, and his associates, Messrs. Bright, Goebel, and Todd, upon their success. What seemed a problem two years ago is now an assured fact. The *Notes* already take the lead in all matters per-

taining to the scientific teaching of modern languages and literatures. This comes of having a high purpose and the courage of one's convictions. We have only one remark to offer upon the general direction of the *Notes:* it is, that English philology has not the prominence that one might look for in an English journal. This bias towards the foreign is doubtless one of which the editors are not at all conscious. It is at bottom the result of occult psychological forces. Educated as so many of us have been in foreign schools, we are apt to overlook the truism that the foreign is there the *native*. If we are to rival the Germans, for instance, not merely in form but in spirit, we shall give the lion's share to our own modern language, as they give it to theirs.

Carl's essay on the life and works of Thomas Lodge, *Anglia* x, 235-238, is a good summing up and restatement of what was already known, but it scarcely adds to our knowledge. Like so many other disquisitions in the *Anglia*, it suffers from an overflow of "Quellen"; the three pages of authorities might profitably have been condensed into one. And one monograph on Lodge, the most important of late years, is strangely conspicuous by its absence—we mean Gosse's paper, in his 'Seventeenth Century Studies' (London, 1883). From it Carl might have learned of Lodge's being entered at Merchant School, March, 1571; also that the non-mention of Lodge in his father's will by no means implied disinheritance for bad conduct. Carl does not seem to be aware of Lodge's later proclivities to Roman Catholicism, touched upon by Gosse. Read in this light, the passage, cited p. 261, condemning the use of Scripture for the drama, is anything but "irony"; it is rather the language of a convert.

The latest issue of the *Englische Studien*, xi, 1, contains an instructive article of twenty-five pages by Krummacher on the language and style of Carlyle's 'Frederick II.' We are all familiar by this time with Carlylese, its strong and its weak points. But such a systematic treatment of it by a well-trained foreigner will give us a clearer perception of its oddities. The words are arranged in alphabetical order. Not the least valuable portion of the paper is that which treats of compounds and derivatives. The author has erred occasionally in treating as Carlylese what is common literary property—thus, "abeyance," page 80. "Doggery," page 83, can scarcely be a rendering of *Canaille;* "thimblerig-filouterie," page 82, is too obvious in meaning to call for a (?). "Inarticulate," page 85, is interpreted "beliebter Ausdruck für wortkarg, verschlossen, unberedt, auch für unverständlich"; not one of these quite hits the mark.

An interesting recent Russian publication is 'Old St. Petersburg,' by M. I. Pylayeff, with numerous illustrations taken from old prints. The city is old enough and has undergone enough changes to render such a book appropriate, though it cannot compete with many other European capitals in the beauty of its ancient structures, whatever may be said about the buildings of the present day.

General Alexander von Kaulbars, before he became so conspicuous in Bulgarian affairs, was chiefly known as explorer of the Oxus, or Amu-Darya, River and its basin. He has recently issued a new book on the subject, entitled 'The Most Ancient Beds of the Amu-Darya.' Thanks to the labors and investigations of specialists, one of the most prominent questions of late has been as to the former course of that Central-Asian stream, and it is a question of some interest independently of its purely scientific aspects. Recent researches have revealed traces of the former channel of the river through the present oasis of Khiva, below Pitnyak, and further out on the steppe towards the Sari-Kamyshk basin, and also of an ancient channel through which the overflow of this basin reached the Caspian Sea. General Kaulbars's latest volume is devoted to the subject of these ancient channels; and he notes the traces which are met with above Pitnyak, along the banks of the river's present channel, and in the stretch lying between Khiva and the northern extensions of the Paropamisus, nearly to the Caspian Sea. His volume is published by the Geographical Society at St. Petersburg, is accompanied by charts showing the altitude of various points above the level of the Caspian Sea along the line of Tcharjui-Merv, etc., by a detailed chart of the country between the Caspian Sea and the Sea of Aral, of the districts adjoining the Amu-Darya, and by other charts.

The December Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society contains a brief sketch of Mr. A. D. Carey's remarkable journey in 1885 from Ladakh through Central Asia and from Lob Nor across the Altyn Tagh into northern Tibet. The solitariness of part of the region through which he passed can be realized from the fact that for eighty days he did not see a human being save the members of his own party. When they at length reached an inhabited place, his followers in an ecstasy of delight knelt and kissed the first human foot-prints which they saw. There were some fertile tracts, but this part of Turkestan is generally very sterile, and the people are wretchedly poor. They were very friendly, however, and apparently well governed. Crime was rigidly repressed, and life and property as safe as in India. At one point Mr. Carey reports falling in with an incredible number of antelopes, and at another he saw tigers hunting on the ice.

Petermann's Mitteilungen for November contains the conclusion of Dr. V. Jhering's report on the German colony in the Brazilian province of Rio Grande do Sul, together with a sketch of Capt. J. S. King's explorations in Somaliland. Dr. Schinz throws very serious doubts on the genuineness of Mr. Farini's 'Through the Kalahari Desert,' hinting very plainly that it is nothing but a "Jules Verne'sche" romance. A supplementary number contains an elaborate monograph on the island of Corfu by J. Partsch, accompanied by three admirable maps.

The third part of 'Bibliographie générale et raisonnée du droit belge,' by Edmond Picard and Ferdinand Larcier (Brussels: F. Larcier), has been published during the year and completes the alphabet of authors. The three parts, of which the first was published in 1882 and the second in 1885, make one volume of 867 octavo pages. A second volume is to contain the periodicals, series, and all the anonymous works, notwithstanding that when the authorship of an anonymous book has been discovered, the title appears under the author's name in this first volume. The publisher also promises a subject index. The period covered begins with the year 1814, and the number of titles recorded is 6,786. This number includes, however, the contributions to 136 periodicals and society publications which are indexed. When these are deducted, there remain about 4,200 titles of books and pamphlets upon law subjects issued from the press of Belgium in something like seventy years. Aside from a large number of inaugural dissertations in Latin, nearly every book is in the French language, the only exceptions being seventy-one titles in Dutch, three in German, and a single one, 'The Laws of Belgium which Affect British Subjects,' in English. The titles are given with reasonable fulness, including the place of publication, name of publisher, and date, while the size of each book and the number of pages it contains are stated, and, when it was published for sale, the price is added. Only the last edition of a work is catalogued, but in a note the dates of the earlier editions are mentioned, and the notes also contain brief references to review notices, while, in the case of deceased authors, biographical references are appended.

The new Berlin school for the study of Oriental languages has 115 students, 40 of whom are preparing for the diplomatic and colonial service. There are about as many who expect to be teachers and naturalists or explorers, the remainder being merchants' clerks. The Arabic and Chinese classes are most numerously attended, the Japanese and Turkish coming next.

—In the January *Atlantic*, fiction comes well to the front, with two new serials, and the prospectus for the year promises yet a third from the pen of Henry James. The leading place is given to a novel fresh in topic and treatment, the scene being laid in Japan. The opening chapters introduce us to a missionary circle and exhibit the limitations of mind and culture in some of its members, with an unsparing frankness. One overhears in the comments of the principal character, who tells the story in his own person, the author's disapproval of some traits which it is not surprising to find in earnest and narrow persons from among whom the ranks of missionaries are necessarily recruited, and there is something of harshness in the words used, however just they may be in particular cases. But the Japanese heroine is drawn with a tender touch, and has the pathetic quality apt to be found in aliens who interest the Western mind; and the episode of her early life, which is the main incident of these chapters, is a delightful child-story. The progress of this tale from a new hand will be looked for with a humanitarian's as well as a novel-reader's interest. The other serial is from Miss Murfree, whose engraved portrait accompanies the number; it is in her well-worked style. The remainder of the contents is variously made up of travel to the two Golden Horns of Constantinople and California; of some letters of Franklin to Strahan which illustrate the sort of books our great-grandfathers read; and of a short contribution by Mr. Edward J. Lowell to the endless discussion of what should constitute a liberal education for an American boy, from the point of view of the smaller college. Mr. James Russell Lowell contributes a brief poem in lyrical form, which exhibits both the grace of his muse and the mastery of his hand, and is another foretaste of the promised volume for which the public still waits.

—The illustrated article in *Scribner's* is one upon mediæval armor. It is very complete, and is accompanied by a text which is not too technical, though somewhat difficult to follow as a history of armor. The Great Pyramid, a subject whose interest seems to be as eternal as the stone, is admirably pictured from many points of view, and the story of its exploration in modern times is well told. Fiction is represented by a new long novel by Mr. F. J. Stimson, "First Harvests"—presumably the first results of American civilization in society. The scene is in New York, the characters are fashionable, the tone is cynical to a fault; the work has received high finish, and there are some beautiful descriptions of the sights of an oil refinery, in which there was opportunity for the author's poetic feeling. Mr. Brownell continues to exalt the French genius for intelligence, but his essays suffer from comparison with Mr. Hamerton's late papers. Mr. Lang

has a charming motive for a poem in "American Antiquities," of which he makes the most he is able to do; and Mr. Aldrich contributes a pathetic single-thought poem, "White Edith." A very interesting article to those whose taste leads them to Oriental art is from the hand of Mr. William Elliot Griffis, on "Japanese Art, Artists, and Artisans," with illustrations after drawings by a Japanese artist. Municipal finance and Balzac are topics to add variety, and the number is rounded off by Mr. Robert Louis Stevenson, who confides to the reader how his waking moments have been served by his dreams, which have given suggestions or scenes for some of his stories.

—The interest of the January *Harper's* lies largely in its illustrations. Two of the contributions treat directly of art subjects, and yet in such a way as to leave the pictures in the first place. The "Adoration of the Magi," which leads the number, shows the changes of rendering and spirit which different times have brought about in the case of one of the constant themes of the painter's imagination, from the walls of the Catacombs to the Church of the Incarnation in this city; and the article upon "French Sculpture" makes the modern masters of France known by a number of examples of their characteristic works. The text of both papers is inferior. Archdeacon Farrar's sketch of the share of America in Westminster Abbey is also mainly attractive from its cuts; but the attention of those who are interested in placing memorials in England to testify to American filial piety, may be directed to the Archdeacon's desire to "erect a worthy window" to John Milton's memory in the Church of St. Margaret's, and his declaration that if any of Milton's American admirers should be willing to assist in this design, he would "on public grounds most heartily welcome their munificence." The twenty portraits of Italian Deputies, principally ministers, are also of interest to the eye, and the text is what it should be, brief and to the point. Mr. Watterson writes of the tariff from the reformer's standpoint, but hardly with the closeness and point specially desirable now. The city of Savannah is graphically laid before the reader in an article that glows with the optimism and pride of the new South, and is materially instructive as well. Mr. Black begins a new novel, and Mr. Curtis again passes to his readers the compliments of the season.

—The 'Social History of England,' by Louise Creighton (London: Rivingtons, 1887), is the second contribution to a series called "Highways of History," edited by Louise Creighton, the first volume of which, 'The Government of England,' by the same author, appeared in 1884. "The aim of this series," says the prospectus, "is to give consecutive treatment to certain important subjects in English History. . . . The treatment of the subjects in this series is adapted for the use of students who have already mastered the general outline of English History, but wish for more connected information with regard to some special point. Each part is complete in itself, and treats of its own subject without reference, except where necessary, to the general course of events." In the 'Social History of England,' the author has, on the whole, done her work admirably. Every important phase of social development, from the mark system of the Saxons, the medieval towns, gilds, monasteries, feudalism, villeinage, etc., down to the reforms of the nineteenth century, is briefly but ably and comprehensively discussed. In a compilation like this, based on many authorities, some omissions and errors of detail are inevitable. On p. 10 the important points of divergence between English and Continental feudalism should have been briefly characterized. The distinction between court baron and court customary, on p. 13, is not fully enough stated. The old gild-halls of England did not bear the name *hans hus*, as asserted on p. 21, except perhaps in the two cases of Beverley and York. The *firma burgi* was not merely the right of the burgesses to collect the royal dues belonging to a town (p. 23), but the commutation of those dues by the annual payment of a fixed sum of money. There is no good authority for the statement, on p. 25, that "a branch of the famous Hanseatic League had been established in London certainly since 967." For *firma burghi*, on p. 23, read *firma burgi*; for *Gilda Teutonicurum*, on p. 39, *Gilda Teutonicorum*. But we are not inclined to emphasize these and some other shortcomings that have attracted our attention. The work is a compilation of real merit, which may be safely commended not merely to young students, but also to older persons seeking to supplement or to refresh their knowledge of the *Culturgeschichte* of England.

—Sievers's Anglo-Saxon grammar, whether in the original German or in Cook's translation, is doubtless somewhat bulky and complicated for the beginner. Admitting this, we cannot withhold from the 'Outline of Anglo-Saxon Grammar,' by Baskervill and Harrison (A. S. Barnes & Co.) the merit of undertaking to meet a practical want. The pamphlet is an "offprint," with some corrections, of the Appendix to the Dictionary, published two years ago. But we suspect that the editors are not fully abreast with the times. Why, for instance, do they adhere to Koch's antiquated classification of strong verbs, instead of following the more scientific classification of Braune, Sievers, and Noreen? Or treat tōd, fōt, bōc as *mixed* stems? Or speak of *niht* as indeclinable? Aside from the adverbial genitive *nihtes*, mentioned by them, we find a genitive *nihtes* not adverbial, a genitive *nihte*, a dative *nihte*, gen.-pl. *nihta*, dat.-pl. *nihtum*. The statement, page 65, that the verb forms (*a-hwī*) are based on Bosworth-Toller and Groschopp, and the orthography corrected by Sweet's 'Reader,' is not encouraging. It would have been incomparably safer to follow Sievers's second edition implicitly. And what is meant by *regular* verb-forms? Followers of Sievers know that there are dialects in early English, and that in each dialect there are early and late forms. But they know nothing of regular forms as distinguished from irregular. The editors have retained throughout such spellings as *ȳwan* (printed *ywan*). Is this regular, in distinction from the earlier Wessex *īewan*? And of the six forms *gerwan*, *gærwian*, *girwan*, *gierwan*, *gyrwan*, *gearwian*, which is regular? The infinitives *pīhan*, *tîhan*, *rafan* would be difficult to demonstrate. Such errors of method and of detail will render the 'Outline' unsafe for the beginner, for whom it is intended.

— That the present generation is suffering from lack of a book about the "animals of antiquity," is an idea that had not hitherto forced itself upon our attention, especially since the appearance of Victor Hehn's excellent work upon 'Domestic Plants and Animals in Their Transition from Asia to Greece, Italy, and the Rest of Europe.' We had thought that Hehn, whose work is full of quotations from Greek and Latin writers, and has long been an authority upon what may be called the philology of our familiar plants and animals, must have exhausted all the more interesting aspects of the subject, scientific as well as sentimental. But now comes Otto Keller, assuring us "that there is probably no point upon which the learned world are so perfectly agreed as upon this, that a usable book upon the animals of antiquity is a real need of contemporary scientific investigation." This remark is made, as any one might guess, in the preface to a new book by Herr Keller. The book is entitled 'Thiere des classischen Alterthums in culturhistorischer Beziehung' (Innsbruck, 1887). It has, speaking roughly, 300 pages of text to 200 of notes, but in spite of its prodigious wealth of learning it is modestly styled "only a beginning." The treatise has a chapter, long or short, upon each and every animal known to have been in any degree familiar to the ancients. The general reputation of the beast, his habits and habitat, exact observations and loose superstitions concerning him, are all set forth from the authorities, the author taking special pains to note any facts having a bearing upon mythology. A feature of the book is the illustrations from ancient reliefs, vases, gems, mosaics, coins, etc. For this purpose the treasures of the British Museum and the museums of Berlin and of Brussels have been specially drawn upon, most of the illustrations having been engraved especially for this volume. In the pictorial department of the work, as also to some extent in the text itself, we find not only Greek and Roman, but also Assyrian and Egyptian antiquity represented.

—A correspondent writes us from St. Petersburg under date of November 27 (December 9), 1887: "An eminent artist here has in his studio two recently finished portraits of Count L. N. Tolstoi, not yet shown to the public. He has made an exception in my favor. The portraits published last summer in America were taken two years ago, but the larger of these I speak of represents him as at least ten years older, with hair lying close and thin on his temples, and with the beard smaller. The folds of the black gown girt about the waist with a cord conceal the lines of the figure, and one hand holds a book—an English socialistic book, the name of which the artist has forgotten. The head, though greatly changed and aged, bears the same stamp of power and sadness which is so striking in previous portraits, and the features are more marked than ever. The second picture is small, and represents Count Tolstoi ploughing in the fields, with the harrow hitched to the rear of the unwieldy plough, which is drawn by a white horse along the slope. The Count's gray beard streams sideways across his blue blouse and half-bared breast, and his cap is pulled well down over his face. This portrait was painted on the spot last summer, and is only less interesting than the large one. This beloved author's scheme for the preparation of reading-books for the people flourishes. I know the wife of a Senator who has prepared a life of Socrates (and prepared it admirably) for this purpose, which Count Tolstoi corrected, and which sells for two cents. Her name does not appear (nor does his) in the matter; and he has other assistants who are equally modest. An important step in the direction of popular education has also been taken by the authorities, and nowhere will its importance be more thoroughly appreciated than in America. The first free public library, in honor of the memory of the poet Pushkin, was opened here day before yesterday, and all day yesterday it was thronged. It begins with the modest outfit of four thousand volumes, acquired from various sources, and the intention is to establish a great many more like it, with the hope that workingmen may thereby be induced to abandon the dram-shops. Though the Imperial Public Library is accessi-

ble to everybody, it is by no means free in the American sense of that term; it is more like the Astor Library, and the officials shake their heads in amazement and doubt when I reply to their queries as to whether we have any 'public libraries' like it in America. No books are permitted for use at home. Only personal friendship with a librarian will give one that privilege in the librarian's name. It seems that the public here abused the privileges accorded to them even in the matter of a full printed catalogue, of which it was found impossible to keep a perfect copy on hand, so that now only a partial catalogue is generally available, and not a single book can be had without a signed application. In many cases, also, an application made in the morning is only filled after three P. M. or the next day. These precautions are probably the outcome of unpleasant experience; but the effect upon the officials of such an establishment of my description of the unprotected reference books and the general methods in American free public libraries can be better imagined than described."

RENAN'S HISTORY OF ISRAEL.

Histoire du Peuple d'Israël. Par Ernest Renan, member de l'Institut, professeur au Collège de France. Vol. I. Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: B. Westermann & Co. 1887.

In order to complete the 'History of the Origins of Christianity,' which he initiated a quarter of a century ago with his 'Vie de Jésus,' and continued in 'Les Apôtres,' 'Saint-Paul,' 'L'Antechrist,' 'Les Évangiles,' 'L'Église Chrétienne,' and 'Marc-Aurèle,' M. Renan goes back to the early history of the nation to which the founders of the Christian religion belonged, tracing the origins to their remote springs, "the great prophets who introduced morality into religion about 850 years before Jesus Christ." But then, "prophetism itself has its root in the antique ideal of patriarchal life, an ideal created partly by fancy, but which had been a reality in a remote part of the Israelitish tribe." Consequently Renan must begin the beginnings with the history of Hebrew patriarchal times. But is there such a history? Have any records of it been preserved? Are the Biblical Abraham, Jacob, Joseph, historical personalities? M. Renan has not the least hesitation in answering these questions with a bold negative. Abraham is a transformed recollection of a mythical Babylonian King—the good Orham, or "father Orham," Ab-Orham. Jacob and Joseph are abridged names of nomad clans, Jacob-El and Joseph-El, devoted to the worship of El, like Ishma-El and other Arab Elites. The stories told about them in Genesis are childish tales, full of miraculous traits, which readers of our time cannot but find absurd in the highest degree. Yet such is the vast learning, Biblical and Semitic in general, at the disposal of our writer, and such the magic power of his poetic fancy and descriptive diction, that he can venture to reconstruct Israel's earliest history, partly out of general observations on Arab nomad life and primitive institutions, and partly out of scanty historical threads woven by the ancient Hebrews into their myths and tales.

As we remarked on a much earlier occasion (see *Nation*, No. 213), "M. Renan, without any qualification, rejects as incredible everything supernatural; but the shadows that accompany the delineations of supernatural things he saves, and — quite as artfully as artistically—works them into new images. His new images are often excellent imitations of the sacred ones he tears; but while orthodoxy must spurn them as devoid of all sacred substance, mere unimpassioned criticism, too, can see in them little more than shadows." Thus he created his Jesus and his Apostles, and painted their Galilee and the cradle-time of Christianity, and thus he reconstructs and paints, with admirable skill, Israel in his infancy and childhood. We use this personal (and Scriptural) form of expression, for under the poetic pencil of our author the nation becomes a hero, and its history a biographical epic. He follows Israel in his wanderings—as a child—from Arabia, along the western banks of the Euphrates, to Padan-Aram, to Canaan, into Egypt. For this period of his hero's life he has nothing but fond sympathy. Israel walks, or might have walked, in perfect simplicity and innocence; his God, then, was the homeless nomad's El, or Elohim, a benevolent, impartially just, unnational, universal god. The pictures of this life, of this faith, are impressive and beguiling from apparent naturalness of delineation and coloring. And everything is chastely done, almost to the exclusion of ornamentation, which saves the idyllically sublime from becoming ridiculous. Nor is the necessary support from varied stores of antiquarian and Oriental lore wanting to the tableau.

The reader must not hastily form the conclusion that M. Renan's epopee of Israel will be as unmixed in features as that of Jesus or St. Paul. Far from it. His Israel will become a nation in Egypt, and "alas! since the beginning of the world no amiable nation has yet been seen." Elohim will be exchanged for Yahveh (Jehovah), a special national god, a god-protector of Israel. The national idea will demand a god caring only for his nation, to the detriment, the abasement, the woe, of all its opponents and rivals. The theology of Israel, in Shiloh and Shechem, Jerusalem and Samaria, will be as black (the author does not spare the color) as it was pure and amiable under the starry skies and in the healthy air of the desert. The Jehovah of the time of the judges and early kings is not just and kind like El, "the Elyon or the Shaddai of the patriarchs." He is "shockingly partial" to Israel, "frightfully hard" to other nations. "Il tue, il ment, il trompe, il vole pour le plus grand bien d'Israël." Fortunately for the world, the development of Hebrew theology does not end there. "It will be the work of the prophets"—of the ninth century B. C., and of their successors—"to recreate the Elohism of old by dint of reflection," to perfect it, to bring their people back to it, to make it the perennial stream from which all nations will finally draw waters of bliss. "Elohim is the universal God, the God of mankind. In reality, it is to Elohim, not to Yahveh, that the world has been converted. The world has become theistic—that is, Elohistic, not Yahvistic. It has forgotten how Yahveh's name was pronounced; every one, to eternity, will furnish it with vowels as he fancies. Neither Christianity nor Islam knows Yahveh." This is, in fact, the keynote of the volume.

These are surely radical notions for an historian of the chosen people, a student of the origins of Christianity, who began his work, and continues it, with a kind of religious ardor. But radical and bold as all this is, the history, as such, must be pronounced far from destructively critical compared with recent German works on the same subject. Wellhausen, in his well-known sketch of the history of Israel (published in the 'Britannica') wastes not a paragraph on the patriarchal period—to which our author devotes 150 pages—evidently deeming all the traditions concerning it completely valueless as a substratum for history. Stade, in his extensive work (see *Nation*, Nos. 1132 and 1133), barely alludes to them in a few lines, distinctly declaring: "Irgend eine historische Gewissheit ist bei dem bruchstückartigen dieser Ueberlieferungen und ihrer durchgängigen Versetzung mit mythologischen Elementen nicht zu gewinnen." He not only ignores all that is told about the migrations from Ur of the Chaldees to Haran through Canaan, but also the sojourn of the Israelites in Egypt, and their march under the lead of Moses to Sinai, and thence to Gilead. M. Renan has chapters on "The Beni-Israel in Egypt," on "Egypt's Influence on Israel," on "Israel's Exodus," on "Israel in the Desert of Pharan," on "Sinai," and on "The March toward Canaan," devoting much learning, some original criticism, and animated diction to particulars which the more consistent German critics reject as completely fictitious.

M. Renan's inconsistency in rejecting the bulk of the Pentateuchal narratives—all that has real historical importance—as legendary and rather idle tradition, and picking out some few slender threads, presumed to be of older texture, to weave them into a fanciful work of historical reconstruction, is flagrant. He knows no Joseph (barring the clan Joseph-El), no clearly historical Moses—"quoique son existence soit très probable"—no Aaron, no Levites, and doubts the existence of a Joshua; and yet he enters upon speculations on the route taken by the Israelites at the exodus from Egypt, imagines a substitute for the crossing of the Red Sea, speaks of Marah, Elim, Rephidim, Meribah, etc., and introduces Sinai in the highest strains of descriptive rhetoric. When we examine his fascinating narratives, we find them hollow. Israel is said to have become a people in Egypt—"Israël n'est plus une tribu, c'est déjà une nation"—but a little brackish water, sweetened by the infusion of "certains branchages," keeps up this people at Marah, and seventy palm trees and some tamarisks give it shade at Elim. Of course, M. Renan reduces the millions of the fugitive Israelites to a comparatively very small number, and their forty years' wandering in the desert to a very rapid march through it—though with a senseless deviation "toward the awful wilderness" of Sinai; but in order to explain away an unavoidable residue of the miraculous, he must still resort to remarks like the following: "The fugitives might have taken along grain and provisions from Egypt. By means of the precious things which they had appropriated to themselves, if the narratives be credible, they could have procured something from the Ishmaelitish or Midianitish merchants, or form a herd for themselves. Possibly the [Sinaitic] Peninsula was not so denuded three thousand years ago as it is at present." "Might," "if," and "possibly" are poor substitutes for the wand of Moses, a surfeit of quails, and plenty of manna from heaven.

The fact is, M. Renan is a much more radical unbeliever now than he was when he wrote his 'Vie de Jésus,' and he is still as Bible-loving, imaginative, and artistically ambitious as he was then. Purposing to write a history of Israel without the least admixture of the supernatural, he cannot resign himself to presenting it incomplete, with gaps, and devoid of its exceptional embellishments. A disciple of the prophets and Bossuet, a critical follower of Kuenen and Wellhausen, and always poetical, he turns what he cannot accept as a sacred account and is unwilling to reject as an historical romance, into a romantic history. He begins with dissecting legend, and ends with rehabilitating it, forgetting his own maxim, "Il y a du danger à chercher trop d'histoire dans de vieux

rêves où les spectres ne se distinguent pas des hommes." From the scanty footprints of the infant Israel—and to him we must limit our remarks here—a whole image of him is drawn, with the magic help of Semitic philology, Arabian archæology, Babylonian and Egyptian lore, and philosophy and poetry. The interspersed remarks, learned or other — partly drawn from the author's numerous previous works and dissertations—are generally suggestive and seductively plausible. The critical details may be too numerous for the general public, but they enhance the value of the book for students. Some of the generalizations, whether sound or specious and glittering, are most forcibly presented. The following extract is, in more than one way, characteristic of the work:

"Far from advancing the religious development of Israel, Egypt only strewed obstacles and perils upon the road which God's people had to wander over. Egypt contributed the 'golden calf,' that eternal stumbling-block of the multitude; the brazen serpent, which the puritans detested; the lying oracles [Urim and Tummim]; the Levite ['ark-tender'], who became Israel's leprosy; perhaps also circumcision, the people's greatest mistake, which for a time threatened to defeat its destiny. Excepting the ark, Egypt introduced into Israel only perturbing elements, which had to be eliminated, sometimes not without a crisis. It was not thus with the notions borrowed from Chaldea. These were all fruitful, and, excepting perhaps the unpronounceable name [of the Divinity], have remained strong supports of religion. Believing mankind still lives on them, it owes to those old fables a prehistoric antiquity in which it delights, and a cosmogony of which it is proud. Israel's genius did not spring from Chaldea; but Chaldea furnished it the first ten pages of the book which has made its unparalleled success.

"Egypt, on the contrary, supplied it with few fruitful germs. And how many exquisite things it killed! The beautiful Jacobelite life is gone. Those noble types of [patriarchal] aristocrats, proud, honorable, and religiously serious, have passed away. Authority rests no longer in the hands of the tribal chief. The multitude has now a voice, and this voice will not at all be in favor of religious puritanism. The Elohim-worship will soon appear dull. On every occasion the people will longingly regret the vulgarities of Egypt, and, in order to satisfy it, it will be necessary to erect for it Apis figures with gilded horns."

CRAWFORD'S STORY OF SUMTER.

The Genesis of the Civil War: The Story of Sumter, 1860-61. By Samuel Wylie Crawford, Brevet Major-General U. S. A., A.M., M.D., LL.D. 8vo, pp. xxiv, 486. Charles L. Webster & Co.

The story of Sumter is doubtless an important chapter in the genesis of the civil war, but it is by no means the whole of it; and Gen. Crawford's method of telling the story, full of interesting matter as it is, only makes it more clearly evident how impossible it is to narrate the "genesis" without writing the full history of the United States during the period immediately preceding the war. Indeed, the war cannot be understood except by regarding it as the culmination of antagonist forces operating from the establishment of the Federal Constitution; and must, therefore, be considered as one of the closing chapters of a constitutional history conceived upon the philosophic plan which Von Holst has followed.

But even when we try to limit the field of the "genesis" to the half year immediately following Mr. Lincoln's election, as Gen. Crawford has done, we find that the progress of public sentiment in every State of the Union, from Maine to Texas, the action of political parties within those States, their legislation, the attitude of the press, the views of leading men, and many other things, help make up the current o events which swept the nation onward to its great crisis. If we confine our view to the action of Congress and of the seceding States, the attitude and influence of the border slave States, and the conduct of the Administration at Washington, we shall lack some essential elements in the critical analysis of the causes leading to the outbreak of the war, though we should still have a very large field of research.

Gen. Crawford has limited himself by still narrower lines than any of these, and by as much as he has done so necessarily falls short of an adequate grasp and presentation of the subject which is the principal title of his book. The secondary title—"The Story of Sumter"—much better indicates the scope of it, though we can readily understand that a broader title suggested itself by the accumulation of material that bore upon the general policy of the national Government and that of South Carolina. The "genesis" of the book would seem to be this: In the autumn of 1860 Gen. Crawford was an assistant surgeon in the army, and assigned to duty as medical officer in the garrison of Fort Moultrie in Charleston harbor. His zeal led him to volunteer for military duty when he was not employed as surgeon, and he took active personal part in the transfer of the little garrison to Fort Sumter, and in the defence of the latter fort by Maj. Anderson until it was surrendered to the Confederate Army under Beauregard. On his return to the North he sought military duty again, and was soon appointed Brigadier-General of Volunteers. As brigade and division commander, he served with honor in the Army of the Potomac till the close of the war. His part in the historic defence of Sumter led him to collect materials bearing upon all the events connected with it, including not only what public records and printed books and pamphlets would furnish, but what could be procured by private correspondence or conversation with prominent characters on both sides, and from their private papers. He had intimate intercourse with Judge Black, who had been a member of Buchanan's Cabinet, and valuable original documents were procured from him, as well as from Judge Holt, another member of the same Cabinet, and from private papers of Gov. Pickens of South Carolina, of Mr. Seward, of Gen. Anderson, and others.

The story of Sumter has grown out of all these sources, and is centrally the military history of the forts in and about Charleston harbor, the efforts at relieving them and their reduction by the Confederates, with the political history of the events most closely connected with the fate of the forts and their garrison. In collating the material he has collected, the author has avoided carefully—too carefully, we think—the expression of his own judgment, preferring to let the principal characters speak through their own documents and recorded conversations. The indications of quotation are not in all cases complete, and the reader is sometimes puzzled to tell whether he is following the author's own conclusions or the assertions of the original parties to the great controversy. In passing back and forth from the military narrative to political events, it has been hard to keep a smooth current and connected story; repetitions occur frequently, and the relations of things still fail to be as clear as they might be made. If the book should pass to a second edition, a careful revision might make it more satisfactory and more useful.

One of the curious things in the history of the great rebellion is the unchallenged way in which the spokesmen for the seceding States constantly assumed that nothing which was done on their side was an act of war, but that any return blow would be the beginning of hostilities—would "inaugurate civil war," to use the hackneyed phrase then current. A writer who to-day treats of those events has no need to be embarrassed with all this. The war itself settled some things by the complete assent of all intelligent men of the South. The appeal to arms, in this case as in others, was the submission of a controversy to the *ultima ratio regum*, and its decision. The secession party of the South had asserted a constitutional right on the part of each State to withdraw from the Union whenever its own judgment declared a sufficient cause to exist. The Union men of the country denied this, and asserted the nationality of the whole people in such a sense that secession was violent revolution.

We believe that every statesman of the Southern States who to-day claims to be a citizen of the United States, distinctly and unequivocally holds that this contention was decided by the war in favor of the national view, and that by virtue of such decision the national view is determined to be and is the constitutional law of the United States. We do not say that they desired such a decision; we know, on the contrary, that they fought to establish the other side of the controversy. We do not say that they were not sincere and earnest in their own contention; we know they gave every evidence of their sincerity which men can give. We do not say that they now admit that they were morally or even theoretically wrong in their position; we believe general content and even satisfaction in the constitutional decision is rapidly growing, but even this is not necessary for our conclusion, which is that they agree with us that the constitutional principle is settled. Their attitude, in short, is that of honest men who have submitted a controversy to a court of last resort; they admit that the judgment settles the law of the case, and determines that those in whose favor it is given were acting within their legal right, while those against whom it is given were not. Unscrupulous politicians at the North refuse to accept this plain basis of peace, and lay themselves out to irritate Southern men into expressions of "unrepentance" for their former action, thinking they have made cent per cent. on their political capital when they have goaded some feather-brained rhetorician into exclaiming that "the Lost Cause is not lost." We believe that judicious men of both sections of the country grieve at whatever tends to keep the calm judgment of the whole people from resting quietly upon the solid foundation for a good understanding which we have indicated.

The application of this to historical writing concerning the war is not difficult. A writer on the national side, especially if he have been a soldier, need have no fear that any sensible person will be offended if he treats his subject in accordance with the principle stated. He has the right, and it is his duty, in tracing the steps which led to the terrible conflict, to judge of each act according to settled principles. In January, 1861, South Carolina claimed to be an independent nation by virtue of steps taken in accordance with what she asserted to be rights reserved to her by the Constitution of the United States. The State officers and agents determined that the force and weight of the claim should lose nothing for lack of vehement assertion. In their anxiety to avoid strife, the officers of the United States often fell short of the clear declaration of the national claim that the ordinance of secession was revolutionary, and that the first shouldering of a musket or opening a trench was an act of war. He who writes the history now has the great advantage that

this principle is settled, and his work will be the more respected even by those who fought against it, if he logically and clearly sticks to it in his analysis of events.

There seem to have been five distinct periods of the controversy between November, 1860, and April, 1861, and as many varying attitudes of the national Administration. First, the period when avowed secessionists like Cobb and Thompson were potent influences in Buchanan's Cabinet, and when the executive conduct seemed to admit the full claim of South Carolina. Second, the period when the President theoretically denied the right of secession, but denied also the power of the Government to oppose it. Third, the period when the Administration, under the influence of Black, Holt, Stanton, and Dix, asserted the right to hold and defend the forts and other public property in the South, even if it led to flagrant war. Fourth, the opening period of Lincoln's Administration, when Mr. Seward's view prevailed, that while the right to oppose secession by force was unquestionable, it was politic to bear even with the surrender of Sumter, if by so doing the border slave States might be kept in the Union and the seceding ones possibly induced to reconsider their action. Fifth, the period immediately before the surrender of the fort, when it was determined to take all the consequences of decisive efforts to send supplies and reinforcements to the garrison.

The warlike acts of South Carolina were quite as numerous in their succession. First was the placing of State troops in charge of the United States arsenal, nominally to protect it and the public property in it; but that this was a seizure was evident from the fact that the officer in command of the forts was not allowed to take ordnance stores from the arsenal, even in the smallest quantity. Second was the seizure of Castle Pinckney by force, escalading the barred gate and making prisoners of the officer and one or two men in charge. Third was the seizure of Fort Moultrie. Fourth was the seizure of Fort Johnson. Fifth was the erection of batteries on Cummings Point and Sullivan's Island, and preparing all the forts for the attack on Sumter. Sixth, the firing on the *Star of the West* when she tried to carry in supplies and men to Sumter. Seventh, the bombardment of Sumter itself.

It seems quite clear that Major Anderson regarded all these acts as hostilities, but thought himself restrained by his orders from replying to them with his cannon, unless he should actually be attacked. His mental struggle seems to have been greatest when he saw the *Star of the West* fired upon and driven from the harbor. His military impulse was to fire upon those who were firing upon the national flag, but dread of the responsibility for the first shedding of blood restrained him. The letters and papers quoted by Gen. Crawford seem to prove that at that time Anderson believed the dissolution of the Union was an accomplished fact, and was only anxious that events which seemed inevitable might run their course without actual conflict. His personal sympathies were with the South in the political contest, yet he was determined to do his duty as a soldier with scrupulous fidelity. Hence arose a conflict in his own breast such as few men have undergone, and it is not strange that he solved his doubts in favor of avoiding bloodshed till he was actually attacked, and would have been glad to have been starved out instead of being reduced by the bombardment.

It is curious, however, to see how far even the officers of the United States had gone in yielding to the assertions of the secessionists that a shot from the Government forts would be the beginning of war, while all the military preparations for the reduction of Sumter, and even the firing upon a Government ship, were to count as peaceful. As late as the 11th of April, the day before the bombardment opened, Commander Rowan of the *Pawnee*, off the harbor, refused to sail in for the bar, for the reason that it would be "to begin civil war"; but when on the 12th he saw the flashes of the guns, he was eager to join the fray which the Confederate batteries had begun.

It is the consideration of the confused state of mind in which were so many of the responsible actors in the great drama, both civilians and military men, that makes us feel it to be the duty of the historian to clear up the muddle, and help his readers by an analysis of the events which shall leave as little doubt as possible regarding the legal and military responsibilities of either side. The new matter which Gen. Crawford has collected is most of it very valuable, and a little bolder application of the principles we have suggested would make the book wholly satisfactory as a presentation of the dramatic beginning of the great conflict.

HOWELLS'S MODERN ITALIAN POETS.

Modern Italian Poets: Essays and Versions by W. D. Howells. With portraits. Harper & Bros. 1887.

Mr. Howells's agreeable book is taken at a little less than its worth by the critics, because they regard it as a study of rather trivial literature, like those primary and secondary sonnetteers of Bettinelli who are embalmed in Sydney Smith's satire. But the book is really a chapter in the history of liberty, and the author was plainly led into this series of studies by the same generous impulse that led him—mistakenly, it may be—to petition for the life of the Chicago anarchists. The finest saying of Thomas Paine was his refusal to accept the motto *Ubi libertas, ubi patria*, on the ground that a brave man's motto should rather be "Where liberty is *not*, there is my country." When these younger Italian poets wrote, liberty did not exist in Italy; their aim was to secure it, or at least some measure of it; and Mr. Howells's first object is to give an intelligent comprehension of the work they did. We, however, find it necessary to defend his purpose not only against his critics, but against himself; for when he comes to writing his introduction he evidently distrusts his readers a little, and reverts, like so many heroes in his own novels, to an attitude of understatement and almost of *persiflage*. When he complains that, after all, political satire is not best relished in free countries, he forgets that it is but a little more than a quarter of a century since the last of the 'Biglow Papers' was written in our own; and he means, let us hope, a little more than he says, in adding, "I am not sure that literature is not as nobly employed in exciting men to heroism and martyrdom for a great cause as in the purveyance of mere intellectual delights" (p. 10). If he had not really felt sure of this, he would never have given us these three hundred and seventy pages of minor Italian poets.

Besides a little preliminary account of the "Arcadian Shepherds," Mr. Howells offers us sketches, longer or shorter, of eighteen authors, all of these being modern in the sense of dating back no further than the French Revolution. In this selection he again underrates the knowledge or the sympathy of his audience by assuming that even the best known of his poets is "scarcely more than a name to most English readers" (p. 51). Of course the majority of such readers do not read Italian, and if that is what is meant, no Italian poet is more than a name to these. In a stricter sense also, it is true that "I Quattro Poeti," though still issued in a joint volume, have long since practically shrunk into two poets, Dante and Petrarch surviving Ariosto and Tasso. But poets may be more than names, even if we do not read their verses, and the picturesque and stormy life of Alfieri was so well recorded in his own autobiography, and was, moreover, so intermingled with the English and French adventures of his time, that he is really a more distinct figure than Ariosto to most English-speaking readers. Mr. Howells has skilfully retold Alfieri's story—the essay being that prefixed to his edition of the autobiography, as reprinted in 1877; but he has relied mainly on materials already familiar. Again, in the case of Manzoni, the novel of 'I Promessi Sposi' is still one of the common Italian text-books; Leopardi's poems have just been translated, fully though somewhat prosaically, by Frederick Townsend, with a preface by O. B. Frothingham, in which Leopardi is rated quite as highly as by Mr. Howells; Silvio Pellico is still remembered for his imprisonment and his naïve narrative; and Ugo Foscolo is almost counted as a naturalized Englishman in literature, a fact to which Mr. Howells scarcely alludes. He tells us that Foscolo went to London and "gained a livelihood by teaching the Italian language and lecturing on its literature" (p. 123); but he does not tell us that he was a favorite contributor to the London reviews, through the perfection of his English style; and that his essays on Dante and Petrarch, written in English, dedicated to Lady Dacre, and published in 1823, belong almost as essentially to English literature as do the sonnets of Rossetti.

Even these comparatively unforgotten poets, however, will doubtless take a new lease of life through the friendly intervention of Mr. Howells, and his treatment of the remainder will certainly shield them, for a time at least, from oblivion throughout the English-speaking world. But in considering the mode in which this is done, it is impossible not to perceive that Mr. Howells loses by the want of that possession in which Mr. J. A. Symonds, for instance, is so strong—a classical background for his modern study. In what Mr. Symonds writes we always see modern Italy in its proper perspective as relieved and illustrated by the older Italy behind; for Mr. Howells it is simply a modern country without historic past. This makes an almost insuperable drawback to a satisfactory treatment of Alfieri, who, although avoiding the Greek and Roman classics in his youth, became more and more infused with their spirit as time went on. When, for instance, Mr. Howells analyzes the differences between Alfieri and Shakspere, he treats them simply as a personal matter, and wholly ignores the simpler solution that the one was a classicist and the other was not. Alfieri's handling of Orestes and of Fate, which was in reality a mere survival of the Greek habit of mind, is viewed by Mr. Howells (p. 95) as an individual whim, of which the whole key is lost.

But if the modern period is to be treated as something absolutely disconnected from the earlier age, no one could do it more felicitously than Mr. Howells. He sometimes pats and plays with it a little too much, and turns upon you with the sort of familiarity which he dislikes in Thackeray, as, "Is not this most charmingly done?" (p. 44)—or even in a way that verges on the slangy and journalistic, as, "I do not begin to think this is all true" (p. 69). Sometimes, also, he employs a foreign idiom, as when he says in a footnote, "Question of

Macchiavelli" (p. 119), meaning that the passage refers to that name. He has this sure merit, that he makes his book attractive; and his ventures into the field of translation have a peculiar charm. We have here the complaint to make, however, that he does not follow the usual course of Italian translators in giving the first words of the poem translated, for convenience of identification; and it is vexatious to have to look through the two hundred and fifty sonnets of our quarto Alfieri of 1809, merely to ascertain that those rendered are the 107th (*Quel tetro bronzo*) and the 167th (*Sublime specchio*). When found, the poem proves itself musically and faithfully translated, with such Howells-like felicities of phrase as "A proper nose" for *Giusto naso;* but it smacks of indolence when so skilful a master of words can hit upon no better rhymes than "mild" and "embroiled" (p. 101); and still more when we find him utterly disregarding that limited sequence of rhymes on which the Italian poets so pride themselves. The translator is right in giving us the alternate rhymes which Alfieri, unlike Petrarch, admitted; but whereas in each of these two sonnets the original has but four distinct terminations for the fourteen lines, the translator allows himself seven, and winds up, worst of all, by the Shaksperian closing couplet, which is alien to Italian verse. Mr. Howells has thus indulged himself in a far easier task than the occasion required, and one far lighter than other modern translators of sonnets exact of themselves. We regret to say that the same self-indulgence or negligence further shows itself in many lines so careless as to be almost doggerel, such as, from Fusinato (p. 365):

> "And now be shivered upon the stone here
> Till thou be free again, O lyre I bear."

This is the more to be regretted because he is capable, under sufficient effort, of very graceful and sweet translation, as in the cradle song called "Nanna" (p. 361), though even this is disfigured by such careless rhymes as "love me" with "love thee," "come" with "doom," and "abroad" with "God."

We have been thus frankly critical with Mr. Howells because he is justly called upon, as one of our acknowledged masters, to do his work thoroughly and keep to a high standard. His book, as a whole, is a most agreeable one; the publisher's part is well done; the portraits, though unattractive, are probably not more so than the Italian originals; the binding is peculiarly appropriate, and there is no serious defect except the want of an index.

Winter. From the Journal of Henry D. Thoreau. Edited by H. G. O. Blake. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1888.

THOREAU himself questions whether any life is rich enough to be journalized; but his editor's method, of making the whole life cover only a single natural year by selection and rearrangement, probably never occurred to him as a solution of the difficulties of triviality and monotony that make the days tedious. In the case of a growing mind such a method would hardly be applicable. Thoreau did not change much, either in himself or in his surroundings, and perhaps the type of his character is better defined by this composite-photography device of laying day upon day in the record. In this last instalment, which ends the series, he preserves his three-fold interest as an observer of nature, a man with a theory of plain living, and a writer whose mind was visited by stray thoughts. In all of these aspects he is still a noticeable figure in our literature.

The season of winter is one which he was especially fitted to report. He could not keep indoors, and by the help of skates and snow-shoes he travelled far. The New England winter, too, is a season of marvellous sky-color and snow reflection, and for color Thoreau had a sensitive and appreciative eye. Some of the scenes he gives to us are of great beauty merely for their graduated tones and hues. Of bird and plant and animal life there is little, but the lack is abundantly made up for by these broad prospects, which were his principal pleasure until the sound of running water under the snow and ice made his pulses warm with the thought of the coming spring. But, rich as the record is, it is not one which the reviewer can report.

Of Thoreau's theory of life enough has been written in the time when it was a novel thing, not in itself, but in the practical illustration he gave to it. In these entries one sees how genuinely he held it, and both what it did and what it failed to do for him. The principal value of it was that it left him time to meditate, not so much to think as to be a passive instrument of that mood when thoughts occur to the mind. Many of these are treasured in the journal; one wonders whether it was not to him what the note-book was to Emerson, a receptacle to which he had recourse in writing his books. Their literary form is clear and hard, and often they have the indefinable quality of felicities. It is singular to observe once more the wide interval between the poetry of his prose and the prose of his poetry. He had the touch of the poet now and then, but in his verse his muse was disenchanted, the fairies' gift changing at once into sticks and stones in his hands. He had some of the methods and the waiting spirit of the poet; but the message came without music. He writes: "To please our friends and relatives we turn our silver-ore into cart-loads, while we neglect to work our mines of gold, known only to ourselves, far up in the Sierras where we pulled up a bush in our mountain walk and saw the glittering treasure." This is a fine image. It is a pleasing fancy when he speaks of the ice that crystallizes about holes in the ground as "the frozen breath of the earth upon its beard." Such bits are not infrequent. There are striking sentences—"A friend in history looks like some premature soul"; and on the next page a phrase about the Greek attracts the eye: "He has left nothing unsaid, but has actually wiped his lips of it." Such examples remind us again of Thoreau's true literary faculty, the power of perfect speech. "So soon as we begin to count the cost, the cost begins," is an apothegm out of his own life. One could keep on quoting; but it is sufficient to be reminded that while such a literary gift is proved as is shown in these journals, together with such an ownership in his own thoughts, so close and full-eyed an outlook on natural beauty and such interest in the life of creation, Thoreau cannot be dismissed by a just critic as the eccentric inhabitant of a parish; he was more than that, and has had with justice more than a parochial interest to other men. Presumably this is the last of his books, and in putting it on the shelf one is quite sure that the row of volumes will be a long-remembered memorial of old New England.

Philosophy of Theism. By Borden P. Bowne. 8vo, pp. 269. Harper & Bros. 1887.

THEISTIC speculations of the present day have to contend with the universal tendency to concede that, even if the existence of God and immortality are given up, truth and duty remain the same for us as before. When it was thought that religion existed in order to be proved, or that it did not exist until it was proved, seeking for the "grounds" of truth and virtue was a very respectable calling. But we have come to see that there may be a great difference between the order of things and the order of our knowledge. Hence, metaphysical theories have only a secondary interest compared with facts. Prof. Bowne is not guilty of confusing the *ratio essendi* with the *ratio cognoscendi* of religion, nor does he pretend that men cannot be religious or moral until they have adopted a philosophy of theism. But, whatever importance he may attach to theistic beliefs, his confident and overbearing manner of argument will convert nobody to them. Lack of philosophic charity is the author's besetting sin. If this book had been written in the spirit of scorn and absurd defiance which characterizes his preface to the fifth edition of the 'Metaphysics,' we might have treated it with contempt. Although it is free from insanity, it is not wanting in self-assurance, browbeating, and the intimidation of opposing opinions. Happily the world is coming to respect a man more for his Christian treatment of views different from his own than for his sharp debating. We expect as much mercy and consideration from a philosopher as from the Deity for whose existence he may be so solicitous. Logical proofs of metaphysical doctrines are less valuable than moral character, and hence railing at a man because we have not convinced him will effect no more than stamping one's foot or kicking a stone. Calm moral sympathy for religious doubt is the first condition of effective philosophic discussion in the nineteenth century, and hence we could wish that the author had the spirit of Lotze, T. H. Green, and Martineau. Martineau is trenchant, but, nevertheless, he has a heart.

The old method of proving the existence of God by stopping with the evidence for a First Cause the author justly abandons to ignorance of the question. Hence there are mainly three topics for discussion, representing as many distinct factors in the problem: the unity of the world-ground, the world-ground as intelligent, and the world-ground as ethical. The other chapters are parts of the same theme. The statement, that theism is the only system capable of satisfying "the total interests of life," is too comprehensive to be received until we know what is going to be made of it. Of course, the author means our scientific, philosophic, moral, and religious "interests." But the conception of interest is a dangerous one to trust implicitly. It has so many ramifications that it may, at any time, shut us off into anthropomorphism in philosophy and into selfishness in ethics. Our scientific interests are satisfied by the unity of nature and the uniformity of causation, without stopping to inquire whether they imply personality or not. But in seeking to satisfy our moral and religious interests we may be prompted by something like the question: "Will God take care of us when we die?" Humanity's plaintive cry for immortality is profoundly interesting, and its belief in God may be wholly unselfish. But there is room here for motives which have nothing to do with the truth of a doctrine. The question is whether the expression of emotional instincts, which are much like "the will to live," and dangerously allied to self-interested impulses, *prove* anything.

The author would not be considered a pantheist. But the difference between this position and the one he does hold might be only one of accent. He could compromise by adopting *Pan-Theism.* He emphasizes two systems between which, it seems, our choice is to be made, theism and atheism. But there is agnosticism,

which is as positive and as dogmatic a creed as either of the others. And there is the fourth, of letting the question entirely alone. But what are you going to do with this ominous silence? You cannot argue with it, for it is irrational to pick a quarrel with a man who is peaceable and says nothing. It remains, then, as a system which adapts itself to known facts, and has neither belief, nor disbelief even, about an unknowable. Hence there is one case in which logic is not the Nemesis of Faith.

The Standard Cantatas: Their Stories, their Music, and their Composers. By George P. Upton. Chicago: A. C. McClurg. Pp. 367. 1888.

MR. UPTON has added another to his very useful musical handbooks. It is arranged on the same plan as his 'Standard Operas' and 'Standard Oratorios,' the first named of which is already in its fourth thousand. In the historic introduction he calls attention to the different senses in which the word cantata is used. He himself uses it in the widest sense, and includes in it such works as Berlioz's "Faust" and "Romeo and Juliet." In the case of the classical composers, who were very prolific in this kind of composition, only a selection could, of course, be made, and of Bach's 480 cantatas, for instance, only the four which are most frequently performed are analyzed. Besides describing the plot of the texts, Mr. Upton always calls attention to the best musical numbers, avoiding technical terms as much as possible. A large number of cantatas by American composers are included in the list.

We hope that Mr. Upton will not rest on his laurels, but will prepare another handbook that would prove very useful. Every observer of concert-hall audiences must have noted that many pay much closer attention to a piece if they know something regarding its origin and the pictorial idea that may have been in the composer's mind when he conceived it. Nor is this curiosity at all to be condemned; for the mind's eye being given some scene to fix upon, we are enabled the more easily to forget the artificial surroundings in a concert hall. Moreover, people like to talk about the pieces they have heard, and it is much easier to talk about the biography of a composition than about the music itself. Now, if Mr. Upton would select a few hundred of the symphonies, overtures, etc., etc., that are most frequently played, and explain their meaning, pictorial or biographic, with some æsthetic remarks on form and feeling, he would do a service to all concert-goers. And concert-givers would find it an advantage to get the author's permission to reprint on their programmes such of his notices as might be desirable.

Half-Hours with American History. By Charles Morris, author of 'Half-Hours with the Best American Authors.' Vol. I. Colonial America. Vol. II. Independent America. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1887.

MR. MORRIS aims to present the story of the nation by selections from the works of leading historians upon the most important topics. These selections are chronologically arranged, divided into periods, and connected by brief outlines of intermediate events supplied by the author. History does not so readily lend itself to this mode of treatment as do other branches of literature, and we miss especially the continuity and unity so important to the complete presentation of a subject, and which cannot be supplied by connecting notes. On the other hand, there is value in the emphasis given by the method to events of particular importance, and in the variety of treatment. Taken in connection with some standard history, the work will also do good service by interesting its readers in the authors represented in the selections. The difficult task of culling has been executed with much skill by Mr. Morris. One is glad to find that while liberal, but not excessive, use is made of such writers as Bancroft and Parkman, local historians have not been neglected. While we must wish that more frequent use had been made of contemporary writers, yet the selections, on the whole, seem judiciously chosen for the purpose in view. The notes, which are simply condensed statements of fact, are in general correct; but the author is not entirely free from errors, as in the slip which makes him say that Alexander Hamilton was one of the defenders of popular rights at the time of the negro plot in New York. The reference is to Andrew Hamilton.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Gérard de Nerval. Sylvie. Recollections of Valois. George Routledge & Sons. $4.
Goodwin, Mrs. H. B. Our Party of Four: A Story of Travel. Boston: Cupples & Hurd. $1.
Guiney, Louise Imogen: The White Sail. Boston: Ticknor & Co.
Hale, E. E. The Life of George Washington Studied Anew. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.75.
Hall, S. C. The Book of British Ballads. Illustrated. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.
Harrisse, H. Christophe Colomb et Savone. Verzellino et ses Memorie. Genoa: A. Donath; New York: F. W. Christern.
Harrisse, H. Le Quatrième Centenaire de la Découverte du Nouveau Monde. Genoa: Donath; New York: F. W. Christern.
Henry Ward Beecher: A Memorial. Brooklyn: Plymouth Church.
Huebsch, S. Volapük: A Guide for Learning the Universal Language. New York.
Hutton, R. H. Essays on Some of the Modern Guides of English Thought in Matters of Faith. Macmillan & Co. $1.50.
Heron-Allen, E. The Suicide of Sylvester Gray. Belford, Clarke & Co.
Hornaday, W. T. Free Rum on the Congo, and What it is Doing There. Chicago: Woman's Temperance Publication Association.
Howells, W. D. April Hopes. Harper & Brothers.
Jastrow, M. A Dictionary of the Targumim, the Talmud Babli and Yerushalmi, and the Midrashic Literature. Part II. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $2.
Jubilee and Plantation Songs, Sung by Hampton Students, Jubilee Singers, and others. Boston: Oliver Ditson & Co.
Kendall, May. Dreams to Sell. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.
Kirkup, T. An Inquiry into Socialism. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Larcom, Lucy. The Cross and the Grail. Chicago: Woman's Temperance Publication Association.
Lawless, Hon. Emily. The Story of Ireland. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.
Life's Problems, Here and Hereafter: An Autobiography. Boston: Cupples & Hurd. $1.25.
Lillie, Lucy C. The Colonel's Money. Harper & Brothers.
Lockyer, Prof. J. N. The Outlines of the Earth. Macmillan & Co. 60 cents.
Madan, F. Rough List of Manuscript Materials Relating to the History of Oxford. Arranged with an Index. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan & Co.
Mahaffy, J. P. Greek Life and Thought from the Age of Alexander to the Roman Conquest. Macmillan & Co. $3.50.
Mahaffy, J. P. The Principles of the Art of Conversation. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 75 cents.
Mahaly Sawyer; or, Putting Yourself in her Place. Boston: Cupples & Hurd. $1.25.
Martin, Frances. Elizabeth Gilbert and her Work for the Blind. Macmillan & Co. $1.75.
May, C. Moly: A Book of Poems. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.25.
McNamara, Mrs. Miles. Prince Coastwind's Victory. Belford, Clarke & Co.
Molesworth, Mrs. Little Miss Peggy: Only a Nursery Story. Illustrated. Macmillan & Co. $1.25.
Morgan, Mary. Poems. Montreal: J. Theodore Robinson.
Muir—Carnegie. Practical Chemistry: A Course of Laboratory Work. Macmillan & Co. 80 cents.
Murray, Prof. J. Elocution for Advanced Pupils. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Neubauer, A. D. Mediæval Jewish Chronicles. [Anecdota Oxoniensia.] Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Nicholas, G. A. The Biddy Club: and How its Members Grappled with the Troublesome Servant Question. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.25.
Noel, Lady Augusta. Hithersea Mere. Macmillan & Co. $1.
O'Donnell, Jessie F. Heart Lyrics. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.25.
Ohorn, L. M. The Angel of the Village. Boston: Cupples & Hurd. $1.25.
Palgrave, W. G. Ulysses; or, Scenes and Studies in Many Lands. Macmillan & Co. $3.50.
Pattison—Slater. Elementary Chemistry. Macmillan & Co. $1.25.
Personal Remembrances of Sir Frederick Pollock. In 2 vols. Macmillan & Co. $5.
Plummer, C. Elizabethan Oxford. Clarendon Press.
Pomeroy, J. N. A Treatise on the Law of Riparian Rights, as the same is Formulated and Applied in the Pacific States. St. Paul: West Publishing Co.
Purdy, T. H. Legends of the Susquehanna, and Other Poems. Illustrated. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.
Randolph, H. F. Fifty Years of English Song. Selections from the Poets of the Reign of Victoria. In 4 vols. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $5.
Wood, H. Natural Law in the Business World. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 30 cents.
Wood, J. J. A Child of Genius: A Sketch. C. T. Dillingham. 30 cents.

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THE BOOK ANTIQUARY, Easton, Pa.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 12, 1888.

The Week.

As regards the composition of the House committees, we think there will be general agreement that, on the whole, Mr. Carlisle has done his work well. The weakest point appears to be the Committee on Reform in the Civil Service, which is constructed too much on the principle of that famous committee on the same subject of which Mr. Blaine made Gen. Butler the leading spirit. The fact that a majority of the chairmanships go to the South, is seized upon by the bloody-shirt organs as occasion for a new howl about the Confederacy being in the saddle, but with a melancholy air which shows that they know that the country is sick of it. The South gets the majority of the chairmanships when the Democrats control the House, just as the North does when the Republicans have a majority, because the preponderance of each party's strength is in the section which thus profits. The only question with which the voters who decide elections nowadays are concerned, is whether the men are fit for the places which they get. For example, "a one-legged ex-Confederate soldier named Stone," according to the *Tribune* correspondent, has been appointed Chairman of the Committee on War Claims; but as the *Tribune* correspondent adds that "Mr. Stone is a good man," nobody whose opinion carries weight will object to him because he was once a "rebel," any more than they objected to his fellow-rebels who were appointed judges of United States courts at the South by Grant, Hayes, and Arthur.

Mr. Lamar has resigned the Secretaryship of the Interior in order to avoid the embarrassment to public business caused by the nomination of his successor, who has not yet been confirmed, "and to leave before the Senate in its final judgment upon his [my] nomination the sole question of his fitness for the position." This is a manly and straightforward act of the sort which always strengthens a public man with the people. It must also strengthen Mr. Lamar with the Senators who are to pass upon his case. There never has been any real doubt of his confirmation, and Senator Stewart's letter giving his reasons for voting that way assures such a result. Mr. Stewart's letter is an exceedingly vigorous and powerful defence of his position, and is perfectly merciless in exposing the hypocrisy and cant of the warfare which has been waged against Mr. Lamar by the bloody-shirt element in the Republican party. Mr. Stewart shows the fallacy of all the charges against Mr. Lamar on the ground that he has not loyally accepted the results of the war, and states what every candid person knows to be the exact truth when he says: "I know of no other man who bore arms against the United States in the late war who has so unreservedly accepted the verdict of arms, and so unequivocally and continuously maintained the validity of the new amendments to the Constitution, as Mr. Lamar." In short, this Republican Senator has made a complete answer to all the absurd stuff on this subject which nine-tenths of the Republican papers in the country have been printing for the past month.

"A States' Rights Opinion Given," is the headline which a Republican organ quite properly puts over the decision rendered by the Supreme Court of the United States on Monday, overruling the action of the United States Circuit Court in Nebraska, and vindicating the freedom of that State from Federal control in matters involving State questions. This "States' rights opinion," it is well to remember, was the unanimous judgment of a Supreme Court every one of whose members holds a commission signed by a Republican President. Two of these judges were appointed by Lincoln, and it is evident that they still stand upon the platform on which Lincoln was elected to the Presidency. A good many Republican editors of to-day will probably be surprised to learn that in 1860 the Republican National Convention resolved that "the maintenance inviolate of the rights of the States, and especially the right of each State to order and control its own domestic institutions according to its own judgment exclusively, is essential to that balance of power on which the perfection and endurance of our political fabric depends."

The memorial of the Bar Association of this city which has been sent to Congress, praying for an increase in the salaries of Federal judges in this State, ought to be heeded at this session, when the great problem before the members is the best way to reduce the enormous surplus. It surely cannot be claimed now that the country is not able to pay its judges salaries large enough for them to live upon respectably. No one can claim that the salaries at present paid are large enough for that. A United States District Court judge receives only $4,000 a year. A Circuit Court judge receives only $6,000, from which he is obliged to pay his own travelling expenses and private clerk hire. Compared with the salaries of New York State and city judges, this is absurdly inadequate compensation. Supreme Court judges here receive $17,500, those of the Superior Court and Common Pleas $15,000, Police Court $8,000, and Civil or District Court $6,000. When Mr. Lacombe accepted the appointment to the new Federal Circuit Judgeship, he resigned the city position of Corporation Counsel at a salary of $12,000 to take a Federal position at $6,000. This is a sacrifice which the Government ought to be ashamed to ask. More than that, the low salaries of the Federal judgeships serve as an insurmountable obstacle to most of the best legal and judicial talent of the city, because our most eminent lawyers and judges cannot afford to give up a remunerative position or a well-paid judgeship for a seat upon a bench where the remuneration does not exceed that of an ordinary clerk. Congress ought not to delay in raising the salaries to the amounts suggested by the memorialists, that is, $9,000 a year for circuit judges; for the district judges of the Northern and Eastern Districts, salaries equal to those allowed by the State to the judges of the Supreme Court outside of New York city, namely, $6,000; and for the Judge of the District Court of the Southern District of New York, in view of the cost of living in the city of New York, $7,000.

The fury of the Blaineites over Mr. Lowell's speech in Boston shows how hard its praise of Cleveland struck them—for they feel all praise of Cleveland as a stinging reflection on their own candidate—which is of course unfortunate for Mr. Lowell, as it subjects him to torrents of abuse. But this does not prevent Mr. Lowell's speech being one of the best pieces of political oratory which have been heard in the United States for many a day. The Blaineites are, in fact, so sensitive about Blaine that one can hardly speak of any other public man as honest, or truthful, or manly, or square, or upright, or accurate, or sober-minded, without rousing the worst passions of their nature. They always think this means that Blaine is wanting in these qualities, and rally round their candidate with their squirts loaded with filth. There could not be a more striking illustration of the demoralization brought by the continued prominence in politics of such a man as Blaine, than the obligation which it imposes on all his followers to vilify everybody in the community, however estimable or illustrious, who disapproves of him and his methods even so far as to be unwilling to see him in the Presidency.

Senator Allison of Iowa has been spending the vacation among his constituents, and he has found out that the "Blaine and a surplus" platform will not be accepted by Western Republicans. He told an interviewer at Dubuque last week that the necessity of revising the tariff is great, that Congress will be compelled to act, and that the party which fails to do its share in speedily reducing the tariff taxes will lose in public favor. It is rather hard on the New York *Tribune* that this outspoken declaration in favor of tariff reform, by the leading Republican Senator from the West, comes just as that paper is getting out an "Extra" containing the "Paris message."

Senator Allison condemns Mr. Blaine's policy of maintaining the surplus and distributing it among the States only by implication, but Senator Aldrich of Rhode Island comes out specifically against it. In his address to the Providence Board of Trade on Tuesday week this Republican made a very

strong argument against the plan laid down in the "Paris message." Mr. Aldrich declared that "it is substantially agreed by all parties that the revenue must be reduced," and added that "there is a general feeling among those who have made a study of the question that the annual reduction ought to be $100,000,000," although Mr. Blaine does not think that any reduction is necessary beyond the comparatively small amount involved in removing the tax upon that "necessity of to-day," tobacco. Mr. Aldrich said further upon this point, we may presume with an emphasis upon the word in italics: "I know of no *intelligent* protectionist or Republican who is not in favor of reducing the annual revenue to such a sum as shall be required to meet the current expenses and the maturing obligations of the Government." As for the Blaine plan of annually dividing a great surplus revenue among the States for the benefit of a particular class of taxpayers, Mr. Aldrich contemptuously remarked: "None of the propositions to collect a revenue with a view of dividing it among the States, or distributing it by extraordinary expenditures, are in my opinion defensible."

The strike of the coal-miners of the Reading Coal and Iron Company is connected, in the imaginations of the Knights of Labor, with the strike of a portion of the employees of the Reading Railroad Company. The strike of the railroad hands, it will be remembered, grew out of the refusal of the crews of five freight trains to handle cars loaded with flour taken from a warehouse that was operated by non-union men. The Superintendent of the railroad company promptly discharged the five crews and filled their places with non-union men. There had been a similar difficulty brewing for some time among the coal-handlers at Port Richmond and Elizabethport regarding "scab coal" from the Lehigh region, where a strike was going on in which the Reading Company had no concern except as carriers of coal mined by other companies and firms. A strike was ordered all along the line when the five crews were discharged, but it was only obeyed in part, and a conference was held between the Superintendent and the leaders of the Knights of Labor, in which it was agreed that the five crews and the two leaders who had incited them to mutiny should be definitely discharged, and that all strikers who reported for duty at twelve o'clock on the next day should be re-employed if their places had not been filled in the meantime. The Knights affirm that there was a further understanding that the original difficulty growing out of the refusal of the five crews to handle non-union flour should be submitted to arbitration; but there is no evidence of any such agreement, but on the contrary every reason to doubt it, since the laws of the State and of the United States expressly require railroad companies to carry all freight offered, in its turn, without discrimination or favoritism.

The strike of the coal miners is a different matter altogether. This is a question of wages entirely. The granting of the 8 per cent. advance, or the refusal to grant it, involves no question of principle, or of law or charter requirements, or of discipline. The company had an agreement with the miners that they would continue the 8 per cent. advance after the 1st of January if the same advance was granted in the Lehigh region. The miners agreed to go back to the old wages if the advance was not agreed to in the Lehigh region. As a matter of fact the advance was not granted to the Lehigh miners. Therefore, logically, the Reading men were bound to go to work at the old rate on the 1st of January. But miners are not very logical, and indeed it does not make much difference whether they work a few days or a month at the old wages, and then strike again, or whether they simply break the agreement. The agreement did not require them to work at the old wages for any specified time, although the implication was that their strike was contingent on the Lehigh strike, and was to follow the fate of the latter. There is no reason, therefore, why the miners' strike should not be submitted to arbitration if the Reading Company see fit to do so. But no arbitration or private settlement of that strike can be made to hinge upon the freight-handlers' strike of the Reading Railroad employees. The same reasons which forbade any submission to arbitration of the company's right and duty to carry all goods offered promptly and without discrimination in the first instance, forbid it now. The correlative right and duty to discharge hands who refuse to obey orders, and to employ others, remains unaffected by anything happening or that may happen in the coal region.

An interview with Gen. Sickles, the new Chairman of the State Civil-Service Commission, shows that his intentions are excellent, but also that he has paid but little attention to the working of the competitive system. There is no surer sign of a man's ignorance about it in this State than his belief that the examinations are not practical. Gen. Sickles apparently holds this belief, and in support of it cites the case of a

> "young man who applied for a position in which a knowledge of chemistry and metallurgy was absolutely necessary. He was a graduate of one of the scientific schools, and was a man of considerable repute in chemistry and metallurgy. He went up for examination, and was asked all sorts of questions in a two hours' examination on all sorts of things, but was not asked a single one about the subject of chemistry and metallurgy."

This looks very startling, but the explanation of it is probably the same as the explanation of the puzzling story told by "the boy" about the complicated relationships in his own family: the "young man" lied. We venture to assert that no such examination ever took place. Stories of this sort are frequently told by defeated candidates to excuse their failure to their friends, but they are never brought to the notice of anybody who can investigate them. Gen. Sickles's account of the way the examinations ought to be conducted, in his opinion, shows also that he has still to make himself acquainted with the way they are conducted. For instance, he recommends that the police examinations should be conducted by "such a man as Inspector Dilks," not knowing that they are conducted by a better man than Inspector Dilks, namely, Inspector Byrnes; and he recommends the "same method in the Fire Department," not knowing that the examinations there are conducted by Chief Bonner. His further remark, "that the place of a mechanic should be filled by a mechanic, and not by a college graduate with a smattering of knowledge of the work to be done, we must in common politeness take to be a recommendation, and not an empty platitude; but as such it shows that Gen. Sickles is still in the state of mind which was very common four or five years ago, when there was so much hostility in political circles to examining candidates "touching the height of the walls of Khartum and the depth of the Polar Sea."

Gen. Sickles's want of knowledge of the system is very likely shared by his colleagues, which makes it seem unfortunate that they should so soon have got rid of the Chief Examiner, Mr. Potts. Their first official act was to dismiss him, as he was an object of special animosity, we believe, to the Governor, who was extremely annoyed at his being put in a salaried office by a commission which he (the Governor) looked on as moribund, without consulting him. The offence was aggravated, too, by the fact that Mr. Potts had been secretary of that odious body, the Civil-Service Reform Association. But none the less Mr. Potts was a most efficient officer, thoroughly familiar with all the duties of his place, and, as any man filling it ought to be, eagerly sympathetic with the system he was called on to administer. If the new Commissioners had kept him in his place until they had thoroughly familiarized themselves with their new duties, they would, in our opinion, have done a very wise thing.

New Hampshire is beginning to doubt whether its new insurance policy pays. It will be remembered that two years ago last summer the Legislature passed the "Valued Policy Law," which required an insurance company in case of total loss by fire to pay the entire amount of the policy without regard to the loss actually incurred. All the foreign companies withdrew from the State. Appeals were made to State pride, and a number of local companies were started. For a few months things went well, but last year brought losses of over $2,000,000, which is more than double the average for the last ten years; and one of the strongest of the new local companies, the New Hampshire Manufacturers' Mutual, which carried risks of $800,000, has just been forced into liquidation, while several other companies are reported to be in a rather shaky condition. "What do we care for abroad?" is not so popular a remark in New Hampshire now as it was two years ago.

It is now announced authoritatively by the London *Lancet* that the affection of the throat from which the German Crown Prince is suf-

fering is not cancer, but "a severe form of chronic laryngitis," and that the condition of the throat has completely changed. The news, we are sure, will be received with the heartiest satisfaction throughout the world. There is no royal personage who has so strong a hold on the respect or affection of men of all civilized communities, or whose removal just now would be so great a misfortune, both for his own and other European countries. The way, too, in which he has borne the belief, for many weeks, that he was threatened with a lingering death of the most horrible kind, has been a splendid example of courage and fortitude. As long as he lives and can perform the duties of the place which awaits him, the future of the German Empire may be considered secure, and it will be a future of peaceful progress, both political and industrial. Moreover, in a few years more the military ardor of Prince Wilhelm, the next heir, will have been cooled by time and experience of life.

The Pope's Jubilee has not brought about, as some people supposed it would, a reconciliation between the Vatican and the Quirinal, as the phrase is, or, in other words, reconciled Leo XIII. to the loss of the temporal power. So far is he from this that he returned the King's presents the other day in a somewhat uncourteous way. We are sorry to add that the prospects of a settlement are still further darkened by the uncompromising attitude on the subject of the temporal power of some Catholics in this city, and notably of Mr. Bourke Cockran, who has set his face like flint against home rule for the Romans. He is apparently opposed to the kingdom of Italy as at present constituted, and insists on the surrender of the capital and a piece of the adjoining territory to the Pope and the Cardinals. We feel sure that Mr. Cockran, however, will some day relent, and let the Italians have their metropolis in peace, but we do not see how the Pope ever can. No Pope will be willing to go down in history as the one who gave up the claim of the Papacy to the States of the Church. Consequently, every Pope will for an indefinite period, as a matter of form, continue to put himself on record as complaining of being kept out of them. This does no harm to any body, and saves all rights. No claim of this kind is ever relinquished in a short time. It is only seventeen years since the Pope lost Rome. It is one hundred years, to all intents and purposes, since the Bourbons lost Paris, and they are claiming it still vigorously. The Stuarts, too, claimed London down to the beginning of this century, or until the line became extinct. If the Papal claim to Rome be abandoned within 150 years, those who witness it will be greatly surprised. In the meantime, however, the restoration of the temporal power is about as likely as the restoration of the Holy Roman Empire. The great argument that the Church cannot get on without it, even with the help of God Almighty, will, however, yearly become a little more hollow. In forty or fifty years it will become ridiculous even to the most pious believers. It is always dangerous to argue that you cannot live without a thing which you cannot have, because you are liable sooner or later to have to decide whether you will die or be reduced to absurdity.

The French Government, curiously enough, considering what a part women in France play in the retail trade, has only recently begun to employ them in the public offices. It has now about 6,000 in the postal and telegraphic service, to which they are admitted after a competitive examination which has to be pretty severe, owing to the large number of applicants—from five to ten for every vacancy, although the salary is wretchedly small. It takes long years of service to reach the maximum of $300. M. George Michel discusses the working of the experiment in the last number of the *Économiste Français*, and gives some interesting details about its conditions. The office hours of the women are from ten to five, and they are rigidly confined to one portion of the building, which no man is allowed to enter except the higher officers of the department. They are furnished by the Government with a hot lunch in the building, or breakfast, as they call it, at from ten to fifteen cents, from a kitchen established for the purpose. No letters are allowed to be delivered to them in the office. All letters addressed to them there are sent to their homes. As to the quality of the service rendered by the women, what their superiors say is, that they are far superior to the men in everything which calls for manual dexterity. In sending despatches, classifying bonds and coupons, verifying and sorting postal orders, and in the keeping of accounts, their superiority is incontestable. M. Michel says: "They discover errors with that sureness of sight which belongs to women accustomed to count the points of a piece of tapestry or the threads of a piece of linen to be marked. They also give very close attention to the copying and the verification of tables of figures. But as soon as the work ceases to be in some sort manual, their superiority disappears in most cases. They cannot follow up a correspondence or extract the essence of a transaction from a bundle of papers. Their turn of mind rebels against this sort of work; it loses itself in details."

The length to which "realism in art" has been pushed by a certain school of French littérateurs has brought so much reproach on the French nation that a "League" has been formed for the "Elevation of Public Morality," in "the interest of democracy and of the honor of the national genius." "The question is," its promoters say, "the frightful spread of immoral and demoralizing literature." What has brought about this crisis is probably Zola's latest effort, which is having an immense sale, and is probably the filthiest and most disgusting product of the human mind either in ancient or modern times. A lecture has just been delivered, under the auspices of the League, by M. Pressensé, one of the Senators, at Lyons, in which he draws a terrible picture of the condition of French light literature; but this, as the *Temps* points out, is a comparatively easy thing to do. What is needed is a remedy, and the suggestions made on this point are not very valuable. One writer, M. Loliée, in a book on 'Literary Men' (*Gens de Lettres*), says the cause of the evil is that whereas writers used to be amateurs who never expected to make money out of their books, they are now professionals who want to make all the money they can, and manufacture whatever they find will sell best. This may be an explanation, but it is not a cure. The *Temps* says that the only way to abate the nuisances is to induce "the public to become disgusted with the products which are furnished to it, instead of eagerly buying them," but this does not differ greatly from the plan of getting the Legislature to ordain virtue, at which the same journal laughs. The fact is, that both filthy books and filthy newspapers owe their prosperity to the existence and rapid growth in all countries of an immense public which has acquired the art of reading without any intellectual tastes or culture, and therefore seeks from the types simple entertainment of any kind. He would be a very wise man who could tell how this class is to be cut off from what it finds the cheapest form of excitement.

The promised explanation by the Mexican Government of the newspaper charges brought against it in connection with the colonization of Lower California mingles confession with denial. It fully disposes of the charge of secret and underhand methods, easily showing that all the contracts involved had been long since published. It also makes the alarm over the alleged number of American settlers look rather ridiculous, by showing that of the 1,600 colonists recently introduced into the Territory, not more than 200 are citizens of the United States, while the total population is upwards of 34,000. This estimate, however, makes no account of the foreigners who are in Lower California, not as settlers, but as adventurers, explorers, holders of contracts and laborers under them. There seems to be no way of getting at the numbers of these accurately, but it is generally admitted that they would foot up many more than the regular colonists. The Government argues strongly for the positive advantages wrought for Mexico by the development of the Territory under the present policy, instancing the new Custom-house established at Santa Rosalia purely in consequence of the growing trade, from which a revenue of $90,000 has already been produced. Secretary Pacheco tacitly admits that the law preventing alienation of land within twenty leagues of the frontier has been violated, but justifies this by saying that the law has become ridiculous with the introduction of railroads, since a hundred leagues mean less now than twenty did formerly. He also refers at great length to the circumstances attending the annexation of Texas, arguing that the situation in Lower California is entirely different, and that, moreover, the attitude of the United States towards annexation is wholly unlike what it was half a century ago.

SENATOR SHERMAN'S SPEECH.

Our Washington advices state that Senator Sherman's speech is to be taken as an indication of the Republican policy of dealing with the surplus. We think that there is good reason for this opinion. In the first place, Mr. Sherman is and has long been the leader of the party on that class of questions. He has had more experience in dealing with them than any other member. He understands the principles of finance better than any other. He is immeasurably the superior of Blaine in this regard. He is quite as skilful as the author of the "Paris message" in presenting surface arguments when they serve his purpose, but he sees much further below the surface, and accordingly knows much better what the wearing qualities of a sophism are if it becomes necessary to use it. It is thus, by virtue of a better training, that he has kept clear of Mr. Blaine's plan to divide the whiskey tax among the States—a proposition which has fallen upon the public opinion as flat and motionless as a ball of putty against a pavement.

Mr. Sherman has steered clear, also, of the fantastic proposition to abolish the whole internal-revenue system. He goes no further in this direction than the repeal of the tobacco tax and the special taxes (amounting to $5,200,000) on rectifiers, etc., of distilled spirits. "The taxes on beer and spirits," he says, "might be so modified that the States could make taxes on the consumption of those articles a bounteous source of revenue and a proper means of relief from the burdens of local taxation." This is a very different thing from advocating the repeal of all internal-revenue taxes. It proves conclusively that the Republican party is not prepared to enter the next campaign bearing the odium of free whiskey while sugar and salt, for example, remain taxed nearly 100 per cent. ad valorem.

But the surplus must be got rid of somehow, and those who object to the President's methods must show better ones. Mr. Sherman suggests rather than recommends extra liberality in appropriations as a means of getting money out of the Treasury. He says that *if* the President had signed the River and Harbor Bill, *if* he had not vetoed the Pauper Pension Bill, *if* the House had voted for a suitable coast-defence bill and a proper increase of the navy and the "Bill to Promote Mendicancy," and, finally, *if* the Secretary of the Treasury had gone on resolutely buying bonds in the face of an advancing premium, we should not now have the surplus problem in its present aggravated state. Undoubtedly there may be found ways to spend all the money that can be raised by any system of taxation. Most of us would be willing to take some. But it requires courage to advocate public extravagance before a people who have been all their lives practising economy in private, because they were compelled by dire necessity to do so. Mr. Sherman comes just short of saying that he would enlarge the expenses of the Government to the magnitude of the surplus, but what he says on this point is sufficient to give President Cleveland a very fair start in the next campaign, because what he does say is a public announcement that the Administration has been economical of the people's money. Since party contests began in this country, the claim of economy by the ins and the charge of extravagance by the outs have constituted the chief part of our political diet. The time has not yet come when this rule can be changed. We look upon this as the weakest part of Mr. Sherman's speech, and we shall be surprised if the Democrats do not make him repent that he ever helped them to prove to the people that they have been careful in husbanding the public resources, and that they have avoided as far as possible the payment of high premiums to bondholders.

Mr. Sherman proposes a reduction of the sugar duties. This is the only protective tax that he consents to abandon, and he allows this only on condition of granting a bounty to the American producer of the article. It will be a novel experience—this payment of bounties out of the Treasury to persons engaged in a particular industry. If this policy is adopted in reference to sugar, it follows that every other industry which is, or says that it is, put to disadvantage by tariff changes, must be fed with the same spoon. The wool-growers have not ceased to declare that they were damnified to the extent of millions by the slight reduction of the tariff on wool made in 1883. If sugar is to have a bounty, why not wool, and why not everything that can show that it is suffering from those "inequalities of the tariff" which the Republican party is pledged in its last national platform to rectify? We advise all parties to beware of bounties.

THE TAXES ON TOBACCO.

We were not aware until very recently that the tax on domestic cigars is a part of the general system of "fostering" American industry. We use the word fostering, instead of protecting, because it is used by the *United States Tobacco Journal*, from which we derive this valuable information. We are always sceptical about the promotion of industry by taxation. The fostering care of a government which levies any percentage of tax over and above the plain needs of the public treasury, looks to us like the diversion of the lawful earnings of one person to the pocket of another, the more especially since the Government has no occult resources of its own, but can only disburse or distribute what it has first collected from the people. This reasoning is commonly held to be sound and unanswerable until you apply it to the consumers of imported goods. Latterly there has been an extension of the principle to butter, the doctrine being that this article should be "fostered" by a tax on oleomargarine, although both are American products.

Far otherwise has the fostering care of the Government been exercised in the cigar industry, which, as the *Tobacco Journal* assures us, has been stimulated not by taxing any other industry, domestic or foreign, but by taxing that industry itself. This is proved by statistics and the history of the trade. In 1860 the capital invested in the manufacture of cigars was $3,035,555. It gave employment to 7,997 persons, whose wages amounted to $2,531,354. The population of the country was 31,000,000. But between 1860 and 1870, when the tax was the heaviest and Government interference the strictest and most vexatious, the capital invested in cigar-making quadrupled, the population of the country having risen only to 38,000,000, an increase of only 24 per cent., against an increase of 400 per cent. in cigar-making. The number of persons employed rose in this period to upwards of 26,000, an increase of more than 300 per cent. In the next succeeding decade the cigar industry grew to $21,698,549 of capital invested and to 53,297 in the number of persons employed, or about 100 per cent., while the population increased only 35 per cent.

"What do these figures prove?" asks the *Tobacco Journal*. Why, that the internal-revenue cigar tax "fostered the cigar industry to a marvellous growth, and that while its repeal will not benefit the consumers in the least, it may expose the industry to the same injurious and deadening influences which hampered its growth before the war." The conclusion of our tobacco contemporary is, that "the best policy would, therefore, appear to be to leave well enough alone, particularly if the repeal of the tax is opposed by an overwhelming majority of the manufacturers themselves and all the wage-earners in the industry." Then a suggestion is made that both the consumer and the manufacturer would be benefited by the removal of the duty on raw leaf. There can, in fact, be no doubt that this important branch of American industry would be greatly promoted by the repeal of the duty on imported leaf, which has recently been increased to the shocking rate of 75 cents per pound (the former rate being 35 cents), in order to protect a few growers in the Connecticut Valley.

We cannot help feeling puzzled to find a particular industry calling for internal-revenue taxes on itself, and we should catalogue this fact among the other insoluble oddities of our financial situation—the surplus and the dreadful stew about getting rid of it—did we not remember that we heard the same outcry when the tax on matches was about to be knocked off. The match manufacturers wanted the tax retained. Why? Because it required more capital to go into the business while there was a tax on the article, and thus the trade was kept select, being in some sort a close corporation. We do not know whether this is the situation of the cigar trade, but we note it as a question worth looking into by Congress, why cigar manufacturers should want to pay the Government $3 per thousand on their output, and should be distressed that the Government does not want the money. Unquestionably there has been an immense increase in the cigar industry since the year 1860, by far greater than the increase of population. But since common sense refuses to believe that this increase has been caused by the tax on domestic cigars, we are driven to the conclusion that smokers now use cigars who formerly used pipes, just as they now use refined sugar where they formerly used brown sugar. These are

merely signs of the increasing wealth of the country.

The taxes on tobacco and its products are of several kinds. Manufactured tobacco and snuff are taxed 8 cents per pound, cigars $3 per 1,000, and cigarettes 50 cents per 1,000. In addition to these taxes the manufacturers, dealers, and peddlers of cigars, tobacco, and snuff pay special taxes or license fees which amounted in the last fiscal year to $1,430,919. The total internal revenue from tobacco and the tobacco trade was $30,108,067, of which domestic cigars and cigarettes yielded a little more than $12,000,000. The *Tobacco Journal* insists that the repeal of the cigar tax would not benefit the consumer, because the cheapening of the article would be only one-third of a cent, "a fraction of currency which has no real existence." Possibly this difficulty might be got around by buying three at a time; but if it were insurmountable, the cigar-makers might as well pocket the $12,000,000, seeing that the Government does not want it and is embarrassed by having it. Can they not manage somehow to make their disbursements equal to their receipts? Are they, too, troubled with a surplus?

A few words of reply are due to a valued correspondent who writes to protest, on free-trade grounds, against our position in reference to the tobacco taxes. The difference between us is primarily this: We consider the surplus a greater evil than protective duties. He considers protective duties a greater evil than the surplus. Holding the view that the surplus is extremely menacing to all business interests, and most demoralizing in its incentives towards extravagance in appropriations, and that it is a new evil that may be killed now by common consent, while protection is an old one that can be killed only by slow degrees through the spread of education—for these reasons and for others which we need not repeat, we favor the repeal of the tobacco taxes as one of the measures for reducing the surplus.

SUCCESSFUL ANTI-LIQUOR LAWS.

THE statement which Gov. McGill of Minnesota has made concerning the effects of the new High-License Law in that State furnishes valuable corroborative evidence of the practical wisdom of this method of fighting the liquor evil. He tells the same story that has been told of every State in which high-license or tax laws have gone into effect, namely, a large decrease in the number of saloons, a perceptible diminution in the amount of drunkenness, and a great increase in revenues to the local and State treasuries. The Governor says there has been a total reduction of over 1,600 in the number of saloons in the State, and that "while the effects of the law with regard to the diminution of drunkenness must naturally be of a more or less speculative determination, still there are many facts which plainly warrant an inference that there is much less than before the law went into operation." He then quotes the following interesting and valuable opinion by Bishop Ireland, who, he truthfully says, is probably better able to judge of the general effect of the law with respect to drunkenness than anybody else in the State:

"In Winona there is a very large Polish population, perhaps 800 families, mainly composed of mill hands, and formerly there was a good deal of intemperance among them. There is now but one saloon in Winona, instead of eight or ten, and the bank deposits of the Polish people are unusually large. Caledonia, Houston County, was formerly composed of a large drinking population. Now there are but four saloons where there were formerly fifteen. In many of the smaller places drunkenness has disappeared altogether. Kilkenny, formerly a constant source of disorder, is now one of the quietest villages in the State. All classes of people are pleased, Germans, Polanders, and French, all through the country. If there was a popular vote to-day as to high license in Minnesota, the majority would be overwhelmingly in its favor. It is a solution of the temperance question. Its benefits are already appreciated by the people, and it would be impossible to change the High-License Law of Minnesota to-day. The financial feature of the Minnesota law is one of its many admirable features."

This is testimony of the highest value. It coincides perfectly with a letter recently published in the *Evening Post* about the effect of the law in Caledonia, one of the places mentioned by the Bishop. The writer of it stated that the effect of the law in that village had been to reduce the number of saloons from fifteen to four, to diminish drinking and drunkenness, to keep all saloons closed on Sundays, and to increase the revenues so that improvements of the streets had commenced. He concluded by saying, as Bishop Ireland does, that public sentiment was overwhelmingly in favor of the law, and added: "It is an unmixed good." The Bishop says: "It is the solution of the temperance question."

Simultaneously with this news from Minnesota comes a detailed statement, put forth by the Local-Option League of Ohio, giving the latest figures concerning the working of the tax law in that State. License is forbidden by the Ohio Constitution, but the effects of license are secured by a law which levies a tax of $200 upon all full liquor stores and of $100 upon beer-saloons, and permits any community, by means of a local-option clause, to regulate, restrain, or prohibit the sale to suit itself. According to the Local-Option League the net results of this law to date are as follows:

"(1.) Two thousand and eighty-eight saloons have been closed by the saloon-tax provision.

"(2.) Five hundred and seventeen saloons have been closed by Town Councils, most of them by vote of the people.

"(3.) Two hundred towns in the State have adopted local option and suppressed the liquor traffic to a greater or less extent, and the number of towns taking this stand is increasing.

"(4.) Nearly $2,000,000 has been collected of the saloon men and put into city and county treasuries."

In order to get the effect of cumulative evidence, let us place beside this testimony from Minnesota and Ohio the latest official data about the effects of similar laws in other Western States. In Illinois there is a uniform tax of $500 upon liquor-selling. The law provides for two licenses, $500 upon liquor-selling and $150 upon beer-selling, but the local authorities have found it advisable in nearly all cases to use the privilege given them to make the tax a uniform one of $500 upon all kinds of saloons. The total effects of the law have been to reduce the number of saloons in the State from 13,000 to 9,000, to increase the revenues from the traffic from $700,000 to over $4,500,000, and to decrease perceptibly the amount of drunkenness and crime. In Chicago alone there are now 3,900 saloons, against about 4,000 before the law went into operation, notwithstanding the great increase of population, which would have warranted, under the ratio of the old law, at least 6,000 to-day, and the revenues have increased from $200,000 a year to nearly $2,000,000.

In Missouri, where the minimum license fee is $550 and the maximum $1,200, the number of saloons has been reduced about one-fifth, and the revenues raised from less than $600,000 to nearly $2,000,000. Under a local-option law, which is separate from the license law, and which has recently been declared constitutional by the Supreme Court of the State, thirty-four counties and eleven cities have established prohibition by popular vote. In Michigan there has been a tax law in operation since 1875—last year made more stringent, we believe, by raising the tax from $500 to $800 upon every wholesale dealer and from $300 to $500 upon every retail dealer. At the last session of the Legislature a local-option law was passed under which a large number of counties have voted in favor of prohibition. The effect of the two laws together has been to cut down the number of saloons to less than 5,000 in the State—about one-half of what they would number on the ratio of saloons to population under the prohibitory law which was in force previous to 1875, and to give the State an annual revenue of nearly $9,000,000. In Nebraska, where the license is $1,000 in cities and $500 in all smaller places, the number of saloons in Omaha has been reduced nearly one-half, drunkenness has been greatly diminished, and the revenue has been increased from $50,000 to nearly $250,000. Similar results have been obtained in other portions of the State.

Can anything like these results be shown from prohibitory laws? Is there a single State where there is a prohibitory law on the statute-books in which it can be affirmed that the liquor evil is restricted to anything like the extent shown by the statistics given above? If so, we are not aware of it. Only a few months ago the Prohibition organ, the *Voice*, published several columns of letters from persons in Maine about the working of the prohibitory law there, and the admission was frankly made in all of them that in all the large cities of Maine—Bangor, Portland, Lewiston—the law was not enforced at all. "With one voice," said the editor of the paper in summing up the Bangor portion of these letters, "they declare that the prohibitory law in Bangor is a farce and a fraud." The same charge was made about other cities, and was sustained by ample evidence, and the excuse made was not that the law was a failure, but that the Republican officials would not enforce it for political reasons. The same state of things exists in Rhode Island, where the law is systematically violated in nearly or quite all parts of the State. In Vermont it has never succeeded in keeping saloons closed, and in Iowa and Kansas there has been a similar

failure. Saloons exist in large numbers in all these so-called prohibition States, and there is no revenue whatever from them.

In fact, there has been no form of legislation in recent years which has proved so successful in actual experiment as these high-license laws. They do accomplish the most important purposes of restricting the traffic, keeping it within bounds wherein it can be regulated and controlled, and reducing the evils which flow from it. It is the one form of legislation which the liquor interests most fear, and for excellent reasons. We ought to have such a law in this State, and if the present Legislature does its duty, the responsibility of preventing us from having it will be put squarely upon the Governor's shoulders.

FROM TRIPOLI TO ALEXANDRIA.

ROME, December 21, 1887.

COMING from the French possessions in Algeria and Tunis to Tripoli is a change from tolerably well-ordered countries to a narrow strip of fertile, poorly-cultivated land, with Turkish rule and garrisons, an unhealthy and, for a great part of the year, very hot climate. Mirages are common, and have often deceived mariners on the inhospitable and poorly charted and lighted coast. From the mountains and fertile plains of the northern part to the arid deserts and flat coast-land of Tripoli—the Sahara being but two miles inland from the city—is indeed an extreme change, and the older order of things obtains, with all the evils of Moslem misrule, wretchedness, and neglect. The few oases within travelling distance send their products to the weekly market, and these consist of barley, dates, rough cloths and carpets, cattle, horses, chillies, some fruits, grasses, and melons. It is stated that gold dust is brought in also. Formerly the slave-trade was prominent here, and caravans with slaves from the interior were the chief source of trade and activity.

The garrison, besides occupying the citadel, were encamped without the walls, on the right, in the public gardens, to the number of two thousand. There is some apprehension regarding the aims of Italy in this quarter, and these troops—at their present strength—have not been here long. Two well-armed men-of-war were also in the harbor, and the fortification mounts a few large Krupp guns besides the considerable number of ordinary cannon. The walls are much worn and decaying, but they are manned; sentinels are posted at all points, and visitors are not permitted to go near them. Two large schools were visited at 7 A.M., and were full of all classes of scholars—adults as well as boys—studying aloud. The morning hours are not neglected by any portion of the community; trade was brisk, and none were abed. The population consisted of the usual Jewish traders and merchants, very many negroes from the interior, a few Europeans—Maltese, Italians, and French—and the larger part Bedouins. The Turks number not over a sixth of the inhabitants. A large number of the Arabs are Tunisian, and appear to be rather a hard lot, freely reviling the foreigner upon sight. Since the French occupation of Tunis, these Arabs come into Tripoli, and are said to be a little troublesome. They pitch their tents near the city.

For pure sightseeing of Arabs—their mode of life, productions, trading capacities, and characteristics—Tripoli offers better facilities than any other northern African port. I saw great heaps of their staples—grain, dates, and chillies—and vast numbers of camels, horses, and some cattle. Well-bred and blooded colts of four or five months were priced at from two to four English pounds, and they were exquisitely beautiful. Cloths and carpets of coarse make and fibre were strewn about for several hundred yards, and were mainly of wool. Barley and dates exceeded all other displays, and the space occupied by the market was certainly a half mile long by a quarter wide. The scene was unique; there were money-changers and story-tellers, musicians and armorers, the rich, fat Jew and the haughty, well-to-do Arab, with servants of both sexes, black as Erebus, a mingling of costumes and colors, flowing white burnooses, and head-gear of all the northern African races. Ears, necks, noses, arms, and ankles of the Arabs loaded with jewelry; hidden faces, tattooed skins, the lame and the sick—all were there, and rarely a European. The sun beat down, and there were no tents; the season was declining; October was at hand, and the thermometer (F.) was at 95°.

There is no American consular officer here. The bazaars offer nothing unusual, but they are large, roomy structures, and with few exceptions are occupied by the Jews. The principal stocks are cotton, silks, carpets, embroideries, and European fancy articles, smokers' materials, fezes, arms, perfumes, and so on. There is no good accommodation for travellers, and the tourist coming to Tripoli must rough it—must accept poor fare and many strange bedfellows. The streets are merely lanes, foul and ill-smelling to the last degree, and there is no cleanliness. Sheep are killed at any convenient wall, and the meat sold on the spot; offal is left for dogs—too few for the purpose—and one meets everywhere heaps of garbage and refuse. Eye diseases and poorly nourished children are common. The best element of Tripoli seemed to me to be the nomadic Arabs. They at least appear clean, and, with their fine faces, tall figures, and haughty bearing, their quaint arms, their pure white flowing costume, incessantly going and coming, on camel or horse, they have a striking individuality.

There is no way of ascertaining the volume of trade accurately, and though it may not be as large as formerly in the days of slave-selling and the great caravans from the far interior, it is nevertheless considerable and mainly local. Of course there are no docks, and all loading and discharging of steamers is done by large boats and lighters. Labor is cheap as well as human life. With the extinction of piracy and slavery, and the decline of the power of the reigning chiefs—from this last cause more than anything else—Tripoli as well as Tunis soon took an inferior place and is now rarely heard of in a material sense. There does not appear to be much to attract foreign conquest, and if it is asserted that Algeria is a drain on the French treasury, it is inconceivable that Tripoli could ever support for any length of time a European force. It is an unhealthy country, and the few square miles of fertile coast land in the immediate vicinity of the capital offers the choicest part of the country. It is probably hotter than Egypt, with the desert a few miles away on three sides, and the relative humidity is extreme.

From Tripoli to Egypt is an agreeable change, but before reaching Alexandria there are days of scorching heat and blistering sun, steaming along the arid northern coast. The first impression one forms of Egypt at the present time is, that a struggle is going on between many forces, and that this fair country may not after all emerge from the condition of servitude and chaos she has been in for so many years. Few people can successfully deny the benefit Egypt is deriving from the English control. For the first time in ages the "fellah" or producer in this land gets a receipt for his annual tax payments, and he seems to be correspondingly happy and industrious over it. Formerly taxes were wrung from him as long as his money and worldly goods held out—often with the lash—and as often as two and three times in the year. One sees great quantities of cotton on the wharves, and much evidence of a large trade in Alexandria, while from the ruins of the old city is rising a vast, and in many parts an elegant, metropolis. Alexandria promises to be again a great city, and in the building activity one is reminded of a growing Western city in our own country. It is now estimated that the population is 250,000, and plans for the entire building of several new sections of the city are in progress. The English garrison are rarely seen, though they have two large buildings in the heart of the city, and occupy a commanding fortification in the old citadel, near the railway station, besides an encampment a few miles out, near the remains of the Khedive's unfinished summer palace. Without going into the question, one becomes impressed with the fact of the solid benefits of English control. During a visit to Egypt in 1881, I formed some idea of the order of things and the management of affairs then, and, coming now again, there seems to be a change for the better, though I should hesitate to state why. Notwithstanding a feeling of insecurity, which is quite general, the workers in the country are probably gaining a better spirit, there is more production, more industry, and less fear of a summary and brutal official and military class in government.

There is now prevailing at Cairo a form of fever, of malarial type, sometimes with a continuous or typhoid tendency engrafted on it, in all probability due to the excessive height and overflow of the Nile, and the consequent stagnant pools of water, decaying vegetable matter, and the formation of specific miasms. The mortality is reported as very low. The disease is, however, very general, and will in all likelihood unfavorably influence the coming season for tourists, as strangers to the country seem to be especially prone to experience an attack. In some cases symptoms of joint involvement and deep-seated pains are noted, and hence unusual reports of dengue and "break-bone fever" are in circulation, but there is an absence of the chronicity and serious sequelæ usually attendant on dengue.

In the older and strictly native portions of Alexandria the old order of things still obtains, and one winds through miserably kept streets, wooden bazaars, by heaps of garbage and refuse, and other annoying nuisances made more potent by the heat. As usual in the East, the Jews seem to have the bulk of the trade, and the money to do it with, but there is a wonderfully mixed population to be found in all manner of trades and occupations, and the country undoubtedly now contains a great number of renegades and adventurers from Europe—men and women with no good behind them. In many sections there are blocks upon blocks of the poorest hovels and wooden structures serving as shops, cafés, workshops, and dwellings, and inhabited by a motley crowd of Egyptians, negroes, Armenians, Jews, and low Europeans. There did not appear to be many unemployed people, and I was assured that there was work to be had by everybody desiring it—coarse labor on the many new buildings in course of construction. One, however, sees here as elsewhere a considerable number of the frock-coated gentry (here wearing the fez),

always fairly well fed and dressed, idle, vicious, engaged in small peddling, or acting as quondam guides when subsistence becomes precarious. They accost one everywhere and are of all countries and languages. There are two large and influential clubs in Alexandria, several first-class hotels, an exchange, many elegant shops and stores, and at evening quite a display of pretentious equipages. Hotel rates are higher than in Europe, and first-class accommodation, without any extras, cannot be obtained under four dollars per day.

After October the climate of Egypt is not surpassed for mildness and equability anywhere, and many lives are prolonged for the winters spent here. In some respects the Messrs. Cook control much of the country's prosperity, and the number of people moved about by them is amazing. When one considers their paraphernalia, servants, and far-reaching influences generally, Egypt in winter without Cook would be "Hamlet" without the title-rôle. One only requires a long purse to do Egypt thoroughly and particularly; there is no trouble or annoyance about it. The natives are a long-suffering, patient, and generally honest lot, and thievery and rascality occur, if at all, in contact with the superior being from abroad. I have met with instances of rigid honesty and orthodoxy among the natives, both Mahometans and Copts, and going about among them is both safe and agreeable. Should some of the projected schemes for more general irrigation come to a successful conclusion, the area of arable and valuable land will be increased at least a million acres—by seven millions, as some assert. This land is all in the Nile delta, easy of access, and correspondingly valuable.

C. A. Siegfried.

JOURNAL OF THE BROTHERS GONCOURT.

Paris, December 28, 1887.

The brothers Goncourt were as like in appearance and in feeling as twin brothers. One of them is now dead, but we still say "les Goncourt." The survivor leads a sort of double life. He looks unhappy, like a man who has lost his shadow. The Goncourts were in one sense a rare instance, for they were literary twins. We sometimes see two men write in collaboration—we have had the case of Erckmann-Chatrian; but we know the secret of these collaborations. One does not bring the same things as the other to the literary picnic. The Goncourts really seemed to have had one heart and one brain; there is no sign which can help you to say, Here I recognize one and here the other. This mental and intellectual identification is all the more remarkable because these two brothers were not merely given to receiving and translating sensations: they had theories, they made plans, they were full of ambition, of hopes; they meant to create a literary school; they considered themselves as the true precursors of the naturalistic school.

Still, their dualism was a weakness, and it probably accounts for the failure of many of their hopes and ambitions. 'Madame Bovary' will be read when 'Germinie Lacerteux,' 'Madame Gervaisais,' 'Renée Mauperin,' 'Manette Salomon,' will be forgotten. I might say, without much injustice, that they are forgotten. Flaubert impressed his strong individuality on his work; the Goncourts had not the same creative force. They had a great sensibility, and received sensations as a mirror receives images. They were never able to give a dramatic form to their thoughts, to condense their observations in living types. They were witnesses rather than actors in the struggle of their own time, and though they pretended to be naturalists and impressionists, there is a curious want of reality in all their work. They always produce on me the effect of men who are just out of a dream.

In many respects they were interesting young men when they began their Parisian existence. They were well born (and many passages in their 'Journal,' which has just been published in two volumes, show that they were not unconscious of this great advantage); they were not extravagantly rich, but they were rich for their time; they might have lived like hundreds and thousands of other young men, enjoyed the pleasures of the gayest capital in the world, mixed with fashionable society. They made early for themselves an ideal; they had an intense curiosity with regard to artistic and literary matters, and they chose to see only artists and writers. Their name belongs to the pleiad of the poets and novelists who came after the great Romantics. Théophile Gautier was a sort of connecting link; he was a Romantic, he had been at the famous first representation of "Hernani," he had no leaning towards the naturalistic school.

In the society of artists, the Goncourts became collectors. How often did I see them on the Quai Voltaire, entering the shops of the dealers in old engravings and old drawings. They were early seduced by the French school of the eighteenth century, a school which was thoroughly despised in the time of Horace Vernet and of Ingres. They had no system, or, if they had one, they did not like the dryness of the French academical school of the Restoration; they appreciated the merit of men who were almost forgotten—of Chardin, Watteau, Boucher, Latour the pastellist, Greuze; of the brothers Saint-Aubin; of the engravers Gravelot, Cochin, Eisen; of Moreau, of Fragonard. They found a number of original drawings of these men, and bought for a trifle what would now fetch enormous prices. Their fine book entitled 'L'Art au XVIIIe. Siècle' will keep a very honorable place among the art literature of our time.

Their familiarity with the painters and engravers who lived during the French Revolution gave them opportunities for studying the French society of that period and of the Directory. The pictures they drew of these extraordinary times are vivid and full of interest, as well as their studies on the actresses of the eighteenth century, on the Duchesse de Châteauroux and her sisters, on Mme. de Pompadour, on Mme. Du Barry, on Marie-Antoinette.

The 'Journal' begins on the very day of the *Coup d'État* of December 2, 1851. By a curious chance, on that date the first novel of the Goncourts was to appear:

"In the morning when we were lazily dreaming of edition after edition, entered with noise and slamming of the doors our cousin Blamont, a ci-devant *garde du corps*, who was now a pepper-and-salt conservative, asthmatic and always angry.

"'It is done!' said he.

"'What is done?'

"'Well, the *Coup d'État!*'

"'Oh!—and our novel, which is to be put on sale to-day.'

"'Your novel? A novel? France cares little now for novels.'"

They went out, and though they looked at all the placards which covered the walls, and which had the proclamations of the new Government, they could not help searching for the placard which was to announce to the world the appearance of two more literary men, "Edmond and Jules de Goncourt." The placard was not there; the publisher had got frightened and had thrown all the placards in the fire.

The 'Journal' shows us, so to speak, the gradual development of the Goncourts; it takes us into their society. Flaubert plays a very important part in it, as well as Gautier. Gautier looked like a sort of lazy lion; he wore long hair, and had something of the sphinx. This is the way he worked at his feuilleton:

"At eleven o'clock I take a chair, I put on the table the paper, the ink, the pens, the instruments of torture. It bores me to write—it always did, it is so useless. . . . When I am once there, I write quietly like a public writer. I don't go fast, but I never stop, for, you know, I never look for anything better. An article is a thing of impulse, it is like a child—it is, or it is not. I never think of what I am going to write. I take my pen and write. I am a man of letters and know my trade. . . . I throw my phrases in the air; like cats, I am sure that they will fall on their feet."

Gautier did not like Molière, and thought the "Misanthrope" badly written. He did not care for dramas of any sort: his was a subjective nature. "All my worth," he used to say, "arises from the fact that for me the visible world exists." He pretended that few people, when they had entered a room, could tell a moment afterwards what was the color of the paper. He preferred verse to prose, and when he wished to do something good, he always began it in verse.

Flaubert was more genial, less sceptical than Gautier. Like Gautier, he was what we call a stylist, only Gautier never changed the form he had chosen, while Flaubert changed it constantly. He had absurd theories upon the art of writing, like receipts for cooking; he gave so much importance to the words that sometimes the idea disappeared. He was very coarse in conversation, somewhat of a fanfaron of vice. He chose Carthage as the scene of one of his novels, as the most corrupt place which had existed on earth. Maxime Du Camp has told us for what reason Flaubert retired so often to Croissy, in his house on the Seine: he was subject to fits of epilepsy. Nobody could have believed it, seeing him so strong and apparently robust. In Paris he saw but few people, only a small number of friends: "he lived the life of a bear." This *oursérie* of the man of letters of the nineteenth century is curious, when you compare it with the worldly life of the writers of the eighteenth century, from Diderot to Marmontel. The middle classes of the present hour only care for the man of letters when he is disposed to accept the part of a curious beast, a buffoon, or a cicerone of foreigners.

One day About is painted, and the picture is very exact:

"We meet About while we are walking in the woods of Bellevue. He talks, he unbosoms himself, he becomes expansive. It is the measure of intelligence of a very intelligent man of the world, with a remainder of the professor and a little of the quack. He speaks of his person, of his hair which is growing gray, of his mother, of his sister, of his family, of his Castle of Saverne, of his five servants, of the eighteen people he always has at his table, of his hunting, of his friend Sarcey [the theatrical critic], of his disillusion in reading over the 'Notre-Dame de Paris' last week, of the qualities of Ponson du Terrail [a popular novelist], and of the opinion he has of him with Mérimée. It is the successful *moi*, but not too heavy, not too insupportable, saved by clever monkey tricks, by little flatteries for the littérateurs present. But in his conversation there is not an atom which is not terrestrial, Parisian, and small-newspaper."

The Goncourts describe Sainte-Beuve as a small, round, rustic-looking man, with a large forehead, a bald head, great eyes starting from his head, an irregular nose, an ugly mouth with an amiable smile; looking like a provincial librarian living in the dust of books, under which some good Burgundy wine would lie concealed. Sainte-Beuve was engaged in writing

his famous 'Causeries du Lundi.' He was overworked, and complained of the necessity in such a task of jumping from subject to subject, from century to century:

"'One has not the time to love anything, to become attached to anything. . . . It breaks my head. I am like the horses who have their mouths spoiled by jerking to right and left,' and he made the gesture of a man who pulls the bit. 'Well, I am engaged for three years. At the end of three years I shall have earned about what people earn with a comedy which is not a success. Ah! the theatre,' he exclaimed; 'the comedy in verse is a thing of the past. Either you write verses which are not verses for comedy, or you write prose. Everything will tend to the novel, the field is so vast, and you can take every possible form.'"

Renan comes in, in many places, as he was a member of the once famous Friday dinners which made some noise under the Second Empire. Some of these dinners are well described in their disorderly conversations. The student of the literature of France between 1850 and the present day will find many notes to take in this 'Journal.' There are some parts which might well have been omitted, but the authors, I suppose, wished to give a proof of their perfect sincerity. The central figure of these littérateurs is the Princess Mathilde. The Goncourts worship her as the poets of the Pleiad celebrated the great ladies of their time; and, surely, nothing could exceed her kindness to her literary friends. Her salon has been the only point of contact of such men as Flaubert, the Goncourts, Sainte-Beuve, Taine, Renan, and the great world. She was able to tame all these *bears*, like Circe. "A curious physiognomy, this Princess, with the succession of impressions of all sorts which she receives, and with those enigmatic eyes which pierce you. Her mind has something of her eye. Here and there a word comes out which paints, *à la* Saint-Simon, a thing or a man." The Princess Mathilde is no longer young, but she has kept the literary sceptre of a drawing-room. All her friends are very devoted to her; Goncourt still observes her and notes her clever sayings. She has chosen the better part, and never attempted to play a political rôle. Goncourt's gratitude and devotion to her are almost touching. He tries not to conceal it, and he prides himself candidly on the friendship of the niece of the great Napoleon, who condescends to be the most natural and best of women.

Correspondence.

QUESTIONS ON THE ISSUE OF THE DAY

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Now that the signs of the times point unmistakably to a clearly defined *national issue* between the great parties next fall, provided the Republicans do not force a personal one through the character of their nominee, and in view also of the fact that the popular discussion through the campaign is likely to be narrowed down, on the protectionist side, to the alleged dilemma (as the *Tribune* has just very ingeniously put it), *ruined industries* or else *pauper wages*, as the result of tariff reform —persistently called by the other side "free trade"—would it not be wise for the reformers largely to shape their discussion so as to anticipate this form of argument before it has fastened itself ineradicably in the prejudices of the people addressed by the *Tribune* and its like?

Personally, although on general and largely *à-priori* grounds, an out-and-out free-trader, should be glad to know how a careful thinker and trained economist would meet the seemingly grave objection that to open the door to foreign competition would necessarily bring, at last, American wages to a par with English ones in the same industry. Is it enough to answer that the American operative would be sufficiently protected by the 3,000-miles-freightage with which European goods must be handicapped in the competition with our own? Or shall we say that American wages cannot fall without a corresponding rise in English ones, both seeking a common level, as artificial conditions are removed? Or, finally, shall we answer that, happily or unhappily, the industrial conditions of the two countries cannot, for a long time, at any rate, be made the same—social, governmental, and other considerations forbidding it; and that accordingly the faithful, intelligent American workman must long command, tariff or no tariff, a compensation above that of his English brother?

How, also, shall we meet the *Tribune's* plausible suggestion that the pauper earnings of the needle-women, as Mrs. Campbell has so feelingly told the story, fairly hint what men's wages will be brought to when *their* ranks in the several industries are in effect similarly overcrowded by foreign competition?

I, for one, should like to hear your answer, however elementary or puerile the difficulty may seem to you.—Respectfully yours,

H. D. C.

Eastport, Me., December 29, 1887.

[There are so many answers to the foregoing queries that we find ourselves somewhat embarrassed to know where to begin. Perhaps we may as well start by asking why foreign competition does not bring English wages down to the level of German, French, and Belgian wages, which are as much lower than English as ours are higher.

For a second answer we might ask how we are enabled, with our high wages, to export and sell abroad in competition with foreign producers the following quantities of manufactures in a single year:

Iron and steel manufactures	$16,605,046
Leather "	9,692,408
Wood "	21,464,322
Agricultural implements	2,561,602
Books, maps, etc	1,389,350
Carriages	1,495,475
Chemicals	4,806,193
Clocks and watches	1,345,940
Cotton manufactures	11,866,591
Flax and jute "	1,314,140
Gunpowder, dynamite, etc	1,367,223
Paraffine	1,725,344
Refined sugar	16,071,767
	$91,707,401

This list is taken from the exports of the fiscal year 1885. It might be much extended, as we have selected only the items whose amounts were upwards of $1,000,000.

Now, the wage question enters into all these articles of manufacture just as much as it would into any article that might be imported. Will anybody tell why the higher wages of this country do not prevent us from exporting a hundred million dollars' worth of manufactures now, and selling them in competition with the lower wages of England and the still lower wages of Germany, France, and Belgium?

For a third answer we refer "H. D. C." to the report of the Hayes-Oliver-Porter Tariff Commission of 1883, where he will find the wages question fully considered as preliminary to an expression of opinion that a general reduction of the tariff by 20 or 25 per cent., as recommended by them, would not "*in any case* diminish the compensation of labor." They probably knew what they were talking about, and as they were the chosen ones of the protected interests, their testimony is not open to suspicion.—Ed. Nation.]

WORKINGMEN'S THOUGHTS ON THE TARIFF.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Four years ago I talked free trade in this town, and was nearly thrown in the Lake in consequence—at least, I was threatened with it. But now I am surprised to notice the number of men, workingmen, steel-rail men at that, who are low-tariff men. It has been my fortune for the last six or seven years to associate pretty intimately with men employed in steel-rail and nail mills. I have noticed that the protection argument which has taken the most hold of their imagination (one cannot say their reason) is the argument deduced from a comparison of wages in England and America. Their bosses have taken great pains to enlighten them on this subject. But the crassest ignorance prevails among them concerning the wages of a protected country like Germany and France compared with England. Nor had any of them the slightest idea of the relative purchasing power of money in England and America. Some of them now have a glimmering idea of the difference, and more are learning.

Another point. Nearly all of them harbor a vague delusion, some admitting and some denying it, but all arguing from the assumption that high profits for the manufacturer means necessarily high wages for the men. A sort of Christian charity, philanthropy, or disposition to "divy up" is assumed. They all know by harsh experience the disposition on the part of the manufacturer to reduce wages when his profits are lessened, and they infer, per contra, a disposition to raise wages when the "boss" is making a "good thing" of it. Yet when convened quietly and dispassionately, and asked if they ever knew of such a case in their own life, they generally scratch their heads and acknowledge manfully they never saw it in actual practice. The protection doctrine, too, of "building up the country" exercises a mysterious effect on their imaginations, which they never can set forth palpably in words.

In these discussions between workingmen, though often long and earnestly carried on, I have observed the most admirable good temper among the men, frequently relieved with truly pungent sallies of wit as well as pithy apothegms of political economy. Not long ago a workingman in my hearing expressed his views as to what determined the wages of labor thus: "It is the man at the door that sets the wages of the man at the bench." I thought it very neat, but it may not have been original.

Any man grossly deceives himself who supposes the American workingman is not thinking on economic questions, especially on the tariff. It may be loose, vague, illogical thinking, but there is much scratching of heads and turning over of ideas among these men, and they are beginning to doubt the efficacy of protection for them personally. Along with this is a most healthy growing distrust of the boss's views on such questions. E. L. M.

South Chicago, January 5, 1888.

THE ORGANIZATION OF THE HOUSE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I am a constant reader and admirer of the independence of your paper, and, being an ex-member of Congress, I take a deep interest

in your discussion of the difficulties of a prompt organization of the House of Representatives. I thought, when a member of Congress, and I think yet, that the Speaker should not have the autocratic power of appointing the committees, but he should have some control thereof. I thought that the fairest and most expeditious mode of selecting the committees would be for the majority of the House to elect the Speaker, the Chairmen of the Committees on Ways and Means, Appropriations, and Judiciary, and that these four should on the next day select the chairmen of all the other committees, and, in case of a tie among the four, the Speaker should have another vote; that the Speaker and the chairmen thus selected should at once select their members of the majority party for each committee; that the minority of the House should select the men to stand first of the minority on the Committees of Ways and Means, Appropriations, and Judiciary, and that these three should the next day select the members of the minority to stand first on each of the other committees, and that the members so selected should select the members of the minority party to serve on the other committees. This could be arranged by the rules. EX-MEMBER.

MEMPHIS, TENN., January 2, 1888.

RING-GROWTH IN TREES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The discussion on the question of the age of the Sequoias has brought up the question of the truthful record of age as indicated by so-called annual rings. While the former question is one of curiosity, the latter is one of decidedly practical importance, as its answer may affect the property rights of any citizen who is unfortunate enough to have to rely for the boundary lines of his land claims on the blazes with which a backwoods surveyor has marked the course of the survey lines. For, as is well known, the courts have had often to decide the priority of a survey, and therefore title to land, solely upon the evidence of a surveyor's overgrown mark, made a certain definite number of years ago, the "annual" rings deciding the time of survey.

It is, then, of great importance to the community that the subject should not be lightly or, without very sufficient basis, authoritatively discussed; it is desirable that, without overwhelming evidence, the belief in the accepted theory should not be disturbed. This accepted theory claims that wherever the seasons are determined by decided changes of temperature, and consequent rest followed by reawakened vegetation, such changes are marked by the formation of annual rings—that is to say, the cell elements constituting the wood formed in the first few weeks of awakening activity in the spring differ in form and appearance from those formed later in the season. That the same effect in a smaller degree may be expected from other alternating checks and resuscitation of vegetative activity, is but natural; such climatic disturbances as droughts followed by rainy seasons, or even the defoliation from some cause early in the season, with consequent recovery of foliage, will produce a similar appearance in the arrangement of cell elements to that which characterizes the annual ring.

The counting of an excessive number of rings during a given number of years, which is reported from the fitful climate of Nebraska, is, therefore, not surprising. But it also reveals, probably, a prejudice against the accepted theory, or a love for new discoveries and a lack of sharp observation on the part of the reporter; or else the less distinct appearance of the intermediary rings and their characteristic discontinuity, if followed around the section, would have been noticed. Having myself had occasion, for purposes of forest-scientific investigations, to count the rings of many hundred sections of trees, I may be presumed to know something of the difficulty sometimes experienced in determining the annual as distinct from secondary rings. Yet, so far, no evidence has come before me which would shake my belief in the accepted theory upon which the whole scientific system of German forestry is practically based.

To allay all doubts, the Forestry Division of the Department of Agriculture is collecting material upon which to decide this very important question, and seeks the coöperation of all those who are in position to forward sections of trees with well-authenticated record. It may be of interest also to state that as trees of positively known age are probably rarely cut, and as the height at which they are cut may leave from two to five years' growth untouched, and thus lead to discrepancies, other records must also be made use of. For instance, a short time ago I read, from a section of a hickory tree sent in, its life history, which was afterwards confirmed by inquiry, the rings revealing that nineteen years before it was cut, having grown in the dense shade of the forest, an overgrowing neighbor had been removed, but in three years' time another neighbor had taken possession of the empty space above and set back the hickory; the season of 1879 was marked as unfavorable, and in 1875 a sudden change of conditions—found to be the clearing of a field, by which the tree was placed in full enjoyment of light—was unmistakably indicated.

Hoping that these statements will prove of sufficient interest to be presented to your readers, and may engage their coöperation in supplying evidence for or against the theory of annual rings, I am, very respectfully,

B. E. FERNOW,
Chief of Forestry Division.

WASHINGTON, D. C., December 29, 1887.

THE CHEAP LIBRARIES AND ROYALTY COPYRIGHT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Mr. Pearsall Smith has, it seems to me, neglected in his proposition the radical evil which it is the aim of true international copyright to uproot, and upon this point a few words may not come amiss.

One, and not the least, of the objects of the "League" is to put a stop to these unreasonably cheap editions of foreign authors. But if Mr. Smith's plan were to be adopted, these libraries, so called, could continue to publish their books at the same retail price, and reserve to themselves the same profit as before their piracy received its charter, the only difference being that two cents, let us say, upon every copy would be taken from the retail dealer to give to the author. For these twenty-cent books cost the retailer but thirteen cents, so that if the publishing house were to add two cents to the wholesale price, the retailer would still clear twenty-five per cent., and the author would receive but one hundred dollars on five thousand copies of the book which was printed contrary to his wishes, but with his forced consent. CHARLES E. TAYLOR.

NASHUA, N. H., January 1, 1888.

DARWIN ON CLASSICAL STUDIES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Although you have already published an excellent review of the 'Life and Letters of Charles Darwin,' I hope you can find room for the following extracts from the book, as they show Mr. Darwin's opinion of the classics as a means of education. Of the preparatory school at Shrewsbury he says: "Nothing could have been worse for the development of my mind than Dr. Butler's school, as it was strictly classical" (vol. i, page 29). Of the course at Cambridge he says: "During the three years which I spent at Cambridge my time was wasted, as far as the academical studies were concerned, as completely as at Edinburgh and at school" (vol. i, p. 40).

The answers to Mr. Francis Galton's questions concerning his education are particularly emphatic (vol. ii, p. 355):

How taught?	I consider that all I have learnt of any value has been self-taught.
Conducive to or restrictive of habits of observation?	Restrictive of observation, being almost entirely classical.
Peculiar merits?	None whatever.
Chief omissions?	No mathematics or modern languages, nor any habits of observation or reasoning.

In a letter to a relative the following passage occurs:

"To return to schools. My main objection to them, as places of education, is the enormous proportion of time spent over classics. I fancy (though perhaps it is only fancy) that I can perceive the ill and contracting effect on my eldest boy's mind in checking interest in anything in which reasoning and observation come into play. Mere memory seems to be worked. I shall certainly look out for some school with more diversified studies for my younger boys" (vol. i, p. 354).

These opinions of Mr. Darwin should have all the more weight on account of his rare modesty and his over-readiness to give credit to others. They seem to me to be particularly interesting and valuable just now on account of the rabid criticism directed against the liberal and progressive policy of Harvard University.

H. T. P.

POTTSVILLE, PA., January 2, 1888.

GERMAN INSURANCE FOR WORKINGMEN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The suggestive article on compulsory accident insurance for the German laborer in the *Nation* of November 24 is well supplemented by one in the Berlin *Nation* of December 17, which may escape your notice. In substance, the writer (Dr. Th. Barth) says that the laboring classes are either indifferent to the insurance legislation or hostile to it as trenching on their personal liberty. More especially: "Admirers of State Socialism would be greatly embarrassed to furnish evidence that in labor circles, during the past ten years, so much as a finger has been lifted in behalf of this policy professedly so rich in blessings."

In times when one hears so much about the rights of labor and so little of the duties of the laborer, when the air is thick with legislative schemes of the perpetual-motion variety—schemes to get work out of a social machine without putting a compensating amount of energy into it—such facts as Dr. Barth states in regard to social legislation in general cannot be too often repeated. He says: "It has been repeatedly shown that it is impossible to give the laborer legislative assistance except at his own cost. It usually comes to pass in legislation of this kind that the laborer has to pay for all kinds of subsidiary objects, either in personal freedom or in the producing power of his labor." F. ANGELL.

LIEPZIG, December 18.

Notes.

Chas. Scribner's Sons have in preparation 'The Tailor-Made Girl,' society dialogues from *Puck* by Philip H. Welsh; and a study of the conditions in which Mormonism took its origin, by J. H. Kennedy, editor of the *Western Magazine of American History*.

'Shakspere in Fact and in Criticism,' by Appleton Morgan, is in the press of Benjamin & Bell.

T. A. Trollope's 'What I Remember' will be issued in this country by the Messrs. Harper, as will Smiles's 'Life and Labor, or the Characteristics of Industry, Culture, and Genius.' They announce, too, 'Mr. Absalom Billingslea, and Other Georgia Folk,' by Col. R. M. Johnston; and a series of "English Classics for School Reading," edited by Dr. William J. Rolfe.

W. S. Gottsberger announces 'Leon Roch,' a romance by B. Perez Galdós, from the Spanish by Clara Bell, in two volumes, and a new translation of 'Paul and Virginia,' also by Clara Bell.

Thomas Whittaker issues this month 'Readings and Prayers in aid of Private Devotion,' by Bishop Clark of Rhode Island; 'A Manual of Church History,' by Rev. Arthur Charles Jennings, author of 'Ecclesia Anglicana'; and 'An Exposition of the Apostles' Creed,' by the Rev. John Eyre Yonge.

Ticknor & Co., Boston, announce for immediate publication 'Queen Money,' a new novel by the author of 'The Story of Margaret Kent'; 'Looking Backward; 2000-1887,' by Edward Bellamy; 'Under the Southern Cross,' by Maturin M. Ballou; 'Trinity Church, Boston, Mass.,' being the fifth of the "Monographs of American Architecture," a portfolio containing 22 gelatine views and 1 heliochrome, 13x16 inches; and a 'Decennial Index of Illustrations in the *American Architect and Building News*,' 1876-85.

Henry Stevens & Son, London, issue this month 'Johann Schöner, Professor of Mathematics at Nuremberg: a Reproduction of his Globe of 1523, Long Lost,' etc., with new translations and notes on the globe by the late senior member of the firm, and a bibliography by C. H. Coote of the British Museum.

A new "Library of Philosophy" is to be undertaken by Swan Sonnenschein & Co., London. The first title on the list is 'Sensationalists: Locke to Mill,' by W. S. Hough, Ph.M., of Michigan, who will also produce, by way of introduction to the Library, a translation of Erdmann's 'History of Philosophy,' in three volumes, whose appearance is set down for October. The general editor of the Library is J. H. Muirhead, M.A.

The Century Co. has issued in beautiful form the first volume of the War Papers of its magazine, doing everything to make it attractive which large pages, clear type, good paper, and excellent printing can do. As the papers originally appeared, no chronological order was observed; but in the book form they are so arranged as to make a consecutive history, beginning with the bombardment of Sumter. New papers have been added to the series to supply vacancies and to bind the whole into one narrative, so that a considerable percentage of the volume is new matter. We have frequently expressed our high estimate of the value of the series, and little more can be added except to say that the exceptionally high character has been maintained to the end. The novel scheme of printing side by side the story of battles and movements as told by men of opposite sides who participated in them, was a delicate experiment, but has proved a great success. Union and Confederate soldiers have told their remembrances in a generous spirit, and the presentation of both sides has never degenerated into controversy or lost its dignity. The tone has, in fact, been so cordial that it most resembles that of a group of comrades comparing their memories with mutual respect and good-fellowship.

A Boston lady has induced T. Y. Crowell & Co. to reprint from their Tolstoi volume, 'Ivan Ilyitch,' the short story, "Where Love Is, There Is God Also"—a touching exemplification of "Inasmuch as ye have done it unto one of the least of these my brethren," etc. A pretty tract in white and gold is the result.

A little book by Helen Ekin Starrett (Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.) is called 'Letters to Elder Daughters, Married and Unmarried,' and is full of good advice and wholesome suggestion about housekeeping, home comforts and influences, occupation for women, etc. Two most sensible chapters are entitled respectively, "Household Decoration" and "The Relative Importance of Things." Thoughtful and liberal are those on "Women's Clubs" and "The Superior Woman." Almost the only idea advanced which seems to us mistaken is that of the desirability of banishing from the houses, at any rate of people of moderate income, both cook and cooking. But surely it is better to have "the household fires burn warm and bright" in kitchen as well as parlor; for not only do we want the means of ready hospitality, of consulting private preference, and of giving some individuality to the home-table, but also our daughters need to keep their opportunities for practical education; and then again, in sickness how can we spare the home-kitchen?

Another little book which has come to our notice is 'A Bundle of Letters to Busy Girls on Practical Matters' (Funk & Wagnalls). Miss Grace Dodge has written it and dedicated it to her "Dear Friends and Fellow-members of the 38th St. Working-Girls' Society." As may be inferred from the author's name, and from the title and dedication, it has a practical and not in the least a literary aim. The plain talks in it go straight to the point without mincing matters, and are such as must do a great deal of good to those for whom they are designed. It is hard to particularize any portions when all are so good; still, mention might be made of a chapter on "Men Friends—Prospective Husbands and Wives," and of another on "Marketing and Food." They are clear, forcible, important. In her introduction, the author expresses a wish that her book might lead to gatherings of young women for familiar talks similar to those which she has epitomized in it. It ought to do good, and should be widely disseminated.

We bespeak a wide reading for Gen. Francis A. Walker's paper on "Arithmetic in the Boston Schools" in the Syracuse *Academy* for January. The evil he attacks (and it is by no means local) is very great, and the only way of reducing the makers of text-books to reason is that adopted by the School Board of Boston in its prescriptions as set forth by Gen. Walker. We observe with pleasure that the new volume of the *Academy*, which begins with the February number, is to be enlarged for the third time, with a proper increase in the price of subscription. As the editor truly remarks, "These three successive enlargements may be accepted as an indication that there is a field for just such a journal as the *Academy*, . . . devoted solely to the interests of secondary teachers and their work." The *Academy* offers a prize of fifty dollars for the best essay on "Science in Secondary Schools." "Contestants must confine themselves simply to practical exposition of results sought, and of the means of attaining these results in the school-room." Literary merit will be a subordinate consideration. The essay must not exceed 5,000 words, must be signed with a fictitious name, and must reach the office of the *Academy* not later than March 15, 1888.

The *American Meteorological Journal* for December contains a contribution to the literature of the supposed increase in rainfall upon the Plains, but it cannot be said that it is a contribution to our knowledge of the subject. The author, Mr. Harrington, who is one of the editors of the magazine, finds, by a comparison of two rainfall maps of different dates, that the later one places the lines of equal rainfall further to the westward upon the Plains than the earlier one does, and argues therefrom that the rainfall has increased. He even builds higher upon this foundation of sand, and evolves the rate at which the rainfall of this region is increasing. Had Mr. Harrington been aware that these rainfall maps are but crude generalizations from insufficient and contradictory data, that there is often no good reason, beyond the judgment of the maker, for drawing a line of equal rainfall in one place rather than in another, fifty or a hundred miles away, as is perfectly well known to those who have constructed such maps, he would have displayed more caution in his conclusions. If we add that the maps which he used were the Blodget map, published thirty years ago, and now universally discredited, and the Dennison map, which was published to sell, the worthlessness of his conclusions becomes apparent.

Genealogical Queries for 1888 (Newport: R. H. Tilley) is in the printer's hands.

The *American Annual of Photography and Photographic Times Almanac* for 1888 (Scovill Manufacturing Co.) is a solid volume of 329 pages, with a generous addition of advertisements, not inferior in interest to the text. The illustrations, as in last year's issue, are examples of a variety of "processes," with a promising new photolithograph among them. The frontispiece landscape study, a photogravure by Obernetter of Munich, is an exceptionally fine performance.

Routledge's Almanack for 1888 is a close approach to the indispensable *Whitaker's*, differing from the latter in such a way as to supplement it usefully. Not containing so much matter, its print is larger. The arrangement of its main sections is convenient, being alphabetical, as, Amusements in and about London; Army, Navy, and Reserve Forces; Art of the Year; Banking, Finance, etc.; Colonies and India; Commerce and Trade: Ecclesiastical; Educational and Scholastic Establishments; Foreign Countries, and so on to Science and Sports and Pastimes. The editor apologizes for crudities and errors in a first venture, and asks for corrections. We may notice, then, that Mr. Manning's successor in the United States Treasury has been overlooked, and that Mr. Lamar's second initial is transformed from Q into O.

Recent events give unusual interest to the *Hawaiian Almanac and Annual* for 1888 (Honolulu: Thos. G. Thrum). The preliminary tables are followed by the present Constitution of the Hawaiian Kingdom, "subscribed and sworn to by His Majesty" on July 6, 1887, with its "Whereas, the Constitution of this Kingdom heretofore in force contains many provisions subversive of civil rights, and incompatible with enlightened Constitutional Government," etc. The revolution which led to this is briefly described under the Retrospect for the Year.

The literary articles offer nothing striking this year.

Armand Colin & Cie., Paris, send us the fourth issue of their *Annuaire de l'Enseignement Primaire*, edited by M. Jost, Inspector-General of Public Instruction. It is a plump pocket volume, with abundant statistics. The personnel is particularly well recorded, and we have also a chronological summary of official decrees and other documents pertaining to primary instruction for the school year 1886-87, other decrees in full, list of medallists, prescribed text-books, etc. These sections are followed by contributed articles on sundry topics, such as the Teacher's Position Abroad (part of a series); Overpressure in the Primary School; Recitation in the same; What We See in the Heavens (an illustrated familiar discourse on astronomy); Literary Instruction in the Upper Primary School; Music in the School Course; Geographical Review for the Year; Progress of Science, Obituary, Bibliography, etc., etc. Where in this country should we look for the analogue of this capital little publication?

The latest international yacht contest is commemorated in one of those handsome volumes published on occasion by the Boston city fathers —'A Testimonial to Charles J. Paine and Edward Burgess, from the City of Boston, for their Successful Defence of the *America's* Cup.' The account of the municipal reception to owner and designer of the *Volunteer* in Faneuil Hall is preceded by a very convenient history of the Anglo-American races from that at Cowes in 1851 down. But admirable above all is the rich series of illustrations, mostly photographic, showing the Cup, the *America*, *Puritan*, *Genesta*, *Mayflower*, *Galatea*, *Volunteer*, and *Thistle*, Faneuil Hall decorated for the reception, etc., with portraits of Gen. Paine and Mr. Burgess engraved on steel. This comparison of the craft—in one instance during a race—is very instructive, and we suppose is to be had nowhere else.

Ten more parts of the condensed Universal History issued by Grote at Berlin, under the editorship of Flathe, Hertzberg, Justi, Pflugk-Harttung, and Philippson, come to us from B. Westermann & Co. These numbers, 70-79, deal partly with Vandals, Visigoths and Burgundians, and the German states erected within the Roman Empire, and partly with the Thirty Years' War and the succeeding European epoch. The authoritative text is, as usual, enriched with a large number of authentic engravings, contemporary where possible, and including portraits, facsimiles of official documents, caricatures, etc., battle scenes, manners of the times, coins, armor, maps, etc., etc. The mechanical execution throughout is admirable.

Another first-class work, the 'Allgemeine Naturkunde' (Leipzig: Bibliographisches Institut), we receive from the same American house in Parts 79-107. In these are concluded vol. ii of the Descriptive Geology and vol. i of the Plant Life, while Dr. Friedrich Ratzel's Ethnology is continued, largely with reference to Africa. Here again the illustrations greatly enhance the value of the publication. Among the chromolithographs we remark one showing the autumn coloring on Lake Erie.

The announcement is authoritatively made that there is at length a prospect of a complete and correct edition of the Masora. The firm of Romm in Wilna (publishers of the splendid edition of the Babylonian Talmud recently brought out) have in hand a new edition of the so-called great Rabbinical Bible, to which Dr. Seligman Baer (well known as the colaborer of Prof. Franz Delitzsch in the publication of the best edition of the Hebrew Bible) has undertaken to furnish the Masora. The arrangement adopted will be the same as in Jacob-ben-'Hayyim's edition, with this exception, that wherever a word occurs for the first time, there all that is Masoretic in regard to it will be given; so that, by the help of a Concordance, any particular rubric will be readily traced. The first part of the manuscript is already in the printer's hands. Ever since the sharp review by Dr. Baer of Ginsburg's edition of the Masora, in the fortieth volume of the *Journal* of the German Oriental Society, it has been expected that Dr. Baer would undertake this work. It is generally agreed that Dr. Ginsburg's work is poorly edited, and so unscientifically arranged as to be of little practical use.

Mr. Isaac Myer, 209 S. 6th St., Philadelphia, is about issuing to subscribers 'The Philosophical Writings of Solomon Ben Yehudah Ibn Gebirol, or Avicebron, and their Connection with the Hebrew Qabbalah and Sepher haz-Zohar,' etc., etc. Only 350 copies will be printed, from type.

The land question has never been settled in the case of the Crown peasants of the Transcaucasian territory; and before setting about this important task the Ministry of Imperial Domains decided to investigate extensively the actual economical condition of the peasants on Crown lands in that region. This investigation was undertaken in 1884, and is now completed. It was conducted chiefly by natives of the country who had received special technical instruction, and each settlement was handled separately. The results have been printed at Tiflis in seven huge volumes, containing invaluable materials for the study of life in one of the least known districts of the Russian realm. Among other curious facts thus brought to light are some connected with a community of land which has always been supposed to be peculiar to Slavic and chiefly Great-Russian tribes. But it now appears that the same system, on a higher scale, exists among the natives of Transcaucasia, with a singular tendency to parcel out the land with an eye to the greatest profit of the poorer portion of the community. The "Tens" (*dagi*) are voluntary associations of householders, which are formed either every year or when a fresh partition of the land takes place. They take their land in common and afterwards parcel it out among their members, enjoying the privileges of irrigation together and acting as a unit in the matter of taxes, police duty for the settlements, and so on. As nothing will grow without artificial irrigation, the question of water-rights presented a difficult problem, which the natives have solved by devising a very complicated system of water administration.

—The January *Century* opens the new volume with the usual variety of light and serious prose, but the number itself is an unusually good example of the fixed type, and offers a fair occasion for congratulation upon the character of our most popular magazines. Several articles are of a high order, but among them four at least should be singled out. The Russian paper by George Kennan describes the state of the provincial prisons. The incurable barbarism of the system is well brought out. The degradation in material matters, the cruelty inflicted on such of the prisoners as have mind or feeling to suffer as men or women, and the means of secret communication by the knock and figure alphabets, are the substantial topics. It is not surprising that, as we learn from the press despatches, these pages are blotted out by the Russian censor of the foreign mails. The instalment of the Lincoln biography is concerned with the formation of the Cabinet and the first conferences in the White House about Fort Sumter, and contains several interesting unpublished documents. The economy which should be practised in the matter of food is treated by Professor Atwater, but without any fresh suggestion. The character of Ruskin, whose portrait is the frontispiece of the number, is treated with great frankness and after an heroic fashion by Mr. Stillman, who has little opinion of him as an art critic, but regards his moral and humanitarian nature with what can only be called veneration. His wounds, whatever else may be said of them, are those of a faithful friend, and he publishes a letter written many years ago to him by Ruskin which is an admirable expression of helpful friendship. The paper upon the Catacombs by Dr. Schaff is a good illustration of the circumstances and spirit of early Christianity in the days of its simple poverty; the two sketches of travel in the West are entertaining; and Mr. Cable's novel easily leads the fiction, of which there is sufficient. An interesting letter upon Hawthorne's patriotism concludes the number. This is a list which, if not eminent for literature, is eminent for usefulness.

—The Modern Language Association held its fifth annual Convention in the chapel of the University of Pennsylvania on December 28, 29, and 30. There was present a large delegation representing the leading universities, colleges, and schools of the country. The University of Pennsylvania welcomed the Convention in a reception given the first evening, at which Dr. Pepper, the Provost, made the address, followed by Prof. MacAllister, who discussed the place of modern literature in the education of our time. In the absence of James Russell Lowell, the President, Dr. Garnett of the University of Virginia, Prof. Joynes of the University of South Carolina, and Prof. Morgan Hart of the University of Cincinnati, successively presided at the sessions. A committee was appointed to present a memorial to Congress asking for a remission of taxes on foreign books. Another committee was appointed to organize a phonetic section of the Association. The papers read at the several sessions were —by Prof. Tolman of Ripon College, on the Style of Anglo-Saxon Poetry; by Prof. White of Cornell, on the Modern-Language Seminary System; by Prof. Lang, on the Face in the Spanish Metaphor and Proverb; by Prof. Primer, on Charleston's Pronunciations; by Dr. Wood of Johns Hopkins, on the Brief or Pregnant Metaphor in the Minor Elizabeth an Dramatists; by Prof. Fortier of Tulane University, La., on Louisiana Folk-lore; by Prof. Kroeh of Stevens Institute, on Methods of Teaching Modern Languages; by Prof. Karsten of Indiana University, on Speech Unities; by Prof. Collitz of Bryn Mawr, on the Weak Verbs; by Prof. Sheldon of Harvard, on the Canadian French Dialect in Maine; by Dr. Goebel of Johns Hopkins, on Paul's Principien; by President Shepherd of the College of Charleston, on Macaulay's English; by Prof. Smyth of Philadelphia, on American Literature in the Class-room; by Dr. Bright of Johns Hopkins, on the English Curriculum in the University; by Prof. Elliott of Johns Hopkins, on the Earliest Works on Italian Grammar and Lexicography Published in England. Very great interest was shown in papers that gave the results of original investigations in living dialects, which Prof. Elliott of Johns Hopkins has done so much to promote. The hospitality of the University and the citizens of Philadelphia was characteristic of the City of Brotherly Love. Each day's sessions were relieved by receptions given by the Provost of the University at his residence, by the Uni

versity, the Historical Society, and the Penn Club. The Association is now an established and flourishing institution, whose members represent the best scholarship of the country. Its Contributions enter on their third volume. So successful has been its organ, *Modern Language Notes*, that a Review has been projected to take its place among the leading quarterlies. The next Convention will be held in Cincinnati.

—Mr. H. T. Frueauff writes us from Easton, Pa.:

"Your article on the 'Book Trade in Germany' was exceedingly interesting, both to the trade in general and, no doubt, to your book-buying readers. While reading the review of the *Jahrbücher* article, I wondered whether you had seen and your German readers perused the exceedingly interesting romance called 'Eulen und Krebse,' by August Niemann, commenced in No. 3 of the *Neue Monatchefte des Daheim*. The plot of the story is centred in Leipsic, among the bookmakers and booksellers. Incidentally, a clear and interesting insight into the 'book world' of that greatest of book cities is woven into the story. As far as I know, no book has ever been written in any language with this object in view. No doubt many familiar with the German language will find much to interest them in 'Eulen und Krebse.'"

—Hollingbury Copse is "that quaint wigwam on the Sussex Downs which has the honor of sheltering more record and artistic evidences connected with the personal history of the great dramatist than are to be found in any other of the world's libraries." Thus Mr. Halliwell-Phillipps speaks on the title-page of his latest list of Shakspere rarities. In all former editions his claim is more moderate, saying, instead of "the world's libraries," *south of the metropolis*. This calendar of curiosities, lately printed "for private circulation and presents only," will have a charm for all Shaksperians. It is an octavo of 168 pages, and chronicles 805 memorabilia. The comments of the author add much to their significance. They indicate lines on which, as he remarks, "a large work could hardly fail to be welcome to the student" of Shakspere. His regret is that "the time occupied in gathering together the necessary artistic and literary material has practically excluded the collector himself from the opportunity of making an effective use of his accumulations." We hope better things. Mr. Phillipps is eleven years younger than Gladstone, has not a tithe of his disquiets, can never rest except when hard at work, does all his writing before noon, and some of it before light. He is still good for another *opus magnum*. The two hundred Shaksperian volumes of Mr. Phillipps, with other unique relics, as their possessor maintains, have cost more pains and perhaps pelf than would have been requisite for accumulating fifty thousand modern books on the works of the dramatist. *Ponderentur, non numerentur*. Aside from printed matter, the Hollingbury treasures are of the four following classes: (1.) Early engraved portraits of Shakspere, among which the Droeshout is easily preëminent. (2.) Authentic personal relics, such as the title-deeds of his estates in Stratford and of the Blackfriars theatre. (3.) Documentary evidences respecting his estates and individuals who are connected with his biography, such as autographs of Southampton and Essex, Sir Thomas Lucy, and John a' Combe. (4.) Artistic illustrations of localities connected with his personal history. In this last line neither the Bodleian nor the British Museum has anything worth speaking of. The Hollingbury display is unique aside from that at the birthplace, which owes its own existence to Mr. Phillipps.

—Our copy of Mr. Phillipps's curiosity Calendar, coming through the Post-office, was detained there till a customs duty was paid. But this book, like a hundred others by the same author, and a majority of those imported by American specialists, would never be reprinted in the United States. The tax then protects no American industry, unless perhaps the salary of here and there a customs officer who arbitrarily, at the port of landing, marks by guess the amount of duty. We say "arbitrarily," for on the same work we have sometimes paid a dollar tax and sometimes half-a-dollar. But while this tariff protects nobody, it is a tax on knowledge, and bears hard on our least lucrative profession, that of scholarly specialists. These are the men who send abroad, each in his own department, for the most advanced works—works too far advanced to be popular—and which therefore stand no chance of American republication. The best of these scholars are frequently not salaried professors, and are often hindered from ordering a book subject not only to a tax, but to one imposed at the caprice of an official a thousand miles away, and which, however illegal or unreasonable, they are not likely to get abated. Publishers ought not to be jealous of a little mercy shown to these students struggling to keep abreast of the times. With this view of things it was provided in the United States Postal Laws of 1879 (section 1135) that "collectors of customs may in their discretion remit duties on importations of single copies of books of less dutiable value than one dollar, when such books are intended for the personal use of the addressees." Under this regulation we imported Skeat's 'Etymological Dictionary' as it was published number after number. Many students did likewise, and by their comments they no doubt doubled the sale of American editions when our publishers brought out the completed work. This law worked well in other ways more than we can now speak of. But in 1882 this system was broken up by the Secretary of the Treasury, who "instructed collectors that all books of whatever value, bound in stiff covers, or which are *usually* so bound, should be treated as dutiable at 25 per cent." (Postal Laws of 1882, p. 785.) We first became aware of this change when we sent for the 'Oxford Parallel New Testament,' a sort of Tetrapla that has never been reproduced in this country, and never will be, but which is invaluable, showing at the same time not only the Authorized and the Revised Versions, but the original of both. The book and the postage were costly, but the tariff was the last proverbial peppercorn.

—Mme. Boucicaut, the head of the great Parisian establishment of the Bon Marché, and the widow of M. Aristide Boucicaut, its founder, died last month at the age of seventy-two years, leaving her immense possessions in a manner which calls for special attention. No statement of the actual amount of her wealth has appeared—probably it cannot be even approximately estimated at present, so great is it; but the dispositions she made of it were of corresponding largeness, and deserve the widest admiration. A fortune laboriously and honorably accumulated has been generously scattered in a rain of the most liberal benefits. The Bon Marché, the largest and most successful of the great Parisian houses of which Zola's "Au Bonheur des Dames" was only a type, grew gradually out of the little shop which once occupied a very small part of the vast space now covered by the buildings of the great establishment into which it has developed, under the wise care of the two who began life there as small shopkeepers. Ten years ago M. Aristide Boucicaut died, but the Bon Marché continued to be conducted by the surviving proprietor according to the wise and generous plans that had been perfected during his lifetime, by which the employees, according to their position and the length of their services, shared in the profits of the establishment. About three hundred of these employees, who have gradually been associated with the proprietor, make up the *Société civile*, as it is called, of the Bon Marché. To this *Société civile du Bon Marché* Mme. Boucicaut has left the whole vast establishment, including the buildings and the land upon which they were erected, the whole valued at about $12,000,000. To the various employees of the Bon Marché, whether men or women, divided into classes according to their positions and length of service, she left legacies varying in amount from $200 to $2,000; and to the workmen and women of all kinds employed about the establishment, including mechanics, watchmen, and inspectors, divided also into classes in the same way, from $20 to $200. There are more than three thousand persons of the two classes, and the amount of these legacies alone is much beyond $3,000,000.

—Besides these great sums, she also leaves to the *Société civile* her favorite country residence at Fontenay-aux-Roses near Paris, valued at $200,000, to establish there a convalescent hospital and refuge in old age for the employees, and for its use an additional sum of more than $120,000. Her estate at Bellême, her husband's native place, together with a large sum of money, in all more than $120,000, she leaves for an asylum for the old women, and for the establishment of workshops for the young girls of the place. To two societies for the benefit of young workmen, and one for young workingwomen in Paris, she gives $400,000, and to five charitable associations of artists, musicians, actors, teachers, etc., and also to the "individualités souffrantes de la Presse parisienne," $120,000, in sums of $20,000 to each. Besides making the *Assistance publique* of Paris her residuary legatee, she leaves, beyond all these bequests, for other specified charitable purposes, more than $1,275,000, of which $100,000 is distributed among the "ministres des divers cultes reconnus en France," the Archbishop of Paris, the grand Rabbi of France, the presidents of the consistories of the confession of Augsburg and of the *Église réformée*, and the representative of the orthodox religious interests in Paris. These are not all her objects of interest even among what may be called her public bequests, for her numerous legacies to relatives and friends are not published; but they are enough to show the breadth and intelligence of her sympathies and the liberality of her mind as well as of her heart. It is not strange that there should have been an immediate proposal, upon the publication of this will, which so nobly crowns her life's labors, to erect a monument to Mme. Boucicaut in the square on which the buildings of the Bon Marché front. It was well said editorially in the *Temps* that she had considered not less carefully and ably the good works she left behind her than she had in life the direction of her commercial affairs; and this blending of worldly wisdom and "otherworldly" wisdom, this combination of intelligence of the head and of the heart, certainly deserves a long commemoration in one way or another. The *Temps* does Americans the honor to consider such a disposal of wealth acquired in one generation as an example of republican virtue the like of which has hitherto been witnessed only in America and England. We fear

we have as yet nothing to compare with this example.

— About a year ago M. Henri Bouchot contributed to the "Bibliothèque de l'Enseignement des Beaux-Arts" an admirably clear and concise study of 'Le Livre—L'Illustration—La Reliure'; and now we have before us 'The Printed Book: its History, Illustration, and Adornment, from the Days of Gutenberg to the Present Time,' translated and enlarged from M. Bouchot's volume by Mr. Edward C. Bigmore (New York: Scribner & Welford). The translation is fair to middling, neither better nor worse than the average; although a French sentence like "La maison Hachette, fondée par un des normaliens du mouvement libéral, au commencement du siècle, fut avec Lahure la promotrice du relief ainsi compris et pratiqué," is not adequately represented by this English sentence: "The house of Hachette, founded by one of the normal teachers of the liberal movement, at the beginning of the century, was, together with Lahure, the promoter of relief so inclusive [*sic*] and practical [*sic*]." Yet it is only fair to say that blundering of this sort is not frequent. The enlargement announced on the title-page consists in little more than the addition of a few English illustrations—in the double sense of the word. It would have been well and easy for the English translator to have enlarged the French author's meagre paragraph about commercial binding, the machine-stamped cloth-covering which the English early developed, and in which they are even now excelled only by the best American work. The translator's references to the United States are inadequate and ignorant, but good-natured and well-meaning. The cuts are not as carefully printed as in the original French book. But, making due allowance for these blemishes, 'The Printed Book' is one of the best volumes about the history of bookmaking now accessible in English; perhaps it is not too much to say that it is quite the best, for we do not know where to look for another book covering just the same field. It is to be noted in favor of the translator that he has supplied an index of sixteen columns.

MR. ROBERT LOUIS STEVENSON'S COLLECTED PAPERS.

Virginibus Puerisque, and Other Papers.—Memories and Portraits. By Robert Louis Stevenson. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1887.

These two volumes, with a third, 'Familiar Studies of Men and Books,' already noticed, contain the author's history, not in an explicit and formal way, as if he had deliberately set himself down to a narrative of his life and opinions, but as one may gather in conversation with some frank stranger the incidents and views which make his life and his soul his own. The world is not told, but the reader is allowed some degree of intimacy, or so it seems; and this is the secret of those felicitous essayists, the best fireside companions, who, talking of intellectual things, keep telling us something out of their own life by the way, and win our confidence by giving us their own. Mr. Stevenson is a lover of the old masters of the art, and rambles with the fashion of their gait; one feels often enough that he has not been long from Montaigne's company, or that he has left Hazlitt in the lane, as indeed he acknowledges, with a certain pride in the acquaintance and in the thought that he has studied their air. But the personal element, his own individuality, is there, too, and gives to these little papers, in spite of their remarkable unevenness in literary quality, the physiognomy of the author, as boy and man. He has one great characteristic of the good autobiographer in the fact that he is very interesting to himself; the things most closely connected with his own doings hold the next place; and everything else comes far behind. Those youthful papers which deal with generalities of life, are not to be used in denial of this preoccupation; youth is not less self-absorbed because it does not know enough to be specific. In his warm vindication of the claim of the young man to be as wise in his own generation as the declining Psalmist in his, and in the whimsies and paradoxes which he revolves about the subject of marriage in the very spirit of literary mischief, the self-assertion is only a lower degree of a decent kind of bumptiousness. He meant to present in these something that he could call "life at twenty-five"; but he grew old too soon to commit the deed outright, and so we get only a few specimens of his rawness, just enough to give a pleasing smartness to the taste.

Mr. Stevenson announces himself at once as a Scotchman by ancestry and tradition, by landscape, college, and humor, and by a certain physical toughness and wild-weather feeling, hard to define, which is never far to seek in his pages. His fancy, taking a cue from heredity, makes a queer excursion in the sketch of "The Manse," devoted to a kind, sharp portrait of his "minister-grandfather," in which he goes hunting for half-a-dozen of his ascendants in his own instincts and impulses, and knows not whether it is more strange that he should carry about with him some fibres of the old man, or that there was in the cool old clergyman an "aboriginal frisking of the blood that was not his," and that the primeval one, "Probably Arboreal (scarce to be distinguished from a monkey), gambolled and chattered in the brain of the old divine." It pleases him to be humorous about it, but he tells his ancestry on both sides, with interest in their lives and just pride in the stock. His memoir of his father has a clear truthfulness and honesty in it, and a certain solemnity which sets it apart curiously from the other papers; and there are no more pleasing passages than those which describe his vacation at the island of Earraid, when his father and uncle were building the light at Dhu Heartach, or which elsewhere show him as his father's son.

In depicting the characters of others who stood about him in his boyhood he not only succeeds in making them lifelike, but he lends his own appreciation to our eyes, and we see them by the help of his memories and associations. They are Scotchmen of the type known through the world. None is better than the figure of Robert Hunter, once Sheriff of Dunbarton, but "whether originally big or little" is more than the youth could guess. At the first knowing he was "all fallen away and fallen in; crooked and shrunken; buckled into a stiff waistcoat for support; troubled by ailments which kept him hobbling in and out of the room; one foot gouty; a wig for decency, not for deception, on his head; close-shaved, except under the chin, and for that he never failed to apologize, for it went sore against the traditions of his life." Two stories are told of him, not to be passed over, one, that, being a moderate in religion, he was much struck by a conversation between two young lads, revivalists. "'H'm,' he would say, 'new to me, I have had—h'm—no such experience.' It struck him," adds Mr. Stevenson, "with a solemn philosophical interest that he, a Christian as he hoped, and a Christian of so old a standing, should hear these young fellows talking of his own subject, his own weapons that he had fought the battle of life with, and—'h'm—not understand.'" The other story springs from his fondness for Shakspere, of whom he was very fond, "but *Othello* had beaten him: 'that noble gentleman, and that noble lady—h'm—too painful for me.'" This is very charming characterization, and when passages like these are found in a book, they will endear it though they be few. But in one single essay the author has drawn a sketch of the general Scotch nature, especially as contrasted with the English, in country, education, and temperament, which within its limits is as speaking a bit of national portraiture as one will meet with in a twelvemonth. Englishmen, he says, don't know Scotland and don't care to know; they are as indescribably ignorant of the sister kingdom as of foreign countries; and by contrast the Scotchman's wonder at England as a land of the south, an Italy to his Switzerland, with warmth and populousness, and a fuller and softened civilization, and the earth made habitable for a more refined race, is brought home with an ingenuousness not far removed from pathos.

But all this, delightful as much of it is, is no more than the atmosphere of these recollections and meditations, and is incidental; the subject of the story is really Mr. Stevenson, the romancer. He was born so, to dream for himself in boyhood, and after a time for the world. These volumes are full of anecdotes of early days, records of lonely hours and the moments that are remembered in sensitive persons as experiences, hours of friendship and days of adventuring, and many a tell-tale mood over books and in the face of life. Yet there is no obtrusive forwardness in the confessions, and, after finishing the reading, perhaps one does not remember very much that is worth keeping fresh, does not seem to know a great deal about events and persons such as would fill the stage in a biography, but he does feel that he knows the author very well indeed. Of one thing he is certain, and that is that Mr. Stevenson became a romancer as the grass grows. The glimpse of his childhood in his delightful paper upon the "Penny Plain and Two-pence Colored," that is, on the juvenile play-books for the toy theatre; the chapter upon a certain graveyard, between a prison and a hotel, and overlooking screaming railways, line on line, where, he says, "in the hot fits of youth I came to be unhappy"; the landscapes, the rock or shore or moorland which were always calling to his brain to restore to them their story; the sheep-dogs and the Pentlands; the nooks seen and remembered from the windows of railway carriages in foreign lands; the journeyings on foot with health, and the happiness of slow dying at Mentone—all these things are of a piece: whether normal or morbid, they are the stirrings of the imagination in youth. There is felt, too, incessantly the strong contact of life on the pulses and nerves, as well as its touch on the brain. In some degree the purely physical, the athletic side, seems dwelt on with an excess of fulness: particularly in what are easily distinguished as the essays of "life at twenty-five," there is the note of youth in the eulogy of living and in the doctrine to obey the impulse, cost what it will, and not to be afraid of Pan. An open, hearty nature, daring, and sentimental, and sound, anxious—perhaps over-anxious—to have its share in life, greets us from the pages, and makes us acquainted with the young man before he became an author in his own right, and was still making strong friendships with books, not always the best, one thinks, but always sincere. He tells us what six of these have lasted, and are the inner circle of his intimates now: Scott ("one or two" of the novels, but we trust this

is a low estimate), Shakspere, Molière, Montaigne, 'The Egoist,' and the 'Vicomte de Bragelonne.' The list is one that provokes inferences, but let the reader draw them for himself; we have had our say once upon Mr. Stevenson's critical faculties, and once is quite enough. Now, his tastes are of interest as a merely personal matter. Evidently the reader of these six—shall we say men or books?—is most deeply interested in human character, in the play and the power of life; and from his remarks in this "Gossip on a Novel of Dumas's" and elsewhere it appears that he writes adventure because he enjoys incident and romance, and the picturesque in setting and action, just as genuinely and as unabashedly as when he was a boy and "a Jacobite would do," but "give me a highwayman and I was full to the brim."

It would be a pity if one of this literary temperament should not stand up and declare the faith that is in him and in mankind that a good story is a thing to be loved, though it grew up with as little regard to what is usual in life as Jack's beanstalk had for what is usual in beanstalks. Mr. Stevenson was a romantic boy; but just as maturity steals over the page, calming that turbulence of animal spirits and taming into a more becoming fashion the forward and somewhat pert rhetoric of the "twenty-five-year-older," so the romantic boy, with his starts and his enthusiasms and his "hot fits of youth," is slowly transmuted into the artist by that brooding of experience upon his life which now seems thought and again insight. He has a wide range of reflection, and his curiosity has travelled in many fields; but over and above that, helpful as it is, he likes to deal directly with the thing itself, and in his romance-reading and romance-writing he has come to an understanding for himself as to why men like to be entertained for an Arabian night, and why he plays the part of the entertainer, and neither the audience nor the showman is ashamed. It is a play, we know, that has run for a thousand and one nights, and it will still be going on when for him and for us all the lights are out; and what is the secret? It is not life; it is the art of depicting life. Mr. Stevenson knows and explains the difference between these two things, which cannot be confused, except through wilfulness or blindness, by any one who has tried his hand and got beyond the initial point of ignorance. He has many admirable sentences struck clear with the die of the workman who knows the craft in its intellectual laws as well as in its mechanical execution, by his mind as well as his hand. "A person or a character," he says, "is so much the better depicted as it rises clearer from material circumstance." He advises the young writer "in this age of the particular to remember the ages of the abstract, the great books of the past, the brave men that lived before Shakspere and before Balzac; and, as the root of the whole matter, let him bear in mind that his novel is not a transcript of life, to be judged by its exactitude, but a simplification of some side or point of life, to stand or fall by its significant simplicity."

All this was written before the issuing of the monthly encyclical from a leading novelist, and therefore Mr. Stevenson adds a special postscript with reference to him who has made himself the challenger in the lists—"one well worthy of mention, Mr. W. D. Howells; and none ever couched a lance with narrower convictions. His own work and those of his pupils and masters singly occupy his mind; he is the bond-slave, the zealot of his school; he dreams of an advance in art like what there is in science; he thinks of past things as radically dead; he thinks a thing can be outlived—a strange immersion in his own history! a strange forgetfulness of the history of the race!" And then, with well-chosen words of compliment, in which he takes the view advanced also in these columns long ago that Mr. Howells succeeded better in the days when he still tolerated his own imagination, he closes the volume of 'Memories and Portraits' with which this notice has principally been concerned, because it is the maturer and the richer of the two beyond any comparison, except of ripe with green though reddening fruit. The book itself is most attractive in its temper, most interesting in its personal anecdotes and touches of sentiment and enthusiasm, thoughtful when it touches upon serious things, and always entertaining; but most of all it gives pleasure by that indescribable intimacy which is the charm of its autobiographical passages.

THE DALMATIAN SHORE.

Dalmatia, the Quarnero, and Istria, with Cettigne in Montenegro and the Island of Grado. By T. G. Jackson, M.A., F.S.A., Honorary Fellow of Wadham College, Oxford, architect, author of 'Modern Gothic Architecture.' 3 vols. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan & Co.

It would be hard to name a people who have followed the path of progress over more obstructions than the population which lines the eastern shore of the Adriatic. They have but a narrow strip of coast, sloping down from the crest of the Illyrian Alps to the sea, here a mile wide, there expanding to a score or two. The land is inhospitable—white and stony, with patches of thin soil and scanty vegetation, and ill supplied with water. Its one natural advantage is in its indented shore line, on which lie nearly all the good harbors of the Adriatic, with spots of lowland or practicable slopes for the lodgment of towns, and bold and land-locked anchorages, joined by long reaches of quiet water which the outlying islands shelter from the waves of the open sea.

It is to her harbors and not to her lands that Dalmatia has owed what prosperity she has had. Greek and Roman maritime colonies founded her cities; their flourishing time was that of the Roman Empire; their interval of good fortune in the middle ages was when they were allowed, and were content, to carry on their commerce quietly under the guardianship of Venice. Such revival as they have had in our day has come with the order maintained and the commercial activity stimulated under the too paternal government of Austria. No communities ever had more need of tranquillity and union against outside aggression; but these conditions have been lacking since the fall of the Roman Empire. Union they have never sought; tranquillity they have never maintained. Cities as close as Trau and Spalato, when not forced into union by pressure of common enemies, could not get along without flying at each other, and outside aggression was never wanting. The barbarian invasions of the seventh century swept away the accumulations of Roman civilization. When the wasted cities began to recover, what with the equivocal protection of the Byzantine Empire, the maritime jealousy and encroachments of Venice, the depredations of pirates, the aggressions of Servia, Croatia, and Bosnia, the long arm of the kings of Hungary, the incursions of Saracens and Turks, the wonder is that any commerce and any opportunity for growth were left. Indeed, the history of these cities is a catalogue of invasions, spoliations, destructions by foreign enemies or vindictive friends, varied by quarrels between city and city, and the natural calamities of fire, pestilence, and earthquake.

To their difficulties of position has been added the embarrassment of a dual nationality. In Roman days the population was comparatively homogeneous, and after the cities had been swept away by the Avars and Slavs, the men who rebuilt them were still the old Latin or Dalmatian race, Italian by instinct, education, civilization, and language. To our day in most of the towns the Latin element has preponderated. From Italy have come their arts, their forms of government, their dress, their jurisprudence. They have spoken the Italian tongue, imported their teachers, their architects, many of their rulers and clergy, from Italy. On the other hand, the Slavs—Croats and Serbs—who from the tenth century have had possession of the interior, soon crowded about the cities, filtering into the population, and becoming a more or less considerable element of it, and, in the most southern of them, Ragusa and Cattaro, even becoming predominant. Yet they have by preference occupied the outlying territory of the various cities, living as peasantry on the ridges and slopes behind and between them. These two elements have survived side by side and distinct—the Latins, assimilated to the people of western Europe in civilization, the progressive, constructive part of the population, cosmopolitan in feeling, bearing the burden of commerce, civilization, and law; the Slavic, affiliated to their inland and eastern neighbors, intensely national, picturesque, martial, turbulent, providing apparently most of the hot water in which their country has spent its life.

Under these conditions the cities of the Dalmatian coast have kept up their struggle for existence during a thousand years. Their history has been insignificant because, with a genius for disintegration equal to that of the ancient Greeks, they have never even attempted to form a nation. Yet this history is made interesting by their unflagging effort to keep each by each their independence. Unable to stand alone, joined mostly to Venice by their common commercial instinct and by her preponderance, they were constantly snatched from her by some powerful neighbor, or revolting and shifting from one power to another as either seemed to give them better protection or more freedom, always with an eye to their own autonomy. Ragusa alone succeeded in maintaining herself apart as a curiously aristocratic republic from the beginning of the fifteenth century till Napoleon snuffed her out at the beginning of the nineteenth; and after him, like the others, she fell under the power of Austria.

The details of this history are abundantly set forth in Mr. Jackson's volumes. It is a tangled story, the product evidently of laborious research. If it errs, it is on the side of fulness. The general narrative is necessarily condensed, and the details overload it, at some cost of clearness and emphasis. But, for a pioneer history, this is to err on the right side. The plan of the book, including a general sketch of the country and its history, followed by an itinerary and detailed study of the principal towns, leads necessarily to some iteration, which, however, is no disadvantage to a reader who is not impatient, for it tends to fix and accentuate his recollection of a difficult and intricate subject. The art of Dalmatia and its neighbors takes most of Mr. Jackson's attention. It is pretty much all in the keeping of the Church, or rather churches (for the Latin and Greek churches divide the population between them), and is mainly architecture, though with a good store

of church furniture and the indispensable relics; the silversmith's work being especially noteworthy. It is described with an intelligent, even professional, minuteness which makes it the most thorough account of Dalmatian art that can be found, we believe, and will yield great satisfaction to readers whose interest has been stimulated by Mr. Freeman's suggestive sketches.

The art of this country is almost as intricate a study as its history. The Roman architecture is, of course, perfectly distinct; but except the remains at Spalato and at Pola, which are well known, scarcely anything exists, and nothing of importance. Eitelberger, indeed, in his book on the monuments of Dalmatia, argues *à priori* that the possession of abundant remains of Roman work must have had great effect in giving form to later Dalmatian architecture, and maintains also that "one finds everywhere, even in the mediæval buildings, the influence of the Roman prototypes"; but except for Spalato, where by an unparalleled chance the Roman structures have been preserved and used to this day, the published examples seem to us to show no more traces of Roman influence than lingered everywhere in the south of Europe. Our impression is that the Church of the monastic epoch, the mother of mediæval architecture, looked upon Roman buildings with abhorrence, and the singular way in which the great Church of San Donato at Zara is built on random heaps of Roman fragments contemptuously tossed together into foundations, seems to show that there was no reverence for it at that time in Dalmatia. That time was apparently the beginning of the ninth century; and there are no older monuments of Christian art in Dalmatia itself. For pure early Byzantine work we must look to Istria, where the well-known basilica of Parenzo is quite worthy of a place in Ravenna.

The succeeding period of Byzantine rule has left only a few rude later churches like San Donato, records of the efforts of an impoverished people to renew their worship. The more ambitious architecture begins with the transfer of sovereignty to Venice in the twelfth century, when a new season of prosperity had set in. The Dalmatian towns retained something of Byzantine detail in all their later building; but the intermittent supremacy of Hungary, and the admixture, in some towns the predominance, of a Slavic population, introduced other influences, so that the art of Dalmatia as it comes down to us is an intricate compound of Byzantine, Italian, German, and Slavic elements. As the chief civilizing influence was that of the Latin half of the population, and as the prevalent sovereignty, on the whole, was that of Venice, so the prevailing character of the architecture is always Italian, and yet it is often not Venetian. The Cathedral of Zara, consecrated in 1285, when Venetian influence was paramount, has a façade that might almost have been imported from Pisa or Lucca, and a plan that might be Lombard or German; the Cathedral at Sebenico is of two periods of almost pure Venetian architecture; that at Trau, built chiefly by a Florentine bishop under Hungarian rule, has a porch of very Tuscan character, perhaps the most beautiful architectural feature in Dalmatia, while the eastern end is so German as to provoke Mr. Jackson to parallel it with the church at Ják in Hungary. The great bell-tower at Spalato, built also by the Hungarians, is a curious mixture of Romanesque and belated classic, although ascribed to the fourteenth century. The adjoining cathedral, which is well known as one of the temples, or more probably the mausoleum, of Diocletian's palace, has a pair of magnificent doors, and a rich pulpit of pure Romanesque work, which elsewhere one would unhesitatingly assign to the twelfth century, but the doors bear date 1214; the choir-stalls, which Mr. Jackson classes with them, are backed with a lattice of spool-work apparently copied from Cairo. Indeed, what with the eclectic habits and shifting rulers of the Dalmatians, who had no native artistic traditions, and the modifying tendency to cling to old forms which belongs especially to provincial peoples, the chronological order of Dalmatian art is exceedingly hard to follow. There is, on the whole, in the larger work less of Byzantine character than we might look for; but in the fittings of the churches, in the carvings and smaller objects, and most of all in the silversmith's work, it is recognizable at all periods.

Mr. Jackson has excellent qualifications for his work. He is a scholar, understands the languages which bear on the work, and has the instinct of research, as well as, we should think, good historical judgment. He is an architect, knowing the history of art and of styles, and an admirable draughtsman. How good a draughtsman he is may be seen by comparing some of his drawings, which are facsimiled in his book, with plates of the same subjects in Eitelberger's 'Dalmatia,' and in that writer's contributions to the 'Kunstdenkmale des Oesterreichischen Kaiserstaates.' We notice some differences which illustrate the unaccountable variations of testimony that appear between apparently careful witnesses even where the original fact must, it would seem, be perfectly definite; in these cases Mr. Jackson's drawings, it is fair to say, carry the greater appearance of veracity. He writes simply and agreeably. The slight story of travel which unites his architectural descriptions is fresh and entertaining, without being obtruded, and he has a knack of using words that set forth with happy distinctness the impression or form he wishes to present.

This book, and Mr. Butler's 'Coptic Churches,' which we noticed some time ago, are contributions of real value to history in little known fields of architecture and its kindred arts. The growing interest of Englishmen in the Levant makes them timely. Mr. Freeman's enthusiasm had already lent attraction to the towns of Dalmatia. In the light of Mr. Jackson's pictures, one wonders how long it will be before the fleet of English yachts that rove about the Mediterranean will find out the charms of her inland waters and picturesque coast, and the English tourist be busy raising the prices and spoiling the wines of her inns.

THE ANTE-BELLUM SOUTH.

Memorials of a Southern Planter. By Susan Dabney Smedes. Baltimore: Cushings & Bailey.

Southern Silhouettes. By Jeannette H. Walworth. Henry Holt & Co.

Thomas Smith Dabney, the memorials of whose life are presented as above by his daughter, was born of a well-known Virginian family in 1798, was reared and educated after the Virginian manner of the time, won local prominence early in life, and was so highly esteemed by his neighbors that when, in 1835, he decided to emigrate to Mississippi, it is easy to see, even at this distance, through the grotesque rhetoric of the orators at the dinner given in his honor, that there was sincere sorrow in the community that so good a man should go away. And his friends in Mississippi had reason to congratulate themselves (and the State, which was never forgotten on congratulatory occasions) that so upright a man had come among them. He bought a plantation there, whereto his family and slaves were removed; and there they made their home till the slaves were freed and the fallen fortunes of the family scattered its members. Mr. Dabney was a brave man in his poverty, and a charming dignity crowned his old age. His last years were spent with his daughters in Baltimore, where he died in 1885.

The life of a Southern planter that covered so long a period gives a chance for as interesting a picture of old Southern manners as the writer of any recent book has had. And in truth there is in this volume nothing of the straining after something "typical" of that old life with which readers of books nowadays who know something of what old Southern life was, have become painfully familiar. Mrs. Smedes's own recollections, and the facts got from friends and kinspeople and from letters, are material in abundance, and the career of her father was sufficiently "typical" to satisfy the most insatiate yearning for types. She tells the story of his life well enough to make a good sketch of the man, who was worth knowing on his own account, and a good picture of Southern civilization in the time of slavery. All who are interested to get a knowledge of what that civilization was, will find this one of the most helpful of recent books, and for this reason it has even an historical value.

But its value is less than it would have been if Mrs. Smedes had been able to rid herself of the feeling that, incidentally at least, she must vindicate the slaveholder (to use a word of the politicians). A Southern critic must ask leave here to remind other Southern writers than Mrs. Smedes that, from a literary point of view and for all the healthful uses of literature, vindication, in this sense, is a simple confession of narrowness of artistic vision. Throughout this volume, for instance, grotesque emphasis is laid on the fact that Thomas Dabney was a kind master, and that most Southern masters were kind. The reader would find relief if one brute should come into view who took his pastime with horsewhips and bloodhounds. Yet no one could read the record of such a life as this and imagine that the man was a cruel master; and nobody now needs to be informed that all Southern planters did not maltreat their slaves, or even that the maltreatment of slaves brought discredit on a man. It is a misfortune that Mrs. Smedes has recollection of the controversial aspect of subjects she must touch, for this controversial tradition makes a bad artistic blemish in an interesting narrative. The result is, she uses her chance ill to give the descriptive parts of her book the charm that every book descriptive of that life must have, or fail in one important respect—she shows too little appreciation of its cheerful phases or of its humor. The old Southern planter had his full share of dignity in his way, no doubt, but he likewise had a good share of cheerfulness. He enjoyed life keenly and he knew the art of adding to the enjoyment of others. A moralist could even find historical ground for condemning him for his jollity. But tradition, helped greatly by his Southern biographers, has so emphasized his dignity (or his pomposity), even in his pleasures, that one of the cheerfulest types of men we have bred seems likely to be regarded, almost before his mirth is ended, as a man of painful and dangerous dignity. Mr. Dabney surely was a cheerful man, and we are told so in these memorials; but the pages of the book have not caught the joyousness of his life.

While there is no good reason to think that dialect, either of the negro or of the illiterate whites, is necessary for the portrayal of the

cheerful side of Southern life and its humor, yet it is true that, with one important exception presently to be noticed, only those Southern writers who have written in dialect, such as Mr. Harris and Mr. Thomas Nelson Page, or about gawky countrymen, of whom Mr. Richard Malcolm Johnson is easily the best, have made true descriptions of ante-bellum manners. For some reason, whether a lack of humor or a desire to "vindicate" somebody be the true reason or not, those who have set out to write serious books have ended by writing very solemn ones; and Mrs. Smedes has fallen, even if not deeply, into this pit. Mr. Dabney was not a great man, nor does she say that he was, but she tells insignificant incidents of his life in a way that tempts you to remind her that he was not a great man, and to ask her whether he were not sometimes undignified, or even frivolous.

Nor are there glimpses enough of the life about him. Little is said of his neighbors, and nothing of what they did or what they thought. Insight is seldom given into the influences that shaped his life, and, but for the geographical names, the book might be about an Australian instead of an American. There is an insufficient background, and this lack leaves a feeling of incompleteness. In 'Uncle Remus,' for instance, one meets "Miss Sally," and becomes aware of the sparsely settled country, the occupations of the different classes of people, and the very furniture of the cabin. The range of the thought of the white folks is reflected in the old man's rhetorical figures, and the little boy that listens shows, by his occasional questions, all the characteristic influences of life in the "big house." There is nothing analogous to this in these 'Memorials.' The man is removed from the people about him, and, instead of getting an insight into life on a Mississippi plantation, the reader is puzzled to know how so sympathetic and kind a man had so little to do with his neighbors. Few persons are met in the book other than the members of his family and the distinguished men he entertained.

The very quality that Mrs. Smedes's 'Memorials of a Southern Planter' lacks is the distinguishing quality of Mrs. Walworth's sketches. 'Southern Silhouettes' is not a narrative nor a description that has the unity of a biography, but a group of pictures of more or less heterogeneous phases of old Southern life, written to be read one at a time as they appeared in the *Evening Post*. This volume, therefore, lacks something of the serious value and of the serious purpose of the other; but it lacks also the other's solemnity. The pictures are clearly and daintily drawn, and they are truthful even in their humor. The reader becomes acquainted with the whole neighborhood, and the neighborhood was the unit of Southern life, and yet is. There is no interesting person within the acquaintance of the people in the book who does not find occasion, naturally if not always gracefully, to come within the circle of the reader's knowledge. As sketches, these 'Silhouettes' come as near to the carrying out of Mrs. Walworth's purpose as sketches can; and her aim, as she explains it, is, as "one who was part and parcel of the old order of things in the South," to "put on record the story of a day that is dead."

THE ORIGIN OF MYTHS.

Myth, Ritual, and Religion. By Andrew Lang. Longmans, Green & Co. 1887. 2 vols. 8vo, pp. xvi, 340; vii, 373.

THE work before us is the last stage of a series of brilliant studies scattered through periodical and encyclopædia, some of which have been collected in 'Custom and Myth,' and all of which are links that the deft hand of the writer has here forged into a strong and compact chain of argument. A subject of the most serious thought, which has occupied the attention of philosophers and scholars for centuries, is here treated in the most serious manner, but with that remarkable clearness and literary skill, characteristic of the author, which makes these volumes delightful as well as profitable reading.

The object of the work is no less a one than to account for some of the peculiar features of religion and mythology which have puzzled man from the moment he began to reason at all about these matters. The cruel, obscene, and wholly irrational elements which abound in mythology have been explained in various ways from the time of Socrates down, but no system, until Mr. Lang's, has been invented which is of universal application, or which is not inconsistent with itself. The symbolical and the philological methods of interpretation have found most favor in our day, and the latter has been peculiarly fortunate in having for its advocates such scholars as Max Müller, Kuhn, Cox, and De Gubernatis, who have presented the results of their studies in a form attractive to a wide circle of readers. Neither method has produced satisfactory results. The partisans of the philological system of explanation are not agreed among themselves on the most fundamental principles; they resolve all mythology into a description of the phenomena of nature; but while some are inclined to consider the recurrence of day and night as the phenomena in question, others make the strife of the elements the basis of myths. This system, besides being of limited application (the myths of the Aryan peoples alone lending themselves to the comparative philological method), is full of absurdity when carried to its logical results. The "solar myth" theory has been applied in turn to the general mythology of the Aryan peoples, to their epic poetry and popular tales (Cox), and, finally, to their zoölogy and botany (De Gubernatis); but in some of its fields the theory has utterly broken down before the light of recent discoveries, and the inconsistencies of which it is guilty at its best long ago brought it into disrepute among scholars.

The system propounded in Mr. Lang's work, like all others, reflects the spirit of the age. Just as the philological method grew out of the revival of the study of language caused by the rediscovery of Sanskrit by European scholars in the early part of this century, and the establishment of the comparative method by Bopp, so Mr. Lang's theory is the outcome of the modern method of anthropological study, which has already borne good fruit in the works of Mr. E. B. Tylor. The great difficulty with the older theories was that they supposed that man, in the myth-making stage of his existence, was in an advanced intellectual condition, and for some reason expressed his ideas in the curious terms of mythological allegory. The new theory proposes to show, in Mr. Lang's words, that "the human mind has passed through a condition quite unlike that of civilized man—a condition in which things seemed natural and rational that now appear unnatural and devoid of reason, and in which, therefore, if myths were evolved, they would, if they survived into civilization, be such as civilized men find strange and perplexing."

The first question naturally is, whether there "is a stage of human society and of the human intellect in which facts that appear to us monstrous and irrational—facts corresponding to the wilder incidents of myth—are accepted as ordinary occurrences of every-day life." This stage Mr. Lang finds in the condition of savagery through which man has passed, and it makes no difference whether we consider this condition the primitive one of man or not; it is enough that man has at some time passed through it and retained reminiscences of it in a subsequent more civilized state. In a word, Mr. Lang's theory is "that the savage and senseless element in mythology is, for the most part, a legacy from ancestors of the civilized races who were once in an intellectual state not higher, but probably lower, than that of the Australians, Bushmen, Red Indians, the lower races of South America, and other worse than barbaric peoples." The question why savages entertain the irrational ideas which survive in myths Mr. Lang does not stop to discuss, but briefly remarks that their intellectual powers are not fully developed, and hasty analogy from their own unreasoned consciousness is their chief guide. This important question must some day be met, but as it is more a psychological than an anthropological one, we suspect Mr. Lang's interest in it is less.

We have not space to follow in detail Mr. Lang's argument. He first selects a few peculiarities of savage thought, such as the tendency of the savage to consider himself akin to animals and plants and heavenly bodies, and assign human speech and feeling to them; belief in magic and sorcery; belief in the existence of the souls of the dead and power to conjure them up; the belief that a man's spirit may dwell in a particular part of his frame and be detached and roam about—that death is caused by some hostile spirit or conjurer; and, finally, the spirit of curiosity which leads the savage to account for the world about him. These points Mr. Lang proceeds to prove by a mass of quotations from reports of travellers, missionaries, etc. After he has established these peculiarities of savage thought, he examines in their light the class of nature myths, myths of the origin of the world and of man, and finally divine myths. These various classes of myths Mr. Lang traces first among savage peoples, and then among civilized races, and shows how the same elements are found in all, and often the most remarkable resemblances in point of belief, custom, and ritual.

The evidence is cumulative, and as the reader advances it is impossible to resist the conviction that Mr. Lang's theory is more plausible than any that has yet been offered. Still, it will not do to press it too far. The author is himself aware of its limitations. The myths of many peoples he has not yet investigated, and his theory at best accounts for only a part of mythology. To us the most interesting part of the work is that relating to the question of the origin and diffusion of popular tales, and as this question is just now one of growing interest, we cannot refrain from a brief account of this novel application of Mr. Lang's theory. While the Grimms were collecting their 'Household Tales' they were struck by the resemblance between many episodes in them and in Indo-Aryan mythology, but it was reserved for later writers, notably Cox and De Gubernatis, to make popular tales an integral part of that mythology, generally on the theory that they were the débris of myths. This theory accounted for their diffusion just as for that of the mythology from which they were evolved, by the dispersion of the Aryan peoples. The other theory, finding a striking resemblance between these tales and those of India, concluded that the popular tales of Europe had been brought from India within

historic times, and diffused chiefly through channels of written literature. Both theories have broken down under the discovery that the popular tales of all peoples, Aryan and non-Aryan, civilized and savage, are practically the same (which disposes of the Grimm theory), and that there were popular tales long before there was an historic India, as was shown by the Egyptian tales published by Maspero in 1882, which disposes of the Benfey theory. We say these theories have broken down, we mean as *theories*, for there is doubtless some truth still left in each. That popular tales constitute a class apart, Mr. Lang readily admits: "They do not, like nature myths or divine myths, seek to account for the origin of things. They are romances or novels, and if they do explain anything, it is rather the origin or sanction of some human law or custom than the cause of any natural phenomenon that they expound." While Mr. Lang is not inclined to see in popular tales the débris of his savage mythology, he still thinks they are in the main survivals from a state of savagery, and may to a large extent be explained by the customs of savages. The minute application of the theory to popular tales is not made in the present work, but must be sought in Mr. Lang's introduction to Mrs. Hunt's translation of Grimm's 'Household Tales' (London: C. Bell & Sons, 1884, 2 vols. —the only complete translation of Grimm with the notes of the author), and to that most dainty of books, 'The Marriage of Cupid and Psyche' (London: David Nutt, 1887).

Mr. Lang's conclusions are not very positive. The supernatural *stuff* of the stories, as he says, "the threads of the texture, the belief in the life and personality of all things—in talking beasts and trees, in magical powers, in the possibility of visiting the dead—must, on our theory as already set forth, be found wherever men have passed through savagery and retained survivals of their intellectual condition, and wherever they have borrowed or imitated such survivals." This accounts for the similarity of the material of heroic myths and *Märchen*, but does not account for the similarity of *plot*, nor is the question much advanced by the suggestion that after all there may be no plot. Those who have worked through great collections of popular tales know that the most remarkable thing is precisely the well-defined plot, and the extraordinary resemblance in this respect of all Aryan popular tales. We say Aryan advisedly, for there is no such close resemblance between them and the savage tales. It is very hard to avoid the conclusion that the popular tales of Europe, at least, have come from some original centre, and that most of them were invented only once for all. May there not still be more truth in the Benfey theory than Mr. Lang is willing to admit? May not the popular tales of Europe at least have been powerfully influenced by the introduction of Indian stories, and may not the ruder preëxisting forms have taken on a more orderly shape? Mr. Lang's only conclusion is, that

> "what remains to do is to confess ignorance of the original centre of the *Märchen*, and inability to decide dogmatically which stories must have been invented only once for all, and which may have come together by the mere blending of the universal element of imagination. It is only certain that no limit can be put to a story's power of flight *per ora virum*."

We cannot take leave of these interesting volumes without again expressing our admiration for the scholarship and literary graces of the author. It is too much the fault of the day to neglect all literary style in serious composition. Mr. Lang shows us how to be serious and attractive at the same time.

DR. SAMUEL GROSS.

Autobiography of Samuel D. Gross, M. D., etc., etc., with sketches of his contemporaries. Edited by his sons. 2 vols., 8vo. Philadelphia: George Barrie. 1887.

THE profession of medicine is at a disadvantage in comparison with law and divinity, in that as a rule its disciples deal with units and not with groups or masses of men. The clergyman is constantly before the community, and is, at least in theory, an intellectual leader, a light set on a hill. Much of the lawyer's distinctive work lies in arguments and appeals made in public, and, in this country at least, the highest seats of administrative and executive power are practically reserved for members of the bar. The mechanical professions of architecture and engineering spread the fame of their members by works seen of all men, while journalism and the fine arts, each in its way, appeal to a popular verdict.

It is not so in medicine. A physician's reputation is acquired by the practical result of study as demonstrated on individuals, and under conditions that usually forbid general attention being drawn to it. At the best it is confined to a locality so small that he must have the personal acquaintance of nearly every admirer, and there is no legitimate appeal to the community at large. When the public attempts to gauge medical merit, it frequently misconstrues deportment as erudition, and mistakes the recuperative power of nature or the inevitable course of disease for skill or the absence of it in the physician. It is this working with unknown quantities upon solitary subjects that so limits the renown of medical men. And on this account probably not one reader of these lines in five hundred, not himself a physician, can name outside of his own town one man eminent in medicine to fifty of reputation if not of fame in other walks of life.

Within the limits of his own practice a successful physician is implicitly trusted and greatly beloved, but his hold upon the community is one of affection, like that of an enlarged domestic circle. It is not fame; it fades with him, and at best rarely survives the personal recipients of his service. Nevertheless, in this general neutral tint of professional dulness an infrequent picturesque color greets the eye; out of the ill-defined haze that covers the working multitude of doctors an occasional figure rises to challenge and to receive attention. Within the natural circle of their vicinage those who practise surgery, the branch of medical art that most directly appeals to the senses, become more widely known, and because of the appreciable nature of their exploits the radius of their reputation is the more rapidly and the further produced. The authors of successful professional books acquire esoteric fame that sometimes uncertainly vibrates in the popular ear, but teachers in the lecture-room are still better and wider known, and for a long time their students worship at their shrines. It is chiefly through these willing satellites that the central light is extended.

Notwithstanding the disadvantages enveloping the average practitioner, there are, therefore, a few physicians who acquire both popular reputation and the actual homage of the learned; men whose natural ability, strong character, and efficient worth raise them into the front rank. One of the best illustrations of this happy combination was the late Dr. Gross. Besides domestic honors, he received abroad the D.C.L. of Oxford and the LL.D. of both Cambridge and Edinburgh, and is therefore a conspicuous example of eminence recognized by the schools. Filling in succession chairs in Cincinnati, Louisville, and Philadelphia, he was a public teacher for forty-eight years, a skilful and busy practitioner of medicine and surgery for a still longer period, and during the whole time a constant and careful author, so that, as one of his biographers has written, "it is safe to say that no previous medical teacher or author on this continent exercises such a widespread and commanding influence as did Professor Gross." For the instructive history of his career, his aspirations, his struggles, his success—he appears to have had no real failures—we are indebted to a certain public spirit, and possibly to a pardonable pride in his own achievements as well as to his fortunately facile pen. Conscious that his long and active life might be an example, at the age of seventy he commenced the detailed rehearsal of its course, expressing intercurrently with much candor and considerable shrewdness his estimates of many contemporaries, and noting his views upon many public and social questions by the way. In the form of a diary this was continued until within a few weeks of his death, ten years later, in the spring of 1884.

Dr. Gross certainly was a great man. His strength of character appeared when, at less than fourteen years of age, finding card-playing as an amusement becoming too fascinating, he deliberately resolved not to play for twenty years, and he kept his resolution. Again, after beginning the study of medicine, he satisfied himself that his general education was insufficient, and accordingly he closed his professional books and returned to school. His characteristics were energetic and conscientious thoroughness, and self-reliance based thereon. He appears to have constantly kept in mind the responsibilities of his position, to have carefully prepared to meet them, and then fearlessly to have undertaken whatever presented. By his own estimate the genius he possessed was "the genius of industry"; but he had more than that—he had a strong mind and a good heart, and the two always worked in accord.

When he was not in the front rank, he was ahead of it, as for example in 1843, in his monograph on the 'Nature and Treatment of Wounds of the Intestines,' he foreshadowed the very latest and most successful methods of dealing with those grave injuries—methods that have found a practical expression since his death. His 'Pathological Anatomy,' published in 1839, was the first work of its kind in English, and gave him deserved fame abroad as well as at home. He was a voluminous writer all his days, and it is not flattery to say that every professional paper was so carefully prepared as to be of as substantial and lasting value as the shifting boundaries of medical science allow. For it is the misfortune of such works, in common with those of other sciences, that after death holds the author's hand they remain as guide-posts, not as terminal monuments. Subject to such limitations, his 'System of Surgery,' his greatest work, will be for years authority.

Dr. Gross's fame will rest upon his professional achievements; but this autobiographical deliverance of so active a mind should find many admirers, and in the future will serve as a map of contemporaneous society. Very naturally, his profession is the warp of these sheets, but in the weft are woven many figures where actors and deeds and opinions bearing upon the whole round of modern life appear. Social, religious, and economical views are freely expressed, and it is very interesting to follow the operation of such a mind among these themes. Perhaps the most practically important of these is his judgment of cremation, which is favorable; and by the authority of his will he caused

his own remains to undergo the purification by fire instead of the dishonor of underground putrefaction. A city graveyard he properly styles "a relic of barbarism of the worst kind." Among the many biographical notices and the numerous dates and names introduced we observe no really serious errors, although in a book written by one physician and edited by another, where, as is evident, the proof has been most carefully read, Sternberger should not be allowed to stand for Dr. Sternberg's name. Dr. Gross refers to Macadam, the road-making engineer, as an American citizen, as he believed. Macadam's only connection with this country was a temporary residence, begun in 1770 and terminating in 1783, during the Revolutionary period of which he was a civil officer of the Crown.

Unquestionably Dr. Gross was a man of kind heart and good impulses, and he certainly thought himself considerate towards others, but there are at least two instances where the delicacy that finds its best expression in the Golden Rule was not displayed. In one case he saw for the first time fallen in drunken helplessness a well-known scientist, whom he elsewhere styles "great and good," and who was habitually a temperate man. But he embalms in print this mortifying fault, although the victim has been dead more than fifty years, and the incident had no special relevancy to the narrative. Surely our sins do haunt our memories. Again, he describes in detail the dress of the daughter of a well-known literary man who had accompanied her aged father to a certain assembly, and characterizes it as grotesque, as it certainly was. The lady is living; but, whether alive or not, it was certainly not in good taste to print such references to any woman, not herself seeking notoriety, and judicious editors would have omitted both these remarks.

The book is excellently made in every particular, and the energetic and somewhat aggressive author would be well pleased to see his last literary venture so well presented to the world. Besides giving pleasure to those whose positions are assured, it will probably act, as the writer hoped, "by stimulating the ambition of those who may come after him to work for the advancement of science and the amelioration of human suffering."

Von Luther bis Lessing. Sprachgeschichtliche Aufsätze von Friedrich Kluge. Strassburg: Karl J. Trübner, 1887.

Prof. Kluge, author of the well-known etymological dictionary, here gives us, in brief compass and very readable form, the results of his own careful examination of an interestiug and much mooted question of German philology, namely, the precise indebtedness of modern literary German to Luther and the Reformation. The prevailing tendency has long been to date the new High German standard language from Luther, and to regard him as the creator of it. In opposition to this view, Scherer dated the new language from about 1650, and ascribed the "epoch-making" influence to the grammarians Schottel and Gottsched. He regarded Luther as simply a prominent figure in what he called the "period of transition" from Middle to New High German, that is, the period from 1350 to 1650. Other writers besides Scherer have also endeavored to weaken the prestige of Luther as the creator of modern German. Brandt observes, in his Grammar, that "Luther's share in the establishment of the written language is generally not well stated and often overrated," and further calls attention to the fact that fourteen translations of the Vulgate Bible had been published in High German previous to the year 1518. The work before us, although a mere pamphlet, gives all the data necessary to enable the reader to form an independent judgment with regard to the matter at issue. It is based upon a careful study of old and long-forgotten prints that have been exhumed from public libraries here and there, and are now made to shed their peculiar light upon the linguistic conditions of the sixteenth century. The essays are not controversial in tone, but their whole tenor goes to show that the language now universally known as "German" really is, from an historical point of view, what Grimm called it, a Protestant dialect; and also that the influence of Martin Luther in giving shape to this dialect can hardly be overestimated. We must content ourselves here with indicating very briefly the general course of Kluge's interesting argument.

At the beginning of the sixteenth century there were three great obstacles to be overcome before anything like a national German language could start into existence. In the first place there was the supremacy of the Latin as the language of the Church and of scholarship. The cosmopolitan character of the Church seemed to require an international language, and the Latin not only served this purpose, but had also become in some sense the symbol of the Church's historical dignity. Thus the Church cast its influence in favor of the use of Latin for all literary purposes, and endeavored to foster the idea that the mother-tongue was not only vulgar and barbarous, but not comparable with the Latin as a means of expressing thought. How persistent and vigorous this opposition was, Kluge's quotations show conclusively. When, accordingly, the Wittenberg agitation began, it was Luther's language as well as his ecclesiastical views that drew upon him the hostile attention of the Church. And the reformer threw down the gage of linguistic battle as boldly as he had that of the battle theological. There is evidence that he fully foresaw the immense advantage that would come to his cause by connecting it with the use and advocacy of the mother tongue. Who can estimate the importance of the fact that the protest of the Wittenberg priest was thus allowed by the Church to take on more and more the aspect of a quarrel between the German people, the German heart, the German tongue, and a Latin-speaking priesthood directed from Rome? How distinctly and strongly the cause of Protestantism became identified with that of the German language, appears from the statistics of book-making for the early part of the sixteenth century. In 1512 there were 140 books printed in German; in 1513, 90; in 1514, 110; in 1515, 150; in 1516, 110; in 1517, 80 (it was on October 31, 1517, that the theses were nailed on the church door at Wittenberg); in 1518, 150: in 1519, 260; in 1520, 570; in 1521, 620; in 1522, 680; in 1523, 935; in 1524, 990. The history of Catholic opposition to the nascent national language is fully traced by Kluge. The last point to be surrendered was in regard to the use of the final e in such words as Blume, Krone. Even as late as 1782 a Catholic organ could still complain: "Es klang doch ehemals so genuinkatholisch die Seel, die Cron, die Sonn, die Blum u. s. w.—und nun schreiben die unsrigen fast durchgängig die Seele, die Krone, die Sonne, die Blume—wie die leibhaften Ketzer auch schreiben."

The second of the obstacles referred to above lay in the existence of numerous highly differentiated dialects. Tenacious local prejudices had to be overcome, and it was a long time before even Protestants in various parts of the empire could persuade themselves to write the language of Luther instead of their own local speech. During the entire sixteenth century comparatively little progress was made. The early reprints of the Bible contained glossaries in which words of Luther were explained in terms of the local vernacular. Among all the literary dialects, that of Zwingli and the Swiss reformers was most tenacious of life, though it was never a formidable competitor for the honor of becoming the standard literary idiom. Such a competitor did exist, however, in the official language (*Kanzleisprache*) of the Emperor Maximilian, which was in a fair way to become a generally accepted standard when its progress was checked by the dialect of the Reformation. What Kluge has undertaken to do is to follow the fortunes of Luther's language during the period in which it was becoming generally accepted as the literary standard; to recount in a somewhat popular form, and without going too much into philological details, the struggle of the new idiom with the Catholic Church, the dialects. and, later, with the Latinizing tendencies of the humanists.

Palæolithic Man in N. W. Middlesex. The Evidence of his Existence and the Physical Conditions under which he lived in Ealing and its Neighborhood, illustrated by the Condition and Culture Presented by certain existing Savages. By Jno. Allen Brown, F. G. S., F. R. G. S. Macmillan & Co. 1887. With a frontispiece and eight plates. Small 4to, pp. 227.

This book embodies the substance of eight papers concerning the prehistoric archæology exhibited in the northwestern portion of Middlesex, England. The neighborhood of Ealing has proved a very valuable region for the detailed study of prehistoric man, and much of our knowledge concerning the district in an archæological point of view is due to the persistent inquiries of the author of this treatise. Mr. Brown's aim is to show, by inferences based upon observed facts, the character of the geography at the time when man first appeared in the district, and the succession of events which have occurred since that time. He makes it evident that since the advent of man this region has been subjected to a considerable process of elevation, naturally accompanied by the continued down-cutting of the stream beds as the base level of erosion was altered.

The interest which the reader will have in this book must rest rather upon the importance of its subject than upon the shape in which that matter has been presented by the author. The failure to rework in a thorough way the matter set forth in his previous essays has led to an unhappy clumsiness of statement. Moreover, though large parts of the treatise rest upon careful observation made by himself and others, we find at many points a good deal that is conjectural. Such hypothetical work is well enough in its place, but it is not well to combine the statement of historic fact with guesswork as to the conditions of the environment which prevailed at the time these facts were recorded in the rocks.

To the general reader the most interesting chapters are those descriptive of the worked flints from the Ealing district, in which the author gives a clear account of the various implements used by the historic people of that district, and the chapter concerning the conditions of life presented by certain savages, now in a state of culture, apparently analogous to that of palæolithic men. In this last-named chapter, the author briefly and rather effectively sketches the condition of various people who at present use implements similar to

those which have come down to us from the palæolithic men. He fails, however, to note the important fact that the moral and social condition of peoples is in many cases inadequately represented by the condition of their technical or plastic arts, or at least those portions of such arts as have survived the ravages of time. There can hardly be a doubt that the Aryan folk in the later part of the stone age were generally in a very much higher state of culture than the Eskimo or the people of Tierra del Fuego. This difference in race characteristics must qualify all the conclusions which rest upon the art remains alone.

Electric Transmission of Energy. By Gilbert Kapp. D. Van Nostrand.

Electricity, for Public Schools and Colleges. By W. Larden, M.A. New York: Longmans, Green & Co. 1887.

Applied electricity has made rapid strides in the last few years, as is evidenced by the recent endowment of professorships for this subject in a large number of the leading technical institutions of the country, and also by the fact that dynamo electricity, practically unknown in the arts ten years ago, is now, under certain conditions, in electric lighting, in the storage battery, and in its use as a transmitter of power, an assured success. In the last-named capacity it has not made the advance of the electric light or of the storage battery. Numerous reasons might be assigned for this, but probably the principal cause has been the fact that electrical transmission of power has *resulted* from the introduction of the electric light, and that the cost of investigating and experimenting upon electrical motors has been a great detriment. In the majority of cases where the electric light is used in factories, warehouses, ferry-boats, etc., etc., the dynamos are run by power which is present in excess of the normal requirements. Under these conditions the electric light is more economical than any other; but no such saving can be shown in transferring electricity as a power, with the one exception that where a central station is established for the generation of the electricity for motive power, and this power is delivered to a number of engines, all of small power, the cost of running the central plant would be much less than that of the separate small boilers, engines, etc. Upon this point the author states:

"A steam engine of 100 horse-power, driving a dynamo in the centre of a two-mile circuit, could deliver an aggregate of 60 horse-power (allowing efficiency of dynamo to be 60 per cent.) in as many separate points within that circuit. Apart from all considerations of nuisance and cost of attendance, in the case of sixty separate small steam-engines placed throughout the district, which might be used instead of the sixty electro-motors, it is evident that we can generate 100 horse-power in one single engine at a far less cost of fuel than could be done in small engines; and although the double conversion necessitated by electrical distribution of energy entails some loss, there is still a large margin in the general economy of the system."

Under certain conditions this could even be improved upon, as, where the power used to run in the generating dynamo is water-power instead of coal, the cost would be trifling in comparison—in fact, the cost would simply be that of the original plant and repairs; and we predict success for this in the near future where small power is wanted. The convenience of the system is absolutely beyond comparison with the direct use of boilers, etc.; there is no heat, no smoke, no dirt; in one minute, if desired, the power is obtained from the central station, and in an instant shut off.

The chapter devoted to underground cables gives a résumé of the different devices in use, a somewhat lengthy explanation of induced currents, and the many mechanical obstacles that have rendered the majority of patented underground cables of little value for practical use. More attention has been given to this subject in this country than in England, and the advances here have been greater. The electric-light companies have been forced by ordinances, in many of our large cities, to face the future laying of all wires for electrical use in underground conduits.

The author has endeavored to make a somewhat difficult matter (the transmission of electrical energy) plain to those who wish to investigate the subject from a commercial standpoint, and the work will also be extensively consulted by electricians, as it is a careful and thorough treatise.

Mr. Larden's work is an exception to the great number of text-books on the same subject: it contains a large amount of new matter, and shows an admirable arrangement of text. Its bulk, and the small attention given to electricity in our public schools, make it a text-book rather of the higher grade—for our colleges and universities. The author is an experienced teacher in this and allied branches of science.

Edward Jessup of West Farms, Westchester Co., New York, and his Descendants. With an Introduction and an Appendix, the latter containing records of other American families of the name, with some additional memoranda. By Rev. Henry Griswold Jesup. Cambridge: Privately printed for the author by John Wilson & Son. 1887. Sq. 8vo, pp. 442.

In this very handsome volume will be found a good record of the comparatively small family descended from Edward Jessop, one of the early colonists of Stamford. As he had but one son and three grandsons of the name, it will be understood that bearers of the name have been few, and relationships have been readily traced. The author has kept the descendants in these three main lines the more easily because one grandson, Joseph, moved to New York, and his family, being Loyalists, removed to Canada.

Edward Jessop appears as one of the settlers at Stamford in 1649. An incidental mention occurs of his mother, the widow Whitmore, undoubtedly the relict of that John Whitmore, prominent in the settlement of Stamford, who was killed by the Indians in 1648. Jessop died in 1666, leaving a daughter Elizabeth, wife of Thomas Hunt, jr., and a grandchild, Mary Hunt, mentioned in his will; another daughter, Hannah, not eighteen; and a son Edward, born in 1663. He also left a widow Elizabeth, who married Robert Beacham or Beauchamp, and survived him, dying after 1690. It seems highly probable that Jessop had been twice married. In his will he mentions his brother-in-law, John Burroughs, and cousin Johannah B., evidently John's daughter.

We are quite disappointed at finding no proof of the English ancestry of the emigrant. It was well known that among the Puritans at Leyden was a Francis Jessop, who married there Frances White, probably a sister of the wife of the Rev. John Robinson. There was a John Jessop also at Stamford, who settled at Southampton, N. Y., in 1653, and left a numerous posterity. The above-named Francis was the third son of Richard J. of Broom Hall, in Sheffield, and it had been hoped that a connection would be traced from this main stock to the two emigrants to Connecticut. It appears, however, that the services of the late Col. Chester were engaged, but that his death prevented the completion of his search. It seems highly probable that a renewed investigation would be successful, as the indications are certainly encouraging. In the meantime, we congratulate the family upon the very satisfactory history of the race in America which has been prepared in this volume.

Subjective Political Economy. By Arthur M. Smith. 2d ed. London: Williams & Norgate.

The modest task which the author of this work sets before him is "to show that there is in reality no question at issue between the various schools of political economists." His method of doing this is calculated to amuse such readers as it fails to confuse. He sets out by making his own definitions of all the terms used in economic discussion, and then assumes towards each problem different "mental attitudes," which are not always either graceful or effective. For example, he will look at a question from the "egoistic" standpoint, and then from the "altruistic"; or from the "ideal" standpoint, and then from the "real"; or from the "standpoint of time," and then from the "standpoint of eternity." From this last standpoint he finds that Ricardo's theory of rent is true and logical, but from the standpoint of time he finds it false; for, he maintains, Ricardo ignores the element of time, and the real "cause of rent is the alteration in value consequent upon the consideration of time."

That alone which makes the book worthy of review is the fact that its author is an English protectionist. A protectionist writer always has a claim to a hearing, first, as a matter of fair play, and second, because he is almost certain to say something new and original. Free-traders have a few commonplace propositions upon which all are agreed. But the arguments for protection change with each decade, with each country, and with each thinker. Mr. Smith's form no exception to this rule. It is true that we have often heard the first of his two main arguments. It is that free trade (like machinery) enables the same amount of goods to be produced with less labor, and thus injures the laborer. But his second argument is unique, and it is here that he rests his case. The mistake of the free-traders, he maintains, is that they ignore the element of time. "Is he a wise man," he asks triumphantly, "who buys in the most distant market? . . . The answer is plain: he buys of his next-door neighbor at a higher price, in preference to a man at a greater distance, because the further off the person from whom he buys, the greater will be the amount he will have to pay in order to buy time." As one lays down the book, he involuntarily wonders whether Mr. Smith's belief in protection is the cause or the effect of the other ideas which he holds.

Claverhouse. By Mowbray Morris. [English Worthies.] D. Appleton & Co. 1887. 12mo, pp. 222.

It would have been thought somewhat strange, a few years ago, to class John Graham of Claverhouse among the "worthies," so evil are the associations with his name among the descendants of the Puritans. And even in the present tolerant days, when we recognize that no man is wholly bad, as no man is wholly good, it is hard to bestow this epithet upon a man whose chief merit, as an historical character, is that he did the duties that were laid upon him faithfully and efficiently, if with unnecessary violence and brutality. That he was in a sense an heroic character, all will readily admit; that his heroism was of the elevated type of that of

his contemporary, Blake, will not probably be claimed.

Mr. Morris's book is written with the thoroughness and the fairness which characterize the other books of the series, and indeed the modern English school of biography. It will not do the admirers of seventeenth-century Puritanism any harm to be made acquainted with the good side of this hated personage; while, on the other hand, the partisans of the Government will learn from it that the resistance of the Covenanters was justified, and even their excesses almost extenuated, by the grievances to which they were forced to submit. Of Claverhouse himself Mr. Morris says (p. 133):

"He was no capricious and unlicensed oppressor of a God-fearing and inoffensive peasantry, but a soldier waging war against a turbulent population carrying arms and willing to use them. . . . His most able and his bitterest accuser pronounces him to have been 'rapacious and profane, of violent temper, and obdurate heart.' Yet every attempt of his enemies to convict him of extortion or malversation broke signally down. The decorum of his life and conversation was allowed even by the Covenanters; and it is recorded as a notable thing that, however disturbed or thwarted, he was never known to use profane language. . . . His heart was indeed hard to those whom he regarded as plotters and murderers, traitors to their king, and enemies of the true religion. He was, indeed, in his own way as much a fanatic as the men whom he was empowered to crush. . . . But his hardness, if not tempered with mercy, was at least guided by more justice than was common among his colleagues. He both advocated and practised the policy of distinguishing between the multitude and their ringleaders. . . . When judged by the general manners of the age, the circumstances of the time, and his position, I do not believe him to have been cruel by nature or careless of human life."

In his youth he says of him (p. 47): "His manners were gentle and courteous, though reserved; his habit of life was, as has been said, singularly decorous; he was scrupulous in the observance of all religious ordinances."

When it comes to the special instances of brutality charged against Claverhouse, the case of the "Wigtown martyrs" is passed over briefly, for the reason that "Claverhouse was present neither at the trial nor the execution." That the story is a true one, and that "the two women were drowned in the waters of the Blednock on May 11, 1685, is surely a fact as well authenticated as any in the martyrology of the Scottish Covenant" (p. 114). But "that Claverhouse, and he alone, is responsible for the death of John Brown, stands on the very best authority, for it stands on his own." Even here, however, the worst features of the case are not certainly attested. Other cases are examined in the same candid spirit, including that of Andrew Hislop, "a far blacker case than the more notorious one of John Brown," because the victim was an innocent boy, whom Claverhouse wished to save and had the power to save, but, "like Pilate, he preferred his own convenience." One thing is clear: if we have here an apparent reversal of the judgment of history, the final verdict is, after all, not very different from that of Scott in 'Old Mortality.'

Free Rum on the Congo, and What It is Doing There. By Wm. T. Hornaday. Chicago: Woman's Temperance Publication Association. 1887. Pp. 145. 12mo.

THIS indictment of the Christian nations for their responsibility for the African liquor traffic is a just one. The simple facts are these: When the Berlin Conference in 1884 established the Congo Free State, four of the Powers, Great Britain, Italy, Belgium, and the United States, endeavored to secure a special article restricting the liquor traffic. This humane proposition was opposed by the representatives of France, Netherlands, and Germany, and, as a unanimous vote was required for the adoption of any measure, it was defeated. There are, therefore, no restrictions whatever to the importation of liquor, and this business has accordingly assumed enormous proportions. In one year five nations alone shipped 10,377,166 gallons to African ports; Germany being the leading offender with nearly 8,000,000, the Netherlands following with 1,099,146, and Boston coming third with 737,650 gallons. Bottles of gin have become the currency in place of yards of cloth, half the native produce and labor is paid in it, while an insatiable craving for it has been excited in the wretched tribes reached by the "Christian" trader. Naturally the stuff is of the vilest quality, though in this, it should be said, the Germans discriminate. When Herr Woermann, Deputy for Hamburg and head of the great house bearing his name, was charged in the Reichstag with sending poisonous brandy to Africa, he acknowledged that it was true. "He said, however, that he had never sent bad brandy to any of the German colonies, but to the French colonies. To these he had shipped rum of the worst quality." There is no need of following Mr. Hornaday in an attempt to show the incalculable and indescribable evil which this nefarious trade is doing. That must be evident to every thinking person. There is only one remedy, so far as we are concerned, and that is, to arouse a public sentiment against it so strong that the Powers represented at the Berlin Conference shall meet again and pass a measure prohibiting the shipment of liquor to African ports. This is not hopeless, since six of these Powers, including the three original opponents of restriction, have recently signed a convention prohibiting the sale of liquor by the "copers" (floating grog-shops) to the North Sea fishing fleets. The only other hope for Africa is that Mohammedanism, victorious over both Christianity and fetishism, shall at the same time extirpate intemperance. We have but a single word of criticism for Mr. Hornaday's earnest book, and that is, it is too long.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Andrews, Dr. I. W. Manual of the Constitution of the United States. Revised edition. Van Antwerp, Bragg & Co.
Astronomical Revelations. Edward Dexter. $2.
Baring-Gould, S. Richard Cable, the Lightshipman. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 25 cents.
Bickersteth, M. C. A Sketch of the Life and Episcopate of Robert Bickersteth, Bishop of Ripon. 1857–1884. E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.50.
Blyden, Dr. E. W. Christianity, Islam, and the Negro Race. London: W. B. Whittingham & Co.
Bocock, K. Tax the Area: A Solution of the Land Problem. J. W. Lovell Co. 20 cents.
Boetticher, A. Die Akropolis von Athen. Nach den Berichten der Alten und den neuesten Erforschungen. Berlin: Julius Springer.
Bourget, Paul. Mensonges. Paris: Lemerre; Boston: Schoenhof.
Bousfield, C. Memoirs of Count Horace de Viel-Castel: A Chronicle of the Principal Events during the Reign of Napoleon III., from 1851 to 1864. 2 vols. London: Remington & Co.
Canfield, C. W. The American Annual of Photography and Photographic Times Almanac for 1888. Scovill Manufacturing Co.
Claretie, J. Boum–Boum. W. R. Jenkins. 25 cents.
Delines, Michel. La Terre dans le Roman russe. Paris: Librairie illustrée; Boston: Schoenhof.
Dennis, J. Robert Southey: The Story of his Life Written in his Letters. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $2.25.
Ducros, Louis. J.–J. Rousseau. [Classiques populaires.] Paris: Lecène & Oudin; Boston: Schoenhof.
Favre, Mme. Jules. Montaigne, Moraliste et Pedagogue. Paris: Fischbacher; Boston: Schoenhof.
Fulton & Trueblood's Chart Illustrating the Principles of Vocal Expression. Boston: Ginn & Co. $2.
Harrison and Blackwell. Easy Lessons in French. Philadelphia: John E. Potter & Co. $1.25.
Hawthorne, J. Beatrix Randolph. Boston: Ticknor & Co. 50 cents.
Hecker, Rev. I. T. The Church and the Age: An Exposition of the Catholic Church in View of the Needs and Aspirations of the Present Age. Office of the *Catholic World*.
Holley, Marietta. Poems. Illustrated. Funk & Wagnalls. $2.
Holmes, O. W. My Hunt after the Captain, and Other Papers. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 15 cents.
Howley, Rev. M. F. Ecclesiastical History of Newfoundland. Boston: Doyle & Whittle.
Johnson—Buel. Battles and Leaders of the Civil War. Being for the most part contributions by Union and Confederate officers. Based upon "The Century War Series." Vol. I. The Century Co.
Jost, M. Annuaire de L'Enseignement Primaire. Quatrième Année. 1888. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.
Journal des Goncourt. T. II. 1862–1865. Paris: Charpentier; Boston: Schoenhof.
Lamartine, A. de. Graziella. W. R. Jenkins. 40 cents.
Larousse. Grand Dictionnaire universelle. 2e Supplément, fasc. 8–12. Boston; Schoenhof.
Lavisse, Ernest. Essais sur l'Allemagne impériale. Paris: Hachette; Boston: Schoenhof.
Layard, Sir H. Early Adventures in Persia, Susiana, and Babylonia, including a Residence among the Bakhtiyari and other Wild Tribes before the Discovery of Nineveh. 2 vols. With Maps and Illustrations. Longmans, Green & Co. $7.50.
Littell's Living Age. Vol. 175. October to December, 1877. Boston: Littell & Co.
Mason, A. J. The Faith of the Gospel: A Manual of Christian Doctrine. E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.50.
McCarthy, J. Ireland's Cause in England's Parliament. Boston: Ticknor & Co. 35 cents.
McLoughlin, M. Louise. Painting in Oil. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. $1.
Mercier, Mrs. Jerome. The Story of Salvation; or, Thoughts on the Historic Study of the Bible. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.25.
Messaros, W. Some Dainty Poems. Illustrated. Philadelphia: Rufus C. Hartranft. $2.00.
Westall, W. A Queer Race. Cassell & Co. 25 cents.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 19, 1888.

The Week.

THE campaign against Mr. Lamar was foredoomed to failure. The Republicans in the Senate have a majority only by the vote of a "rebel" from Virginia, and self-respect of course demanded that Mr. Riddleberger should vote for confirmation. It was morally certain that other Republican Senators would join him. So the event proved. Mr. Stewart of Nevada and Mr. Stanford of California voted on Monday for confirmation, and the *Tribune's* despatch says that "other Republican votes could have been obtained" on the same side if they had been necessary. The net result of the incident, therefore, is simply to expose the Republican party under its present management as a sectional and unbalanced organization, which challenges the opposition of right-minded men.

Now that the *Tribune's* great Congress of "representatives of various branches of agricultural production" has adjourned, it will be interesting to peruse the following "call" which was sent out by the *Tribune* as a reason for bringing them together, several copies of which have been sent to us by recipients who did not care to respond:

"I ask your attention to a special agitation in behalf of protection now being carried on by the *Tribune*. The *Tribune* has sent letters to all the granges, clubs, and agricultural societies in the United States—over 6,000 in number, with a membership of over 1,000,000—asking them to debate the question of protection, and report their views to this office. Large farmers have been asked to report their individual opinions. This agitation has been in progress somewhat more than a year. A genuine interest in the tariff has been awakened by this discussion among farmers, and the protection sentiment, existing among them to some extent, has been greatly strengthened already, and grows in strength every week. A large number of debates have been had in granges and societies, and a great mass of replies have been received by the *Tribune*. The *Tribune* now proposes to submit these replies to a competent committee of representatives of the various branches of agricultural production, over which the Hon. Warner Miller, ex-United States Senator, has consented to preside, and to have prepared an emphatic statement to the country of the wants of the farmers of America, and the need of better protection to their products. The Committee will meet in New York in January. Their statement will be promptly published and submitted to all the granges and societies for their approval, with a view to its final presentation to Congress as an expression of the sentiments of the farmers of America."

There is more of the "call," including the disinterested information that the "subscription price of the *Semi-Weekly Tribune* is $2 a year"; but we have given the more important portions of it. The net result of the "genuine interest" awakened among the farmers which had been "strengthened" and "grew in strength" for "somewhat more than a year," was the assembling of an august body of seven men, none of whom were farmers, or in any sense representative of any kind of "agricultural production," unless exception be made in favor of Col. William M. Grosvenor, of Englewood and the *Tribune's* editorial staff, who is a great "producer" of "chastity" and similar articles. Over this body the Hon. Warner Miller, ex-United States Senator, did preside for two days and two evenings. It is interesting to have the "call's" assurance that the results will be promptly embodied in "an emphatic statement to the country of the wants of the Farmers of America," with a "view to its final presentation to Congress as an expression of the sentiments of the Farmers of America." That will be one of the greatest jokes ever perpetrated by the *Tribune*, and will burst upon Congress like a thunderclap. But for drollery it cannot beat Col. Grosvenor's appearance at "the Congress" as an essayist on the "Hemp and Flax Industries," he having been the author of that very effective attack on the tariff entitled 'Does Protection Protect?' and in 1872 the Secretary of the Free-Trade League in this city and Washington.

The proceedings of the Subsidy Convention at Washington on Monday were opened by prayer by the Rev. Dr. Leonard, who implored the Divine guidance in measures for the development of American shipping. Taste in prayer is not a proper subject for newspaper criticism, and it must be said for the Rev. Dr. Leonard that if he consented to pray at a business convention at all, he was bound to remember business in his supplications. What impresses us most is the fine opportunity that the reduction of the surplus affords for variety in prayer at the national capital. The wool men had a convention the other day. It must strike them now as a great oversight that they did not have their proceedings each day opened with prayer. There might have been a prayer one day for carpet-wool and another day for clothing-wool, and another for worsteds, and so on. Presently we shall have conventions representing other interests threatened by the condition of the surplus. Prayer for or against tobacco, sugar, salt, lumber, pearl buttons, etc., etc., would afford a fine field for the display of talent among the clergy of Washington city.

The ancient farce of a joint meeting of wool-growers and woollen manufacturers was reënacted last week at Washington. The interests of the two are diametrically opposed. The woollen manufacturers want free wool or extremely low duties. The wool-growers want the highest possible duties, but they would like prohibition of foreign wool better than anything else. Each class is afraid of the other, and now for the first time both are afraid of the people of the United States as consumers of woollen goods. Their efforts to secure apparent harmony are thus more complicated and embarrassing than usual. The wool-growers have put forward a demand for higher duties on carpet wool. This, it is said, the manufacturers will not agree to. If they do agree to it, they will forfeit every claim to consideration and respectful treatment by tariff reformers. Carpet wools are not produced in this country. Therefore the tariff on such wool violates the principles of protection as much as those of free trade. It is kept in force solely for the sake of example—a bad example. The idea which lies at the bottom of this pernicious and unnecessary duty is that "wool is wool, and if you admit one kind free of duty, even though it is not produced here, you weaken the argument for duties on all the other kinds." The carpet-makers are asked to pay several million dollars per year in taxes that the Government does not want, in order to nurse this sentimental nonsense. We tell the carpet men plainly that the tariff reformers are better friends of theirs than the wool-growers, and can be relied on with much more confidence to deal justly by them through thick and thin.

The question of officers for the National Republican Committee in the approaching Presidential campaign is agitating the minds of the Republican leaders, and we are not surprised to see the current of opinion running strongly in favor of such men as "Tom" Cooper, "Chris" Magee and "Matt" Quay of Pennsylvania, "Bill" Chandler, and "Tom" Platt. The latter is looked upon as the inevitable man for Chairman of the Executive Committee, and Chandler appears to be slightly in the lead for Chairman of the National Committee. It would be difficult to fix upon two men more representative of the tendencies of the party at this time, for in all the country there are not to be found two men more expert in political "tricks" and "dodges." Still, if the battle-cry of the campaign is to be "Blaine and a surplus," there ought to be a good sprinkling of Pennsylvania talent in the Committee, for, as the Chicago *Tribune* has well said of Blaine's tariff views, they are "Pennsylvanian" in origin, and have little popular strength anywhere else.

Mr. Henry Cabot Lodge says that the Massachusetts Republicans are for Mr. Blaine's nomination, and that "Mr. Blaine's candidacy will inspire greater enthusiasm than that of any other Republican." It was their failure to "inspire enthusiasm," we suppose, which caused Republican candidates like Lincoln, Grant, Hayes, and Garfield to make such a contemptible showing beside Blaine as they do in this table, which gives the Republican vote, the total opposition vote, and the Republican majority over all opposition in Massachusetts at every election from 1860 to 1884:

	Rep. Vote.	Opposition.	Rep. Maj.
Lincoln, 1860	106,533	62,642	43,891
Lincoln, 1864	126,742	48,745	77,997
Grant, 1868	136,477	59,408	77,069
Grant, 1872	133,472	59,260	74,212
Hayes, 1876	150,063	109,556	40,507
Garfield, 1880	165,205	117,307	47,898
Blaine, 1884	146,724	156,657	?

If the author of "the Paris message," who supposes that people pay in gold and silver for foreign goods, had consulted Benjamin Franklin's examination before a committee of the House of Commons in 1766 touching the Stamp Act, he would have found a very neat exposition of the way in which accounts are settled in international trade, and perhaps have been saved from telling that story of his about the effect of the tariff of 1846 on our supply of specie. Franklin had informed the Committee that Pennsylvania imported annually from Great Britain about £500,000 worth of goods, and only exported to Great Britain about £40,000 worth of the produce of the province. "How, then," he was asked, "do you pay the balance?"

"Ans. The balance is paid by our produce carried to the West Indies, and sold on our own islands, or to the French, Spanish, Danes, and Dutch; by the same produce carried to other colonies in North America, as to New England, Nova Scotia, Newfoundland, Carolina, and Georgia; by the same carried to different parts of Europe, as Spain, Portugal, and Italy. In all such places we receive either money, bills of exchange, or commodities that suit for remittance to Britain, which, together with all the profits in the industry of our merchants and mariners arising in those circuitous voyages, and the freights made by their ships, centre finally in Britain to discharge the balance, and pay for British manufactures continually used in the provinces or sold to foreigners by our traders."

There could hardly be a clearer lesson in the working of foreign exchange. It was given by an American 120 years ago, and yet the Republican candidate for the Presidency, although nearly sixty years old, has not yet mastered it.

What farmers who really farm think about the high tariff, is shown by the memorial to Congress adopted by the Nebraska State Farmers' Alliance at its annual session a few days ago. These Nebraska farmers represent that agriculture is greatly depressed, and name among the prominent causes for this depression "the protective-tariff system as it now prevails, taxing the farmers of the nation to aggrandize the manufacturers, upon the plea of protecting American labor, while labor is left free to come to this country from all parts of the world." The memorialists represent that only a small proportion of the tax imposed upon the people by the protective tariff goes into the Treasury, "but through an enhancement of prices swells the profits of the manufacturers, who, by virtue of our natural advantages, ought to be able to compete with the world on equal terms"; and they point out that our agricultural products are sold in the open markets of the world in competition with the world, while the manufacturer, through the tariff, receives a bonus of from 25 to 100 per cent. on his goods." While not favoring free trade, they do favor the extension of the free list, and the levying of duties more upon articles of luxury, the conclusion of this vigorous document being as follows: "Your memorialists would therefore most earnestly protest against the removal of taxes from whiskey and tobacco, and as earnestly pray for relief from taxation upon iron, coal, salt, lumber, wool, woollen goods, and sugar." The President addressed his message largely to the farmers, and their response is very hearty.

The account given by Prof. R. W. Raymond of the origin and progress of the strike in the Lehigh and Schuylkill coal districts will suggest to thoughtful readers that the coal companies owe to the public the duty of putting new men at work if the old ones decline to resume their places. The impression has gone abroad that the wages paid to the miners were so desperately low that a strike was, upon a broad view, justifiable, if not necessary. Prof. Raymond shows that this is an entire mistake. The miners, good, bad, and indifferent, in the Lehigh district when the strike began, were getting an average of $2.72 per day. Taking account of the occasional suspensions of work, they were earning $660 per year average. These are far from starvation rates, as every laboring man knows. Nobody questions the miner's right to strike. It is his duty to improve his condition, and it may be his duty to cease production in order to determine whether the coal market and the labor market, and all other markets which make up human society, will enable him to exact $3 per day for work that he had been doing for $2.72 heretofore. But in exercising this right he must regard other people's rights, including the right of society to get its coal as cheaply as it can be afforded. A curious notion has got into the heads of some people that, although a railroad company may, and indeed must, keep its trains running, and to this end must fill the places of striking employees without delay, yet a coal company under like circumstances must wait until the community are in dire distress, the poorer classes pretty well frozen, and a large number of workingmen in factories and furnaces thrown out of employment for want of fuel, before making any attempt to fill the places of the strikers. In other words, society has been so befooled by the talk of starvation wages in the coal mines that more than half the people who think about the matter at all conclude that the miners have a right to stand at the mouth of the pits and to stone and club everybody who wants to go down to dig coal. This grotesque conception will probably hold the public mind until the scarcity of coal causes considerable suffering. Then it will be perceived that the sixty millions of American people—for there are very few who do not use anthracite or depend upon it in some way—have rights also which it is expedient to enforce, and that among these is the right to pay not exceeding $2.72 per day for coal-mining, if men can be found who are willing to work at that rate.

The Reverend Pentecost opened his Anti-Poverty Church in Masonic Temple on Sunday morning, and Henry George was present to see how it worked. It was announced at the start that the services would be held every Sunday morning as long as the amount of the collections warranted their continuance. This, as we understand it, is the fundamental doctrine of the anti-poverty creed—namely, a good collection. No poverty can be abolished without that. Mr. Pentecost, in order, probably, not to cut off the collection at the Academy in the evening, will call his society the "Unity Congregation." He said that he did not propose "to make Christians, but good men," and that "agnostics, atheists, infidels, Jews, Protestants, Catholics, all," were welcome to come and submit themselves to the process. On Sunday the work was helped forward by an organ and a cornet, and the preacher declared that he was convinced that neither the Christian Church nor the country lived up to the "doctrine of the brotherhood of man," that the relations of capital and labor, the class distinctions between the rich and the poor, and the condition of the universe generally, "were all wrong, and this pulpit would so preach." It is to be hoped that the collections will continue large, for the Rev. Pentecost has no less a task on hand than the reformation of the world, and it would be a pity to have that fail through lack of funds.

Collector Magone, having been misled by suppression or misrepresentation of facts to appoint a horse-race gambler to an important position in the Custom-house, has, after being made better acquainted with the man's antecedents, suspended him for further investigation. This action, so unusual in a high public officer, calls for special commendation—more, we think, than a refusal to appoint such a man in the first instance. It has become almost an axiom in politics that if you have made a mistake in the appointment of a bad character to a public place, you ought never to acknowledge it, but rather brazen it out, because by and by the public will find something else to talk about, and thus your infallibility will not receive the shock implied by reversing your own action. Collector Magone takes a different view, holding, apparently, that if he has been deceived, he is himself the principal sufferer, and that the best way to vindicate his powers of judgment is to correct his mistakes as soon as he discovers them. No great talent is required in dealing with dilemmas of this kind, but it is strange that so few people possess it.

The Commission to "investigate and report the most humane and practicable method of carrying into effect the sentence of death in capital cases" in this State have made their report to the Legislature. It is much to be regretted that there should be so much extraneous matter in it. One whole page is given to a list of capital offences under the Mosaic code. Forty-four pages out of a total of one hundred are devoted to minute and revolting descriptions of the various modes of inflicting the punishment of death resorted to by different nations, civilized and barbarous, in various ages. The report ends by recommending the substitution of electricity for hanging as a means of inflicting the punishment of death, both as more certain and more humane, and as more easily used without miscarriage. The observations of the Commissioners on the scandals resulting from the

delivery of the bodies of criminals after execution to their friends for interment, will meet with a hearty response from the public, at least in this city. The "wakes" and triumphant funerals to which the remains of murdering scoundrels have often, after hanging, been treated by their criminal friends and acquaintances in New York, have done much to deprive the death penalty of its horrors among the class for whose benefit it is specially intended. In New Jersey a statute exacts a bond from the persons applying for the body of an executed criminal, conditioned on their refraining from any public funeral, and makes violation of the act a misdemeanor. The Commission recommend that in this State the bodies of all such criminals be given to the medical profession for dissection, and be then buried under quicklime in the prison cemetery or graveyard. This is the practice, we believe, of all other civilized peoples, and it is a wholesome one.

The California sugar-refiners and Sandwich Island planters, who have been enjoying a very artificial monopoly for many years at the expense of the United States Government—their sugar being admitted duty free, while all other raw sugars are taxed nearly or quite 100 per cent.—are greatly disturbed by the rumor that the Eastern sugar-refiners have consented to a reduction of one-half of the sugar duties. The California brethren have assumed that the Eastern refiners have consented only to the reduction on raw sugars, intending that sugar shall not be made any cheaper to consumers, but only to themselves. We are not in the confidence of the "Sugar Trust," but we are well convinced that they do not expect any such absurd arrangement as a reduction of the duty on raw sugar without an equal reduction on refined, because in the first place they could not get it, and in the second place they consider themselves able to compete on equal terms with anybody in the world in their line of business. What they chiefly object to is the bonus allowed to California refiners under the Hawaiian Treaty, by means of which sugars which have paid no tax are sent East to compete with the duty-paid article.

The European sugar bounties are in a fair way towards extinction. The London Conference, embracing representatives of all the beet-growing countries, put the seal of condemnation on the bounty system by unanimous vote. There are, indeed, some difficulties of detail to be overcome, and some time must elapse in order to close out existing contracts before the bounties can be wholly abolished; but the spirit in which the Conference acted leaves little doubt that the end of the system draws near. The delegates to the Conference are to meet again in London on the 5th of April, furnished with the latest instructions of their governments. The difficulties of detail will then be settled and a time fixed for stopping the bounties. It was agreed that sugar for export should be manufactured in bond so far as practicable, and that where this was not practicable, the drawback on exportation should be made exactly equal to the import or excise duty. After the reform is once effected, the whole world will wonder how it could ever have happened that a civilized country should offer a cash premium in order to rid itself of one of the most valuable products of human skill and the earth's fertility. A more grotesque conceit never entered into the skull of man.

Experiments made with fiat money in the republic of Peru are having a disastrous termination, but the action of the Government in the matter is open to grave doubt. When a government has stolen the real money of its subjects and filled their pockets with irredeemable paper, and when, in the course of time, the butcher, the baker and candlestick-maker refuse to sell their wares and merchandise for that kind of funds, the obviously proper course to pursue is to arrest those disloyal persons and appoint proper officers to sell their goods for them, taking in payment the lawful money of the country. If it is objected that after the stock in hand is thus sold no more will come in from the country, then let the soldiers go into the country and serve the farmers the same way. Instead of pursuing a course so well calculated to inspire confidence in the strength of the Government, we read that when the inhabitants of Lima wanted to mob the provision dealers, the police interfered and would not allow them to do so. They even fired on the people, and wounded several boys who were taking part in the proceedings for fun. The most indefensible act, however, was the protection extended by the Government to the money-changers. These scoundrels abound in all fiat-money countries, and they are the more numerous in proportion to the badness of the money. Consequently Lima is alive with them. What is more natural than the inference that they have connived with the butcher, the baker and candlestickmaker to refuse to sell their goods, in order to force a still heavier premium on the precious metals? Yet when the people "went for" the money-changers the police drove them off. But the miscreants became alarmed and fled from the town, so that "on December 10 there was not a single money-changer or business house in Lima selling silver soles for paper money." The people then tried to do business on half soles—that is, by tearing their paper soles in two—but this didn't work. At the latest advices all the banks were closed, the retail stores were closing, and a revolution was impending.

The English advertisements for 1887 of "Next of Kin Wanted," and persons who might "learn something greatly to their advantage," are less dramatic than sometimes happens, but yet are of varied nature and not without peculiar interest for some persons in this country. Jacob Herbert, "last heard of in Pennsylvania," will lose something handsome if he does not soon "materialize," and so will William Barnes, "last heard of in Chicago," and Albert and Alice Morris, who were taken to Canada and adopted by separate families. The heirs-at-law of Henry Blizzard should, of course, be looked for in Manitoba or Montana. Unless Joseph Prunty, a shopkeeper, who left Ireland for America in 1880, makes himself known within a given date, letters of administration will be granted to his next-of-kin as if he had died intestate. Near New York, perhaps, may be found persons sought who are "interested in unclaimed dividends of the West New Jersey Society (1692-3)." Lapse of time seems little to affect the ardor of search in the slow-going Old-World country, the Bank of England having issued many advertisements respecting the retransfer of unclaimed dividends (claimants having appeared), including three cases in which the dividends had remained unclaimed since 1763, 1797, and 1798. Persons claiming to be entitled to a fund standing in the name of Anna Sheppard, who is believed to have died in 1741, are only now invoked. The Treasury Solicitor sought the next-of-kin in some forty "Crown windfall" cases, the owners of these estates having died intestate without known heirs. It may be here noted that, by the recent decision of Mr. Justice Chitty in the Heathcote case, the Crown comes into a "windfall" of £200,000 by reason of the death of a lunatic in 1884 without known next-of-kin. A very considerable sum accrues annually to the Crown from this source, but it is only after extreme efforts to discover next-of-kin all over the world, more especially in the widespread remote British possessions. Some curious cases arose out of the Presumption of Life Limitation (Scotland) Act, under which relatives sought to "uplift and enjoy" the estates of persons who, having failed to report themselves for periods of seven years or upwards, were supposed to be dead.

Lord Salisbury's blunt announcement at Liverpool that inasmuch as it is the Liberal Unionists who keep the Tories in office, the Tories must do what the Liberal Unionists please, seems to be taken to mean that the County Government Bill, whenever it comes, will be thoroughly democratic, and will hand the counties over completely to representative assemblies. As this would finally oust the landholders from influence and authority which they have enjoyed ever since England became a nation, it might be considered the most important proposal ever made by an English Minister. If the way for it had not been prepared by the extension of the suffrage and the ballot, it would probably startle the Conservatives even more than it does. It will be very interesting to see whether they care enough about Ireland to be willing to make this prodigious and final sacrifice for the purpose of holding her in subjection, because this democratization of the counties is the price they are paying for "the unity of the empire" and the discomfiture of Gladstone. If they were rid of the Irish, and Gladstone were no longer formidable, they would be able to make a tolerably good fight in the English constituencies on English questions.

THE EFFECT OF THE MESSAGE.

THE boldness and novelty of the President's message naturally created more or less uncertainty, both as to its effects on public opinion and on his own political fortunes. It was expected that it would be long, but it turned out to be almost unprecedentedly short. It was expected to deal lightly with a great number of topics, but it dealt with only one, and this thoroughly. It was expected that it would avoid all burning questions, so as not to imperil his renomination, which seemed to be assured by the New York election, but it took up the most burning question of the day, and treated it with utter disregard of its possible effects on the canvass of 1888. It is not surprising that a performance of this sort should have puzzled a great many people, and especially the veterans of political management, to whom it seemed simple foolishness, the spoiling of a magnificent situation. Their sensations were very like honest old Wurmser's in Italy when he was assailed by the young Napoleon in a manner which violated all the rules of the art as taught down to that day. Wurmser had a long line, manned by three excellent divisions, and he expected Napoleon to attack him along the whole line with three divisions also. Instead of this, Napoleon took his three divisions all together, and with them attacked Wurmser's, not all together, but one by one, which Wurmser considered both unfair and reprehensible, but it entirely answered Napoleon's purpose.

All Presidential messages which have been sent to Congress since the war have fallen perfectly flat, except this last one, and yet they were all composed according to usage, both as regards matter and manner. They were of great length and touched on everything, but threw no new light on anything, and were forgotten almost as soon as read. To President Cleveland belongs the honor of having for the first time since Lincoln produced a message which is, in the highest and best sense of the term, a state paper—that is, a paper which sets people thinking, which affects opinion, and which extracts from the mass of issues the really vital and pressing question of the day, the only one which can be neither ignored, nor postponed, nor made light of.

It has now been six weeks before the country, and we have ample means of determining what its effects have been. The first and most plainly observable of these effects is that it has raised the President's character in the estimation of both friends and foes. Those who most severely condemned the message from the party point of view acknowledge that it shows courage and disinterestedness. In other words, in writing it the President has given the strongest evidence he could possibly give, that he is a man of sincere convictions, and that he would rather be right than be President. Other men before him have said this, but he is the only man who has demonstrated it even in the eyes of his enemies or detractors. In other words, every one who calls him a fool on account of it pays the highest possible tribute to his character. In no way could he so well dispose of the conclusions about him, drawn of late from his apparent lapses from virtue in the matter of civil-service reform, as by unnecessarily putting in peril his chances of renomination, and this is what some of the shrewd politicians thought a month ago that he had done.

We for our part have all along felt assured that his folly in this matter was really the highest wisdom—not the wisdom which comes from calculation, but from sudden inspiration. For courage is, after all, the quality which most readily touches the popular imagination in men put in high places by the popular vote. People pardon a great deal of planning and contriving and giving and taking in a man who is striving for the Presidency; but when he is in the office, the proof of fitness they most appreciate is readiness to put his foot down, to say the right thing at the right time, or even the right thing at the wrong time, without regard to consequences. If the history of the American Presidency teaches anything clearly, it is that the way of the wavering, vacillating, timid man is even harder than that of the bold sinner.

But this is by no means all. The message has also had the extraordinary fortune of receiving an amount of commendation and acceptance from men of the opposite political party, which has fallen to the lot of no similar document since Lincoln appealed to Americans of every party to save the Union. We could easily give the most abundant proofs of this culled from Republican newspapers in all parts of the country. We presume there is not one of our readers who cannot produce similar testimony from his own experience. Tens of thousands of those who did not vote for Cleveland in 1884, and have never since been quite willing to avow that they had made a mistake, have been convinced by the message that he is the man for the times.

Not less significant is the gradual cessation of even the very feeble murmurs which at first came from the Protectionist portion of the Democratic press. Day by day their protests have been becoming feebler, and the arguments in favor of the maintenance of a surplus for politicians to "handle," more and more absurd. There is now an almost general agreement that a surplus must not form a permanent feature of American finance, and the most spiteful enemies of the President find no refuge except in the statement that "if the surplus has to be abolished, it sha'n't be done in Cleveland's way." We do not believe, however, that any rejection of his suggestions as to means will sensibly diminish the impression produced by the manner in which he has called attention to the end. No matter how the evil is cured, he will get the credit of having laid it bare in such a way that every man, woman, and child in the country could see and understand it and measure it. He has, in other words, no matter how the taxes may now be reduced, taught the nation, with a master hand, a lesson in finance which will be constantly recalled in the efforts to keep down the public burdens that will henceforth have to be made every year until we get down to the bed-rock of all politics—that people should pay into the public Treasury only the sums necessary to "establish justice, insure domestic tranquillity, provide for the common defence, and promote the general welfare."

THE INTERNATIONAL COPYRIGHT BILL.

THE bill which has been presented to the Senate by Mr. Chace, but which it is an open secret was drawn up by a well-known Philadelphia publisher, may be briefly described to be a bill amending that portion of the Revised Statutes of the United States which acknowledges an author's or artist's equitable claim to the fruits of his mental labor, and grants a certain legal protection therefor—in such wise that this protection is secured not only to authors or artists who are citizens of the United States, but to mental workers the world over. The United States has been, for many years, perhaps the only civilized country which has failed to recognize the claims of the author to a reward for his labor without regard to his individual nationality. To our eternal national disgrace, it must be frankly admitted that this delay in granting an act of simple justice has been entirely due to the fact that honest legislation would affect the purses of American citizens. And the tardy measure of justice which our Congress is now called upon to consider is impaired by two regrettable limitations of the very right which it is the purport of the proposed act to establish and grant. It is admitted that when legislatures accord legal protection to what has been acknowledged as the moral right of any class, they may limit the exercise of such right, by virtue of considerations affecting the general good of the whole people. And all States, with a single noticeable exception, have abridged the property rights of authors, by according legal protection to such rights for a limited period of time. In no case, however, is legislation justified which attempts to restrain the exercise of the universally admitted right of any one class for the benefit of any other class, but only when such limitation is beneficial to the whole people.

According to Senate bill 554, the rights secured to the American author by the Domestic Copyright Law are abridged when the law is extended to include the foreign author—firstly, by refusing to permit the latter to manufacture his book wherever he pleases; and, secondly, by further refusing to permit him to supply whatever demand there may be in this country for copies of his authorized foreign edition. Stipulations of this nature have never hampered the international copyright legislation of European States. As contributors to the American press, with a regrettable lack of ingenuousness, have striven to give the impression that the American author is obliged by law to print and publish his work in the United States, it may be briefly but emphatically stated that the Copyright Law of the United States in no wise prevents an author who is a

citizen of this country from printing his book abroad, binding it abroad, or writing it abroad—anywhere in the wide world that he may choose; and not once but many times has this occurred, notable examples being the later novels of Mr. Henry James and Mr. Marion Crawford.

The instigators of these curtailments of the foreign author's rights defend the first upon the ground that compulsory printing in this country is necessary to secure books of sufficient cheapness to be beneficial, by their great circulation, to the people at large; and that the good secured to the masses through cheap books justifies the limitation put upon the right of the comparatively few authors. But the honesty of this defence may be doubted so long as the second prohibition remains, because even the dullest intellect can perceive that if, as is claimed, compulsory printing in this country is necessary in order to prevent English publishers from forcing upon American readers high-priced English editions, a prohibition of import can only be added because of a fear that the English copyright owner *may* choose to send into this country an authorized edition which could be sold to American readers at a smaller price than the enforced American reprint. But is not a book printed in England at a lower price of equal benefit "to the masses" with the same book printed in this country at a higher price?

We have before insisted that there is no precedent in the foreign copyright laws for such prohibition of importation as is contemplated in this bill. But to return to this point again, it may be well to indicate briefly just what is stipulated in the copyright legislation of countries which present a problem similar to our own, by reason of both countries having one language. We could hardly desire a more suitable instance than that of France and Belgium. The latest copyright treaty between these countries went into effect May 16, 1882. This convention consists of seventeen articles, of which two relate to the importation into either of the countries of copies of works upon which there is copyright in one or the other of them. Section 9 prohibits the importation, exportation, circulation, or sale in each of the two countries of *unauthorized* reproductions, whether such unauthorized reprints proceed from either of the two countries or from any foreign country. This stipulation naturally occurs in all copyright treaties as well as in all domestic copyright laws. The American author by our own law enjoys the protection of a similar prohibition of unauthorized reprints, whether the latter are made and sold in the United States or are printed in Canada or elsewhere and imported into our territory. In section 3 it is further stipulated that the Belgian and French Governments shall take the necessary measures to prohibit the entry into their respective territories of works which the Belgian or French publishers may have acquired the right to reprint, with the reservation that such republications shall not be authorized to be sold in the country of their origin. For example, a French author sells to a Brussels publisher the right to print an edition of his book for Belgium, but with the stipulation that this edition shall not be sent into France to compete with the original French issue. The second paragraph of the article requires that each copy of such Belgian edition must bear upon its title-page and cover the words: "Edition prohibited in France, but authorized for Belgium and abroad." In like manner, if there should be a copyright treaty between England and the United States, we should naturally expect that it would be stipulated that the American reprint, for example, of Matthew Arnold's poems should not be allowed to be imported into England to compete there with the English copyright edition; and in the same way the American publisher of Henry James's novels would need to be protected against the possible flooding of this market with the cheaper English edition, copyrighted there under treaty arrangements. There is nothing in this convention between France and Belgium to hinder in any way the competing sale in either of the two countries of the edition of a work first published by authority of the author in any one of them. Nor does the Belgian copyright law of March 22, 1886, contain any enactment whatever which circumscribes the distribution of a foreign author's original edition.

The position of Canada towards England, as regards the question of protecting the English author in the former country, presents a parallel to the problem which Senate bill 554 attempts to solve. But although the Canadian Copyright Law, which was revised and consolidated in 1886, is intended to encourage the republishing in that country of the works of English authors, and grants a Canadian copyright upon all books so reprinted, care is taken in section 6 of the above act to explain that "nothing in this act shall be held to prohibit the importation from the United Kingdom of copies of any such work lawfully printed there."

THE SUGAR-BOUNTY CONFERENCE.

THE system of granting bounties upon exports at the same time that duties are imposed upon imports is one that appeals with irresistible logic to the protectionist intellect. There is something so beautifully symmetrical about it. The duty upon imports pays Paul by taxing Peter and the other ten. The bounty upon exports "evens things up" by taxing Paul and the other ten in order to pay Peter. The duty upon imports makes the balance of trade in a nation's favor by reducing importations. The bounty upon exports doubles this balance by increasing exportations. The duty gives employment to labor by shutting out foreign products; the bounty accomplishes the same great end by sending out native products. The duty raises the price of one class of products, the bounty raises the price of another; and the two classes of industries thus stimulated furnish a home market, which supports the remainder of the country in ease and affluence. In short, the two systems working together attain the high ideal of shutting out all possible goods, sending out all possible goods, and keeping what remains at the highest possible price.

Yet, in spite of these obvious advantages, the European Conference just held on the question of the sugar bounties has ended in a unanimous condemnation of the system. Every one of the sugar-producing nations was represented—Germany, Austria, France, Sweden, Denmark, Holland, Belgium, Spain, and Italy. With the exception of little Belgium, all agreed upon the plan of manufacturing sugar in bond, in order to prevent the possibility that rebates to exporters should serve as a cloak for further bounties. As Belgium is as anxious as the rest to be rid of the bounty system, she will probably, says the London *Spectator*, accept the method approved by the rest. There seems to be little doubt that all the legislatures will ratify the agreement of their representatives, and thus suddenly bring to an end a system which has been steadily growing for almost a century.

Ever since the Napoleonic wars the beet-root sugar industries have had every possible favor shown them by all the fiscal bureaus of Continental Europe. It was during the Napoleonic wars that these industries took their start. For a number of years the wars themselves furnished the necessary protection, but when peace finally brought with it the ever-attending calamity of low prices, the people were kept from suffering the injurious effects by the imposition of heavy duties. Inasmuch as the land on which the beet-root was grown, and many of the factories at which it was refined, were owned by the country gentlemen who everywhere controlled the legislatures, the new industry had no difficulty in obtaining the protection it desired.

But by and by the protective duties were insufficient to satisfy the demands of the sugar interest, and Government aid was asked that foreign markets might be invaded. At first this demand was made modestly. The interest consented to have taxes imposed upon the beet-root—so much per ton—and asked that a compensating rebate should be given them on the sugar exported. Of course nothing could be fairer. The request was at once granted, and the same thing happened as occurred in our own country when, during the civil war, the internal-revenue taxes were first levied. The question arose, How large a rebate is necessary to compensate for the new taxes on the raw materials? To determine this required expert testimony, and only those who were interested in the case were deemed competent to act as jurors to decide it. Practical sugar men were left to settle the question. The governments, of course, maintained their time-honored reputation for generosity, and refrained from haggling over the terms proposed.

But soon a new complication arose. The sugar men of one nation began to plead that their competitors in some other nation were more highly favored than themselves. This led to competitive generosity on the part of the governments. Meanwhile, the process of manufacturing had undergone great changes. It became possible to extract double as much sugar as formerly from the same quantity of beet-root. The rebates were not lowered, and all these influences act-

ing together finally brought matters to such a crisis that in Austria the Government has been paying out a larger sum upon the sugar exported than it collects from the entire sugar taxes.

For several years various governments have evinced signs of restlessness. Not only were the fiscal results of the bounty system lamentably unsatisfactory, but it was found that instead of protecting a home industry at the expense of foreign laborers, the bounties had resulted in protecting foreign laborers from the expense of paying for their sugar the actual cost of its production. The competition among the refiners compelled them to share their bounties with their customers. Their own people were compelled to pay prices abnormally high, in order that foreigners might buy at prices abnormally low.

This state of affairs staggered even the protection intellects which have charge of the financial systems of the Continent. They wished themselves well rid of the spoiled child whose whims they had so long been gratifying. But a reversal of policy was not easily to be brought about. The country which abolished the bounty system first must expect to find its exporters underbid by their competitors. The subsidized interests were too strong to be treated in this way. Accordingly, Germany, Austria, and France found themselves dependent upon the fiscal policies of Belgium and Spain. Nothing could be done until universal agreement should be reached as to what must be done. The fact that such an agreement has now been reached is conclusive evidence how intense and universal was the conviction that the long-continued bounty system had proved a complete failure.

BALLOT REFORM.

THERE is evidently going to be no lack of plans for reforming our ballot laws before the Legislature this winter. At least three are in sight now. Mr. Saxton, Chairman of the Assembly Judiciary Committee, is known to have been at work upon one for several weeks past, and a committee of experts in this city have been at work upon another since early in November last. In the Assembly, on Friday, Mr. Hamilton presented still another, which is said to have been drawn by Mr. Elihu Root, who did the work in accordance with a resolution adopted by the Union League Club a short time ago. The latter is the first to appear in the form of a bill, and we presume the intention of its sponsor, Mr. Hamilton, is to have it wait in the Committee until the other plans appear in bill form, in order that there may be made from them a composite measure which shall embody the wisdom of the three. This ought to be a comparatively easy matter, since the three will all be based upon the general principles of the English and Australian laws, which have been so successful in practice.

The bill introduced by Mr. Hamilton has evidently been drawn somewhat hastily, and we presume that it is introduced thus early in order to get a high place for it on the calendar, its authors expecting to have it amended and strengthened in Committee. It provides for the printing and distributing of ballots at the public expense, and authorizes the appointment of two ballot clerks of different political faith to attend to the additional work thus provided at each polling-place. The polling-places are to be enlarged, and furnished with a compartment to which voters may retire to select their ballots. Two weeks before election day, petitions to print ballots are to be handed to the officials charged with the conduct of elections. These petitions are to be signed in writing, and may come from county committees of each political party that cast one-tenth of the votes polled at the last election, in which case they must be signed by the Chairman and Secretary of the Committee. Petitions may come also from one per cent. of the voters themselves, in which case all the signatures of such voters must be appended and verified in the same manner as signatures to a deed are. Every petition must be accompanied by a deposit of five dollars for every thousand votes cast by the political organization filing it. The money so received is to be used to aid in defraying the expense of printing, the county paying the deficiency in case the petition money is inadequate.

The ballots are to be printed in books, each ballot having its own stub, and to be numbered consecutively. Each set of petitions is to be entitled to books for its own ticket, bearing its party name or title, the same not to exceed two words. A full set of ticket-books is to be provided at each polling-place before the polls are opened. When a voter comes to the polls, he will be handed a full set of tickets, and his name and residence will be inscribed upon the stubs by the clerks. He can then retire to the compartment, and select one ballot of each of the kinds which he intends to vote, and make such alterations upon them as he wishes. Those which he does not use he must destroy in the presence of the ballot clerks. The bill contains a clause prohibiting the peddling of ballots in the polling-places, and one authorizing the arrest, without the formality of securing a warrant, of any person who enters the polling-place and leaves it without voting. It is the intention of another clause to prohibit the distribution of ballots by anybody but the authorized ballot clerks. Voters may write their ballots, but nobody save the authorized printers shall print them.

So far as this bill takes the work of printing and distributing the ballots out of the irresponsible hands of the political workers and puts it into the hands of the responsible agents of the State, to be done at the public expense, it is a step in the right direction. But there are defects in its provisions in regard to the details of the work which we have no doubt will be remedied in Committee. There seems to be, for example, no sufficient warrant for demanding a fee upon the filing of petitions. That requirement is a recognition of the idea which prevails under our present system, that there is some obligation upon the political organizations to pay the expense of printing. There is no such obligation. The State is amply able to bear the slight expense of printing, and candidates should no more be "assessed" for that than they should be for the expense of providing ballot-boxes or any other part of the election machinery.

The most defective feature of the bill is that relating to the form of ballots. It provides for separate sets of ballots for every political party. This would lead to a confusing number of ballot books. At every general election in this city there are at least seven separate tickets and seven separate boxes for their reception, and at Presidential elections there are more. Now, suppose we had in the field two Democratic tickets, a Republican ticket, a Labor ticket, a Prohibition ticket, and a Citizens' ticket—for under the provision of the law allowing voters the right to petition for a ticket, this would be a not improbable list. On a general election we should then have six separate organizations, each entitled to have sets of seven separate books, making a grand total of forty-two ballot-books in each polling-place. The confusion and delay thus caused would be sufficient to defeat the election, for under the provisions of the bill each voter would have to be provided with the forty-two tickets, and the two clerks would be obliged to write his name and residence on forty-two stubs before he could proceed to select his ballots. Then it would be necessary for the clerks to count carefully the ballots which the voter rejected before destroying them. All this would require so much time that either our polling-places would have to be greatly multiplied, or no more than a fraction of the vote could be polled. There are other objections to the system proposed, but this of itself is fatal.

A far simpler solution of the ballot-form question is to have all the names for any particular office printed upon one ballot, with the politics of each candidate placed after his name, and a blank space at the bottom for the writing in of any name not on the list. This would require only seven or eight separate ballot-books, would not require the destruction of any unused ballots, and would not cause delay. It seems to be not only entirely unnecessary to require the writing of the voter's name and address on the stub, but, what is worse, calculated to destroy, partially at least, the secrecy of the ballot. The consecutive numbering of tickets and stubs, together with a simple provision requiring the ballot-clerks to stamp with their initials, or in some other way, the back of each ballot, would be sufficient to prevent fraudulent voting.

These and other points have been gone over with great care by experts who have been studying this subject for more than a year past, and we have no doubt that Mr. Hamilton will be glad to use the results of their labor when they shall be embodied, as they will be shortly, in a carefully drawn bill. This question is one of far too great importance to be made either a partisan or a personal one in any way, and we trust it will not be. What we need is a simple, comprehensive, and thoroughly practicable law applying to the

whole State, and there is happily so large a public sentiment in favor of such a measure that we are hopeful that the Legislature will give it to us at this session.

GLADSTONE.

During the past fortnight there has been a great deal of dining among English Liberals in honor of Mr. Gladstone's seventy-eighth birthday, and a great deal of discussion, apropos of the event, in the newspapers of both parties, of the part he has played and is still playing in English history. Nobody attempts to deny the greatness of his place in English politics and in the love and admiration of a very large portion, fully one-half, of the English, and almost the whole of the Scotch and Welsh and Irish people. His influence with "the masses," to use a term he has himself coined, is probably stronger than that of any other English statesman has ever been. On the other hand, he is hated and abused by "the classes," *i. e.*, the nobility, gentry, and clergy, with a virulence and bitterness which have hitherto been unknown in English public life. There has certainly never been in England a man sufficiently favored by fortune to be able to reach the Premiership, of whom educated Englishmen and English women permit themselves to speak with so much scurrility. In fact, they constantly denounce him even to foreigners in terms of which, before our time, national pride, if no other feeling, would have forbidden the use about any man great enough to form a British Cabinet and lead the House of Commons. And, what is also novel as well as melancholy, in a vast number of cases this denunciation is as unreasoning and as ill-informed as it is vehement. We have often tried the experiment—even before the days of home rule—of asking what it was that Gladstone had done to make him so odious, and have found that the question was a futile one, and that denunciation had no better basis than the fact that this was the fashionable view of Gladstone's character and career. Every now and then, too, one comes across Americans who have been sufficiently infected with it to look on him as in some manner a "dangerous man," whose attacks on the British Constitution are shaking the foundations of social and political order all over the world. But those who take this view of one of the greatest figures of the nineteenth century, who, with Bismarck and Lincoln and Darwin, will almost certainly go down to posterity as one of its chief glories and illustrations, ought, before his final disappearance from the scene, which in the order of nature cannot be very far off, to make themselves acquainted in some slight degree with the leading facts of his history and with the part he has played in British politics.

They will find at the very outset of their inquiries that much of the prejudice against him in England among university and professional and scientific men is due to the frequency with which his unbounded intellectual activity and fluency with the pen carry him into fields which are not his own, and in which, nevertheless, the long habit of command in politics makes him talk in the tones of a master when his knowledge is really that of a pupil. He has been so much absorbed in politics during the past fifty years that he forgets at times the strides which criticism and physical science have made since he left college, and thus sometimes permits himself dashes into controversies in which his discomfiture at the hands of the first expert he encounters is certain and even easy. His contention with Prof. Huxley, two or three years ago, about the Mosaic account of the origin of animal life, was a misadventure of this character, which gave his enemies much comfort, and, coming on the top of growing political prejudice, lost him the confidence of a good many to whom thoroughness in any knowledge one attempts to display is an indication of character. But the place in which to form a sound estimate of Gladstone, as indeed of any man, is the field which he has chosen for the display of his best energies. Politics has been so much the greater part of his life that, when one has judged him as a statesman, what is left to be passed on as a Homeric commentator or Biblical critic is hardly worth attention.

He entered political life when he left college, fifty-five years ago, as all readers of Macaulay's Essays know, as "the rising hope of the stern and unbending Tories" of that day. But he never had the real stuff of a Tory statesman in him, and his drift towards Liberalism began almost as soon as he entered the House of Commons. He was Sir Robert Peel's chief aid and supporter in that great fiscal and social revolution in England, the repeal of the Corn Laws. He soon after played the chief part in the repeal of the Navigation Laws. He then paid a visit to Italy, and spent his days in Naples, not in sunning himself at Capri, but in visiting the prisons, in which he found a dozen men of the highest character literally rotting in dungeons as plotters against the odious rule of King Bomba. He wrote when he came home an account of it all in a pamphlet, which literally rang round the world and compelled the Neapolitan Government, for very shame, to liberate Poerio and his companions.

From that day his sympathies were all, as he has himself expressed it, with human liberty. His extraordinary capacity in dealing with finance gave him the Chancellorship of the Exchequer for the first time in 1853. His first budget was perhaps the first English budget after the abolition of the Corn Laws which could be distinctly called the budget of the poor. It abolished the tax on soap and 133 other duties. It reduced the duty on tea from fifty-five to twenty cents a pound. It reduced the duty on butter, cheese, eggs, and fruit, took off half the tax then levied on advertisements, reduced the tax on policies of life insurance. But his talent was not only shown in remissions. He was equally skilled in the distribution of new taxes, in the reduction of the national debt. In 1864 he began to plead for the extension of the suffrage. In 1867 he brought in a bill for the purpose, but was defeated by a Liberal secession very much like that which has taken place on the Irish question, so that it was the Tories who actually passed the measure. When he took office again in 1868, he disestablished the Irish Church, began a reform in the Irish land laws, and carried through, in coöperation with Mr. Forster, the creation for the first time in England of a system of national education, and gave the new voters the protection of a secret ballot. Between his leaving office in 1874 and his return in 1880 he devoted himself to agitation against the war in Afghanistan and for the deliverance of the Bulgarians from the Turkish yoke. In 1881 he again attacked the Irish difficulty by a further change in the land laws, and was again driven out by the failure of an attempt to apply a still more radical remedy to Irish discontent.

In a brief summary like this, of course, no adequate idea can be given of the extent to which Mr. Gladstone has, as a legislator, influenced British politics and society. We pass over without notice numerous smaller measures—such as the redemption of the army from the system of purchase, which virtually made it the private property of the officers—by which the administration was improved or rid of useless encumbrances. In truth, when one examines in detail the marks which Mr. Gladstone has left on the statute-book, one recognizes at once the fact that no English Minister can be compared to him in the double capacity of debater and legislator, except Pitt, in the nine years between the close of the American war and the outbreak of the French Revolution. But Pitt's labors in the field of reform were brief, and the memory of his beneficent activity in that period was all but effaced by the long, bloody, and costly contest into which he plunged the country after the death of the French King. Gladstone leaves behind him no such dreadful legacy. The two conspicuous failures of his long career have been the attempt to pacify Ireland and to rescue Gordon. The issue of the first has, however, still to be seen, and the last was rather the work of the British public in one of its fits of chivalrous insanity, than of Mr. Gladstone. It was said by somebody that all the other Marshals of Louis XIV. and XV. were only "change for Turenne" (*la monnaie de Turenne*). So, also, one might say that all the other British statesmen who have appeared on the scene since Sir Robert Peel's death are only "change for Gladstone."

A SPANISH PLAY IN GERMANY.

Strassburg, January.

Paul Lindau, writing in the December *Nord und Süd* about the younger German novelists, expresses a belief that no young man engaged to-day in creative literature can affirm of himself that he is free from the influences exerted upon the intellectual current of our time by "the strongest spirits of the north and south, whether one calls them Zola, Ibsen, or Echegaray." It is only a year since the performance in Berlin of Ibsen's "Spectres," noticed in the *Nation* at the time, drew general attention in Germany to the works of the Norwegian author; and as the average reading public asked then "Who is Ibsen?" so it is asking to-day "Who is Echegaray?"—the third "strong spirit" in our group of realists.

Singularly enough, it is to the Meiningen Theatre, where the "Spectres" was played long before Ibsen had gained his present reputation, that Echegaray also owes his introduction to Germany. He has figured respectably in Madrid politics, and has been at least once a member of the Spanish Cabinet, while his literary reputation rests upon some thirty plays, none of which, however, gained him any name outside of Spain until Paul Lindau translated and adapted "Galeotto" for the German stage and it was played in the Meiningen Theatre. Last February "Galeotto" was printed in *Nord und Süd*, and during the present theatrical season it has been given in many of the leading German cities, and is everywhere admitted to be a piece of singular power.

It consists of a prologue and three acts. The scene is laid in the capital, and the time is the present. *Andreas Hennersdorf*, an elderly business man, married to a young wife, *Julie*, has for a year made his house the home of a young author, *Ernst Adenau*. The motive is the gratitude felt by *Andreas* for a great service done him years before by *Ernst's* father, and the relation between the three persons is one of ideal friendship. The prologue passes in the study of *Ernst*, who has stayed away from the theatre one evening in order to work upon a drama of his own. There is a knock at his half-open door, and *Julie* enters in evening dress, inquiring what fortune he has had in his writing, and narrating gayly how all the world had asked for him at the theatre, and wondered why he was not in *Andreas's* box, as usual. *Ernst* replies that these persons who take such a kindly interest in him may have a rôle in his drama, and then, in order to explain to *Julie* how he had taken a hint from the Francesca da Rimini episode in Dante, he reads her a ballad which he proposes to weave into his piece. The ballad relates that Dante's lovers read together the book of Lancelot, which tells how the brave Lancelot was conquered by love and stood confused before his queen until Galeotto, the middleman, brought the two together and then stole away, and that, as Dante's lovers read, they sighed, and the book became their Galeotto, and their lips touched, "and on that day they read no more." *Ernst* names the ballad "Galeotto," because he was the leading personage; Guinevere would have remained faithful, and Lancelot would have ridden off to the wars and forgotten his love, if Galeotto had not laid the wood together and touched the match and then crept away with a smile. He is the guilty person, not merely in this tragedy, but in almost every tragedy of human life.

At this point *Andreas* enters, relating laughingly, as *Julie* had done, how everybody had inquired for *Ernst* at the theatre, and how often he had to explain that *Ernst* was neither his son nor his relative. Then he asks after the progress of the new play, and, like the good-hearted Philistine that he is, tries vainly to follow the young poet's explanation of his difficulties. The main personage cannot be brought upon the stage at all, *Ernst* says, because this personage is no less than "everybody"; it is public opinion; it cannot be typified without producing a commonplace stage villain, and the catastrophe must not be brought on through villany, but merely through thoughtlessness and indifference; the conventional love story is wanting, though love and jealousy are the mainsprings of the action; the situations are as commonplace as possible; and the play has not even a title. "My dear fellow," says *Andreas*, "you are a dreamer. Come, drink a cup of tea with us, take a good night's sleep, and to-morrow we will go partridge shooting." But *Ernst* is determined to work out his task, and *Andreas* and *Julie* bid him good-night. "I will write it," he cries to himself. "I will show how out of a thousand nothings—smiles, looks, shrugs—a frightful something is born; how through their gossip they make that which was a lie at last a truth, and the title shall be 'Galeotto'!"

The first act shows us *Andreas* and *Julie* in their salon. He is troubled about something, and admits at last his fear that the high-spirited *Ernst* is not at ease in his position. *Ernst* enters with something to say to them both. He is sure that people do not understand the ideal relation in which *Andreas* has received him into the house, that the relation is misconstrued, and that it would be better for him to leave at once. For proof he points to the upper story of the same house, occupied by *Andreas's* brother, *Alfred*, with his wife, *Therese*, and their society-loving son, *Walter*. It is with these gossipers that we have to do in the remainder of the act. They are admirably depicted: they simply repeat what "everybody" says; of course, they themselves would gladly believe in the uprightness of their friends, but still society is talking about *Ernst's* anomalous position, and the family honor is endangered. *Julie* and *Andreas* answer them with scorn; the latter will insist upon *Ernst's* accepting the duties of confidential secretary; he will not allow him to leave; he will defy the gossip of fools. But *Alfred* is persistent, and, as the curtain falls, to *Andreas's* honest anger and contempt there is added the merest touch of indecision.

The second act passes some weeks later in a bare room rented by *Ernst*, who, it seems, has been allowed to leave *Andreas's* house, and who is on the eve of a long voyage. Meantime society has been busy with its gossip, and the mind of *Andreas* is at last tortured with doubt. But *Ernst* has overheard one of the gossipers in a café, has provoked a quarrel, and a duel is to be fought. *Andreas* hears of it and succeeds in substituting himself in *Ernst's* place, without the latter's knowledge, before the set time, and using the seconds and the room already prepared in the same house where *Ernst* lodges. *Julie*, too, has heard that *Ernst* is to fight; *Therese* tells her that *Andreas* is at *Ernst's* room, and she comes there to seek her husband and implore his interference. There is a touching pathos in this scene between *Ernst* and *Julie*—both of them upright, both of them knowing that it is whispered everywhere that they love each other—standing far apart in the barren room and grappling with the terrible change that has come over everything. "If our hands were to touch now," says *Ernst*, "it would be something different from what it has been." A voice demands admission—the seconds lead in *Andreas* with a sword-thrust in his breast—he finds here his wife, and, confirmed now in his darkest suspicions, he gathers his failing strength and pushes her from him pitilessly.

The last act, like the first, is in the Hennersdorf salon. *Walter* and his mother are talking with hushed voices of *Andreas*, whose state is critical, and of *Julie*. "She is only an innocent child," says *Therese;* "I was sure of it." *Ernst* is announced; he has come to speak with *Andreas;* he cannot let *Andreas* die believing in their guilt. Both *Walter* and *Therese* turn their backs at first, but afterwards soften a little. "I have lost everything," *Ernst* cries, "honor, friendship, love"; and *Therese* catches at this greedily. *Julie* is heard coming down the stairs, and *Walter* leads *Ernst* into an adjoining room. *Therese* talks of him till *Julie* cries: "Why do you whisper always, 'He loves you, you love him'? It is not so. I am still in my senses. There is no room in my heart for any sinful desire, for I love *Andreas* wholly." "But he has just confessed that he loves you; he is here yet, and you must send him away." And *Julie* replies that she will do her duty. *Ernst* comes in slowly, and this woman, in the extremity of trial, orders her only remaining friend to the door; it is her free will, she says. He stammers, "If I could repay with my life the pain I have caused you"—she starts at the words; *Therese*, then, had told the truth; he did love her. Fainting with the horror of the thought, she still cries, as he comes towards her, "Do not touch me, it would be pollution!" "You, too?" he sobs; "do not you believe in me?" And as he falls on his knees to implore her pity, *Alfred* enters from the adjoining sick-room. He orders *Ernst* out, but in another moment *Andreas* staggers to the door of the salon, and, calling *Julie* to him, makes her kneel. "In the dust!" he cries, "but the real criminal stands there. Here!" And *Ernst* steps before him, not knowing what to do. "There," cries the dying man, "I have you both. Confess!" "It is not true," *Ernst* answers. There is a last moment of suspense. "You lie," gasps *Andreas*, "and I will stamp the mark of your shame upon your forehead"; and with a final effort he strikes him in the face. A few minutes later *Alfred* is master of the house, and his first word is, "Turn this woman out." "Wait!" cries *Ernst* (and this is the moral, practically the epilogue, of the play); "we will resist no longer. From this hour this woman is mine. The world has wished it; good, we are united. Come, Julie." She lies unconscious on his arm. "We are the outcasts. You have us now as you wanted us. This woman was pure as a sunbeam, and I was a true friend to the dead man and to her. I swear it before God the judge. So it has been; but from now on we are as guilty as you have wished. Even at this moment breaks out the criminal flame. Now go into the streets and cry that you were right. And if you are asked who is guilty, look in the glass; there he stands, and there, and everywhere—yes, all of you have done it! Come, Julie, my beloved." And while he leads her away, still resting unconscious on his arm, the curtain falls.

Such is the tragedy that has thrilled German audiences during the present season; and as to the brilliancy of the dialogue, the profound knowledge of dramatic effect, and the intensity of the emotion in it, there is but one voice. It is not altogether pleasant, but the "strong spirits" among the modern realists do not often give us a pleasant story, and, for that matter, "Othello" is not particularly pleasant either. Echegaray has succeeded in doing without an *Iago;* but in making society in general do *Iago's* work out of mere idle amusement, the poet does not increase the inherent charm of the fable. But the real question, however, is whether "Galeotto" throws any substantial light upon the problems of human life and duty. Echegaray has something to say, and he says it with fierce directness, yet we can estimate better the value of his message if we note a certain contradiction between the fundamental conception of the play as expressed in the prologue and epilogue and the development of the characters during the progress of the three acts. The original conception is clear enough: two inflammable persons are to be brought together by a sort of Galeotto, and the ensuing tragedy is to be Galeotto's fault. The old problem of human responsibility is solved thus: the individual will is weak, the environment is answerable—or, as *Alfred* says in the play: "You are in the world, you live with the world, and the

world is stronger than you." Still, a society that forces the lovers together and unconcernedly causes the tragedy, ought to be scourged for its indifference. Now, this is an idea perfectly self-consistent and affording opportunity for a profound analysis of human passion; whether it would have been edifying upon the stage, if carried out, is a question upon which we cannot enter here. But in the play, as a matter of fact, we have no pair of lovers at all. *Julie* is true from first to last; it shocks us when *Ernst* claims her as the curtain falls. A moment before she shrank from his touch because she thought he loved her; a strange Guinevere! He cries with a terrible eloquence: "Your idle gossip has brought about a guilty love"; but a spectator might answer: "Look at the woman on your arm. You two may have been forced together, you may have become her sole protector, the world may believe that she loves you, but—she does not love you." She is, therefore, not a character that belongs in this piece. A Galeotto for a Guinevere, and then a tragedy, very well; but here we have a Galeotto for a saint, and the saint does not take fire with any guilty flame. And even for *Ernst*, the sudden outburst and confession of the close is not sufficiently prepared for; he has been almost, if not quite, a Galahad. In short, the poet has tried to heighten the pathos, and to make more scathing his arraignment of a gossiping society, by making the hero and heroine of the tragedy two innocent persons who remain innocent. That one of these persons discovers in himself a sudden guilt at the very end does not altogether suffice to make the tragedy inherently probable, nor to satisfy that unformulated feeling for justice which an audience always brings to the criticism of a play, and which remains unchanged despite the changing theories of the critics about the "tragic guilt."

"Call a man a thief, and at last he will steal," says Echegaray. One might answer: "Very likely; but it depends, after all, upon the man. Look at *Julie* in your own play." But when the Spanish realist adds: "It is a crime to laugh and jest about thievery, and impute it idly to others as if it were a light matter," there is no answer that one can make. He has told a bitter and wholesome truth.

B. P.

Correspondence.

PIG-IRON AGAIN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your correspondent "H.," in No. 1175 of the *Nation*, in "seeking light" on the tariff, says he "speaks from knowledge," and that

"a ton of iron on the furnace bank represents labor and nothing else. The average cost now, taking the country over, is not less than $15.50 to $16.00—all labor. Take this to Chicago or St. Louis at an average freight, say, of $3.00, and it represents not less than $18.50 per ton—labor and freight. Add $1.00 per ton for profit, and you have just about the average market to-day at the great Western centres. . . . Take off $6.72 protection, and there is an instant advantage of at least $5.00 per ton to the foreign manufacturer in the very centre of the American continent. My furnaces have plainly one of two courses to pursue—shut up or reduce cost (labor) by $5.00 per ton, or 33 per cent. . . . Do you think American mechanics, artisans, and laboring men, and the farmers, who find manufacturing centres their highest-priced markets, will permit any party to stand which advocates such action?"

It is a favorite expression of protectionists to say that a manufactured product is "all labor." If "H.'s" pig-iron is all labor, I infer that his "three furnace companies" own the ore and coal mines as well as the lands from which fluxing material is had, and that these mines are worked by his companies, who use no other materials, and hence pay no royalties or gross profits on other people's products. If this be so, and his labor cost in a ton of pig-iron is $15.50, his properties must be so disadvantageously situated that, tariff or no tariff, he will shortly have to get out of the business unless he joins some "trust" or "combination" to restrict the growth of other American furnaces, and prevent further employment of American labor in that channel.

The year 1880 was described in the census reports as one of "great prosperity for the iron industry, when labor was in demand and wages promptly paid." Mr. Edward Atkinson, in his 'Distribution of Products,' page 93, quotes Mr. Jas. M. Swank and Prof. R. Pumpelly, "two of our most competent experts," showing the number of men and boys engaged in making our iron in 1880, as below:

In coal mines producing that part of the coal which was used in iron furnaces, about	20,000
In iron mines	31,668
In blast furnaces	41,875
Total	93,543
The sum of the wages of this force was	$28,458,822

Practically this embraces the great bulk of all the wages paid to make our iron. The total product in that year was 3,781,021 tons, at a labor cost of about $7.50 per ton. But as this included all the badly placed and uneconomically managed furnaces, it follows that if any paid more wages than the average to secure the same results, others must have paid less, and the tariff becomes a scheme to keep the ill-deserving going. If it be true that "taking off the tariff of $6.72 would give an instant advantage to the foreign manufacturer in the very centre of the American continent" of $5 per ton, it is the strongest argument I have yet seen for taking it off. Ocean freight, marine insurance, commissions, etc., surely bring the protection extended to this industry up to $8 per ton at our sea-ports. Our domestic production for 1887 was, according to Mr. Swank's report in our daily papers of January 4 and 5, 6,250,000 tons. Eight dollars protection on this amount is fifty million dollars—or taxes levied upon the people of the United States, to support our iron furnaces, greater than we now expend to support our army and navy.

Fifty million dollars is 10 per cent. net profits on $500,000,000 worth of finished manufactured articles. If, therefore, a tax collector were stationed at the doors of our factories, and from our machinists, hardware, agricultural-implement, and sewing-machine makers, locomotive, car, and steam-engine builders, cutlery and firearm makers, and similar industries were to collect 10 per cent. on $500,000,000 worth of their products, and hand it over to the furnace men for their services in "making iron harder to get," it would be the plain and unadulterated exposition of what protection on iron means. And yet, in despite of these heavy burdens, we export (and seldom import) many of these highly finished articles, involving as they do a high percentage of labor-cost and relatively limited quantity of crude material—a clear and overwhelming proof that American labor, while the best paid, is the cheapest in the world.

It is, therefore, to me, a wonder that "American mechanics, artisans, and laboring men" who use "H.'s" iron will consent to give him $8 per ton more than it is worth, in view of the fact that it handicaps their own industries and reduces their own wages by that amount. If we now send abroad so many manufactured articles made from our high-priced iron, what growth might we not aspire to when his heavy-taxing hand is taken from us?

And with reference to "American farmers, who find manufacturing centres their highest-priced markets," they already supply many "manufacturing centres" across the Atlantic, whose people are willing to return a ton of iron for ten bushels of wheat, instead of a ton for fifteen bushels, which "H." exacts. It is not necessary "to sweep the board and bring in free every form of cotton, woollen, silk, iron, steel, jute, chemical, and other manufactures." A reduction of a tariff tax on raw and crude articles means frequently a greater lessening of both tax and revenue than is apparent by a reference to the revenue derived from the crude materials. In 1885 (the latest year for which I have reports), the imports and duties on wool and woollens show as follows:

	Value.	Duties.
Wool	$9,474,263	$3,164,295
Woollens	36,176,705	24,294,938

Is there any intelligent man who has paid attention to tariff discussions who believes that an abatement of the wool duties of $3,164,295 will reduce the revenue and taxation only to that extent? Can it not be seen, from a glance at the figures, that the tax on the wool is nearly 10 per cent. of the value of our imported woollens? If, therefore, American manufacturers could secure a reduction of the duties on wool, they would be able to manufacture nearly all the *woollens* which come in, reducing the revenue nearer $30,000,000 than $3,000,000. Such a result would simply give increased activity to American industry. The greater number of operatives required to make the additional quantity of woollens would still eat mutton to a greater or less extent. The Ohio and Pennsylvania cowboys who, by their presence in Washington, seem to think that the place to herd sheep is in the halls of our national Capitol, would find larger "manufacturing centres" in which to sell.

What is true of wool and woollens is true of other industries which use "H.'s" products. It should always be remembered that manufactured articles, as a rule, are sensitive commodities, which readily respond in increased production and consumption to any decline in cost. In other words, their market is widened; a fact which finds extreme expression in the homely proverb, "If wishes were horses beggars might ride." It does not mean the "degradation of labor." The farmers and the working classes are themselves the great consumers. It means that they can secure comforts and labor-saving contrivances for themselves which, under higher prices, would be beyond their reach. And unless it can be shown that taxes create wealth, and protectionists have a patent for making something out of nothing, the job of helping "H.'s" industry by taxes, except at the expense of others, is hopeless.

Reduction of taxation will benefit, not injure the manufacturing industries. Republican government owes a living to no one—except its own servants.

Samuel Seay.

Nashville, Tenn., January 13, 1888.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I read with great interest the letter of a pig-iron manufacturer that appeared in your last issue. He stated that pig-iron represented nothing but labor, and that if the duty were removed, he should either be compelled to shut up or reduce wages 33 per cent.

I read with as much interest, but less satisfaction, the editor's reply, which was evasive, as it seems to me, holding practically that pig-iron was not, according to the present plan, to be

placed on the free list. But according to the average cost of labor in making pig-iron in Pennsylvania in 1885, which was a fraction more than $1.83 per ton—present cost may be less—the 33 per cent. is far from being reached. I recognize that it costs something in labor to dig iron ore and coal and to prepare coke and limestone, but these expenses are to be credited to the "industries" named. Rent, inferior furnaces and ovens, and cost of transportation, are, it seems to me, the big ogres that reduce the profit, and not labor. If profit was even less, the aggregate upon a larger volume might be larger. International competition might also bring other expenses down, as it has reduced cost of wheat raising and wheat transportation. Let me also ask what the Pennsylvania pig-iron makers are going to do with their Southern rivals, who, on the best of expert testimony, can produce for $8 a ton, at a good profit, and at a labor cost of $2!

W. A. C.

HARTFORD, CONN., January 10, 1888.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the letter of "H." on page 11 of your issue of January 5, I find the following: "A ton of pig-iron on the furnace bank represents labor and nothing else. The average cost now, taking the country over, is not less than $15.50 to $16 per ton, all labor."

In J. Schoenhof's 'Destructive Influence of the Tariff,' etc., p. 80, I find this:

Mr. Joseph D. Weeks of Pittsburgh, one of our best experts, gives the price paid for labor in Pittsburgh to make a ton of pig-iron:

Labor on mining ore for ton of pig-iron at $1.40	$2 38
Labor on mining coal and making coke necessary for ton of pig-iron	1 25
Labor on mining limestone	30
Labor at furnace	1 25
	$5 18

Here appears to be a remarkable discrepancy. I am not at all acquainted with the details of the manufacture of pig-iron; but, viewing the matter à priori, it seems either that no capital at all is required in the manufacture of pig-iron, or else that your correspondent has made the mistake of confounding stored-up labor or capital with wage-labor. Please enlighten us on this point, and oblige a constant reader.

Yours, JOHN W. GARDNER.

NORTON HILL, N. Y., January 9, 1888.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Like your correspondent "H.," I, too, with thousands of my countrymen, am interested in the tariff question. With protective education and proclivities, I am, nevertheless, a farmer, and reside inland, and am therefore entirely dependent on the iron business, whether in horse-shoes, tires on wagons, or railroad iron for the transportation of our various products to market. How increased imports would prevent any reduction of the revenue, if we were all sailing under a free-trade flag, I fail to see.

"H." says a "ton of pig-iron on the furnace bank represents labor and nothing else." At Chicago or St. Louis the freight, $3 per ton, is added. I have no doubt his statement is accurate. What farm product represents any such amount of protected industry? Certainly, it is not his wheat, butter, meat, eggs, poultry, or other food for man, nor the farmer's corn nor oats that furnish food for beasts.

I know laborers are more lavish with their money than other investors or capitalists. But if any farmer possessed of more land than he and his family can work, is not hiring at advanced prices in order to have iron men, in the shape of railroads, advance his freights to furnish the farmer a larger internal or home market, the question is beyond me.

I am naturally and by education a Blaine Republican, but how Blaine is to be elected in the free-trade and doubtful States, under our electoral system, which needs electors and not majorities, or why it is to a farmer's interest, if away from tide or water transportation, to favor either corners, monopolies, or large dealers paying enormous rentals, is a problem I have failed to solve.

Very respectfully, HARDWOOD.

THE POTATO TARIFF.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The plaint of the New York potato-dealer referred to on page 2 in No. 1175 of the *Nation* suggests a reply to the stock protectionist argument that if a duty on a given article be removed, the amount of it would at once be added by the foreign producer to the price of the article when exported by him. "If," says he, "they [the Scottish, English, and Dutch potato-producers] send as much as they do while there is still a fifteen-cent tariff on potatoes, what would be the limit of this supply *if that much profit is added to each bushel?*" It is claimed by the protectionists that a tariff, instead of enhancing prices, really reduces them, because, by securing the home market to home producers, competition in that market between home producers reduces prices far below the amount of the duty. But competition is fully as keen in the foreign as in the home market, and the canny Scot or thrifty Hollander would not hesitate long about cutting prices on potatoes or anything else in order to make sales to the American importer. Doubtless the timid New York potato-dealer fears that the English, Scottish, and Dutch potato-producers would form a "Potato Trust," and mutually pledge each other not to sell potatoes to any American dealer at a less price than that ruling in the European markets, plus the fifteen-cent duty removed. Let him be consoled, however, for if the duty be not added to the price of potatoes by the American producer because of competition, neither will the amount of it be added by the foreign producer, for the same reason. CLAYTON HARRINGTON.

OGDEN, IA., January 7, 1888.

COMMERCIAL UNION WITH CANADA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the short paragraph that you devote to Canadian affairs in your last issue, you do not exaggerate the importance of the East Northumberland election as an evidence of the growing popularity of the commercial-union movement. Mr. Goldwin Smith has already pointed out that the strength of that movement is not even fairly represented by the result of that election, for the reasons that, in the first place, it was not made at all clear that the return of Dr. Mallory could have any practical effect in bringing about a commercial union, and, in the second place, that the Government candidate took the sting out of Dr. Mallory's candidature to a considerable extent by soliciting votes for himself as a champion of the largest measure of reciprocity. The difference between "commercial union" and "the largest measure of reciprocity" is clear enough in one aspect of the matter, but the two things are not so essentially different as to make the defeat of the commercial-union candidate a conclusive evidence that a majority of the voters are not in favor of the principle for which he stood.

The comments which follow your mention of the result of the election furnish much food for reflection to the advocates of the movement on this side of the line. You allude to the fact that Mr. Chamberlain keeps pointing out to the Canadians that political union must follow commercial union pretty closely. Without attempting to pass judgment upon this view of the matter, which is keenly debated here, I wish to assure your readers that the moment it is made clear to the Canadian mind that this is the correct view of the question, that moment the commercial-union movement will receive its quietus on this side of the line. You will observe, if you are at all interested in following the course of the discussion here, how exceedingly careful the advocates of the movement in this country are to dissociate it from any connection with what are known as annexation sentiments. The evidences of this anxiety are clearly apparent in the resolution adopted a few months ago by the conference of provincial premiers at Quebec; in the letter of Hon. Mr. Fielding, Premier of Nova Scotia, read at the recent dinner of the Merchants' Association in Boston; in the furious attack made by the St. John *Telegraph* (a commercial-union advocate) upon the editor of its contemporary for suggesting annexation as a possible solution of the question; in the constant and vehement disclaimer of annexation sentiments by the leading Liberal organ in Toronto, and in the manifest reluctance of the Halifax Liberal organs to commit themselves to annexation views. There is, it is true, a certain dash and raciness about Mr. Longley's unquestionably clever advocacy of the measure which overstep the boundary that its more sober and politic advocates have set to the discussion of the question; but even he would not be willing to place himself on record as a Canadian politician in favor of commercial union, with political incorporation as the necessary sequel.

I do not propose to discuss here the desirableness or otherwise of a political union between this country and yours. From the standpoint of material interests the matter is really too plain for argument. It might fairly be contended, moreover, that such a union would immediately elevate the character of our statesmanship and ennoble our public life, by giving us large and living political issues in lieu of the petty questions of harbor appropriations and branch railways on which of late our election contests have been too frequently fought out. If we could be assured of perpetual amity between the parent country and its lusty offspring on this side of the Atlantic, all reasonable sentimental objections to such a union would also vanish, and if such assurances were possible, the complete political union of the whole continent under one sovereignty, in perpetual alliance, offensive and defensive, with their kin beyond the sea, leading the civilization and preserving the peace of the world, would surely be a consummation devoutly to be wished.

The prospect of the perpetual existence of an international boundary of four thousand miles, with its parallel rows of custom-houses and fortifications, with the union jack and the stars and stripes perpetually confronting each other (to borrow from Mr. Lane's excellent speech at the Boston banquet), with its constant exposure to the risk of collisions, and the obvious possibility of a destructive and desolating war, is certainly not a very pleasant one to dwell upon, however jauntily it may be welcomed by a few narrow and shallow organs of imperialism in this country. But at the same time, when you say, as you do, that no intelligent man doubts that a political union between the two countries will some day be brought about, you state the case too strongly, and I am satisfied that you altogether underrate the strength of Cana-

dian national sentiment. That sentiment is weakest in the province of Nova Scotia, but even here, although a provincial election was carried a couple of years ago in favor of the repeal of the Canadian union, there is not more than one county in the province, if I am justified in making even that one exception, in which a seat would be carried for annexation, while in Ontario and New Brunswick it is almost regarded as sinful to suggest such a thing as annexation even as a remote possibility of the future. I will not at present ask for any of your valuable and well-filled space to account for the strength of this sentiment, but will only say in conclusion that a commercial union, with the concomitants and the sequel that you think must necessarily accompany and follow it, is not at present, and cannot be for many years to come, within the range of practical politics.

B. RUSSELL.

HALIFAX, January 5, 1888.

DE GUSTIBUS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: My text this time is furnished by the letter of Mr. T. J. Albert in the *Nation* of January 5. He complains that politics is no longer a question of Republicans or Democrats, but of Cleveland or Blaine men; that for the first time we lean upon the counter-opinions of the Presidential candidates; that this publication of personal views is substituting pronunciamientos in place of platforms and national conventions, and thus reducing this country to the level of the South American republics. And he urges that if the politicians do rally to the support of this or that man, the voters should unite in choosing discreet and able men as delegates to a convention to make a platform, and nominate men who will represent its principles.

It seems to me that just this thing which he complains of is one of the most hopeful signs of the times, and that personal leadership is the one thing absolutely necessary to keep the politics of this country, local as well as general, from falling into utter chaos. National conventions and platforms did well enough when this country did not need any governing. But the world never has been and never can be governed by means of them. It always has been and always will be governed by men—propositions of which the history of France is one long illustration from 1789 to this day, and which, when we once frankly recognize them, will bring light into a great many dark places in our politics.

The word "pronunciamiento" has got a bad odor, because the Spanish generals who use it proceed to slaughter and banish their opponents and set up a military despotism till some stronger man takes his turn. But in the sense in which Mr. Albert uses it it describes perfectly such measures as Mr. Gladstone's Home Rule and Irish Church Bills, Disraeli's 1867 Reform Bill, Earl Grey's Parliamentary Reform Bill, Sir Robert Peel's measure for repealing the Corn Laws, and a host of others of the most beneficent political measures of modern times, while it is just the wrangling over the generalities of platforms and the efforts of party wire-pullers to evolve some order and compromise out of jarring factions, that make Congress today a spectacle for gods and men.

There is no one lesson which the history of the world teaches more thoroughly than that a few disciplined men, implicitly following a leader, can defeat and overthrow many times their number, following only ideas which each individual or group interprets for itself. This country is already not without examples of this, and will furnish some sad ones if it persists in the methods which Mr. Albert advocates.

The great mass, and the best part, of the people of the country are quite too busy in getting a living to have any definite opinions upon the tariff, civil-service reform, finance, or any other purely political question, but they are quite susceptible of enthusiasm for individuals; and the way to promote any cause, good or bad, is to connect it with some personality. If those who desire good ends are too fastidious to do this, they are shut off from complaining of those who, desiring bad ends, have no such scruples. What may be thus achieved is well shown by the letter of Mr. Whittlesey which precedes that of Mr. Albert. He says: "The late message has cleared the air, and one of the surprises of the next Presidential campaign will be in the number of cultivated men who will resume their functions as citizens"—which is just owing to this element of personality. And if Blaine and Cleveland should be the candidates, the next campaign will tell more clearly than any ever has done what the real wish of the country is as to tariff and revenue reform. I think your readers, each in his own neighborhood, will have noticed what a sudden desire has seized everybody, since the President's message, to know something about the tariff; just as, some years ago, when Butler was a candidate for the Governorship of Massachusetts upon a greenback platform, although it had been previously impossible to get anybody to attend to the subject, the halls were suddenly crowded with audiences greedy for information, and the demand for speakers far outran the supply.

The fact is, there is still not personality enough. The President has fired a shot in the air and met with a hearty response, but the issue raised is the subject of an internecine conflict between private interests in the lobby as to which the public know nothing. If a Secretary of the Treasury, representing the views of the President, and through him of the nation, stood upon the floor of Congress, holding in his hand a definite measure of revenue reform, the struggle, which now rages under ground, would at least be brought out to the light of day, so that the country could judge of the arguments and motives which are brought into play. A leader of opposition would of necessity be developed, and the country would not only take sides with individuals, but have an opportunity of getting some reasons for its choice.

Mr. Albert would probably be horrified at the idea of the Cabinet having seats in Congress, but I believe it is the indispensable preliminary to an adequate settlement not merely of the tariff, but of a good many other political questions which are piling up upon us.

G. B.

BOSTON, January 14, 1888.

OUR LAGGING POST-OFFICE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In view of the favorable financial aspect of the Annual Report of the Postmaster-General, I notice in some of the newspapers which have reached me here various hopeful expressions that soon the rate of postage may safely be still further reduced. But in view of the absurdly high and extravagant scale of living on which (thanks to our protective system) in America we have to live, and which we seem to enjoy, is not postage relatively cheap enough now? At least, is it not worth while to do something to put our postal service on a level with that of other civilized countries? It has been often said—and the sting lies in the fact that the charge is true—that our postal system in its management simply lags behind that of other great countries. Is it not high time that *postal delivery* was greatly extended, so as to embrace all towns, and in the more settled portions of our country even the rural districts? To intelligent people here our "going to the post-office" is simply incomprehensible. Some time ago I experienced considerable difficulty in explaining to a postal clerk here, who was disposed to interrogate me as to the P. O. box direction on a letter addressed to a person in a small town, what "going to the post-office" in America meant. I hardly need say that he seemed to be highly amused, and I may add that I was not a little ashamed. The waste of time and manifold inconvenience connected with going for one's mail two or three times a day, for example, in a town of two or three thousand inhabitants, is at once ridiculous and, in an age that seeks to add to efficiency by time and labor-saving appliances, hardly civilized.

It is not the purpose of this letter to point out *how* this reform may be accomplished, but may I not be permitted to suggest that the expense would not be so great as at first supposed, for the post-office would not need to be the expensive (?) luxury that we now too frequently see, and the force employed in the office, except as the postmen might be utilized there, would be comparatively small? Instead of three or four persons using a considerable portion of the time that belongs to the public in "canvassing the political situation," we should secure some real service. Nothing but ignorance on the part of the people who are not fortunate enough to live in free-delivery towns, of what a service real delivery is, has so long reconciled an indulgent public to what is almost a grievance.

P.

BERLIN, PRUSSIA, December 26, 1887.

DARWIN'S CLASSICAL TRAINING.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: That must have been a very extraordinary teacher who contrived to instruct Darwin in the classics without giving him any training in habits of observation and reasoning. To be sure, learning declensions and conjugations is not necessarily an exercise of the reason, but it certainly involves systematic observation, since all memory depends on antecedent observation. But a boy might know "by heart" all the forms in the Greek grammar, and yet he could not understand the simplest Greek sentence without using his reasoning powers.

To read Latin and Greek it is necessary (1) to notice carefully the significant prefixes and suffixes—*i. e.*, to observe; (2) to determine from these the relation of the words to one another—*i. e.*, to reason. For example, when a boy reading Greek has to translate a circumstantial participle, if he is properly trained he will consider the connection of thought, and translate by a clause beginning with "when," "if," "because," or whatever conjunction brings out the relation expressed. Is there no exercise of the thought power in this?

A teacher of language has his laboratory as well as he who teaches natural science. But his specimens are words and sentences instead of natural objects. Is not dissecting an oration of Cicero as good a mental discipline as dissecting an animal?

Furthermore, the study of Latin and Greek affords more exercise of the reasoning faculty than the reading of, for instance, French. For in the former we have to observe the forms of the words, and reason chiefly from that how to put them together, while in French the order of the words in most cases shows the construction. Viewed simply as a means of mental gymnas-

tics, then, the study of the classics is valuable. What practical value it has is a different question, to which Mr. Darwin's words, quoted in your last issue, do not seem to refer.

I should not call attention to these very obvious facts did not your correspondent's extracts from Mr. Darwin's writings ignore them altogether. C.

ANNANDALE, N. Y., January 16, 1888.

THE PROGRESS OF COEDUCATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Any one interested in the progress of coeducation may find it useful to examine the following tables, which are compiled from the reports of the Commissioner of Education for 1874 and 1884-5 (the latter being the last issue at hand). In every case the numbers give the sum total of both scientific and classical students:

COLLEGES FOR MEN.

	1874.	1884.
Yale	798	877
Amherst	331	335
Harvard	786	1,082
Williams	161	254
Dartmouth	342	400
Princeton	407	514
Columbia	316	573
University of Pennsylvania	195	344

COLLEGES FOR MEN AND WOMEN.

	1874.		1884.	
	Men.	Women.	Men.	Women.
Wesleyan	176	7	185	16
Bates	97	3	104	20
Colby University	75	7	117	13
Cornell	436	32	523	40
Boston University	36	16	109	57

COLLEGES FOR WOMEN.

	1874.	1884.
Vassar	265	238
Wellesley	—	515
Smith	—	296
Bryn-Mawr	—	(1887) 79

In addition to these colleges for women, it must be remembered that the Harvard Annex is in a highly prosperous condition, that Evelyn College for women has recently been established at Princeton, and that a new female college is soon to be erected in Massachusetts.

It seems to me that an unprejudiced examination of these figures must lead to these conclusions: That colleges limited to one sex enjoy a remarkable degree of prosperity; that women prefer colleges open only to women; that the necessity does not exist of admitting female students to colleges heretofore reserved for men; that in the Eastern section of the country collegiate coeducation will not be extended. Unquestionably women should have access to collegiate training, and undoubtedly there are colleges, reserved for women, well equipped and of high standing.

In the West there is a very different state of things, and it is hard to deduce conclusions. The Eastern colleges draw students largely from this section of the country, which goes to show that certain colleges are more popular than others—very possibly the question of coeducation determines the choice of the college selected. The colleges of the West are overwhelmingly coeducational, yet many of them are colleges only in name; and people who object to coeducation for the college do not oppose it for the school. The State universities, being supported in some measure by public taxation, will always be open to both sexes; as far as other institutions are concerned, as time goes on, things may adjust themselves as they have in the East. It is interesting to know that a women's college is to be established in Denver, the seat of a coeducational university; that the Californian Women's College is prosperous; that Mt. Holyoke Seminary has established a college course, and therefore extended its corporate name, and that (according to newspaper report) the collegiate department of Western Reserve will hereafter close its doors to women.

I am, etc., WILLIAM A. MERRILL.

COLLEGE HILL, OHIO, January 13, 1888.

Notes.

WE are pleased to learn that Mr. George P. Upton has actually in preparation the sequel to his 'Standard Cantatas' which we recently urged upon him in our review of the work just named. His 'Standard Symphonies' will appear in the fall, will include the nine of Beethoven, the six most popular of Haydn, the three great ones of Mozart, all of Mendelssohn's and Schumann's, two of Schubert's, two of Gade's, four of Brahms's, a liberal representation from the modern romantic school, and representative symphonic poems such as Liszt's and Saint-Saëns's—the best of them to be accompanied by musical illustrations. It is possible a fifth volume may be added to the series, devoted to suites, overtures, and miscellaneous orchestral compositions, in the course of another year.

The Military Order of the Loyal Legion of the United States contemplates a new edition in book form of the thirty-seven papers read at its stated meetings in 1883-1888. Many of these are now very scarce. They "give accounts of personal experiences and observations of actual participants in the stirring events to which they relate." If enough copies are subscribed for at the cost of manufacture, $2.00 per volume, two octavo volumes of about 400 pages each will be handsomely produced under the title, 'Sketches of War History, 1861-1865,' and issued successively. The pages will not be stereotyped. Subscriptions should be addressed to the Recorder, Capt. A. H. Mattox, P. O. Box 86, Cincinnati.

G. P. Putnam's Sons' spring announcements include 'The Fall of New France, 1755-1760,' by Gerald E. Hart, President of the Montreal Society for Historical Studies; 'Bibliotheca Jeffersoniana,' a list of works written by or referring to Thomas Jefferson, compiled and annotated by Hamilton B. Tompkins (uniform with the Hamilton and Franklin series of the same publishers); a 'Life of Lincoln,' by Noah Brooks; 'Governor Chamberlain's Administration in South Carolina: a Chapter of Reconstruction,' by Walter Allen; a new edition of Simon Sterne's 'Constitutional History and Political Development of the United States'; 'The Relations of Church and State in the United States: or, the American Idea of Religious Liberty, and its Practical Results,' by the Rev. Philip Schaff; 'The Religious Aspect of Evolution,' by President McCosh; Prof. Luigi Cossa's 'Taxation: its Principles and Methods,' edited and annotated by Horace White; 'Property in Land: an Essay on the New Crusade,' by Henry Winn; 'Essays on Hysteria, etc.,' by Mary Putnam Jacobi, M.D.; 'Proverbs and Phrases of All Ages,' classified, by Robert Christy; 'Poems of the Plains,' by Thomas B. Peacock; 'Andiatorocté, and Other Poems,' by the Rev. Clarence A. Walworth; 'Before the Dawn,' a story of the Paris Jacquerie; and sundry additions to the "Story of the Nations" series.

Professor Villari's enlarged edition of his 'Savonarola,' the source of inspiration of George Eliot's 'Romola,' has compelled a new translation, which has been undertaken by his wife under his supervision. It will be published by T. Fisher Unwin, London, who will illustrate it with portraits of famous men of the time, and with numerous plates.

Brugmann's 'Elements of a Comparative Grammar of the Indo-Germanic Languages,' vol. i, "Introduction and Phonology," translated from the German by Joseph Wright, Ph. D., will be published immediately by B. Westermann & Co. The same firm have just ready 'Elia of Sobha's Syriac Grammar,' edited and translated from the MSS. in the Berlin Royal Library by Richard J. H. Gottheil.

The interesting announcement is made that the National Museum at Washington has undertaken the formation of a study-collection of casts of Assyrian and Babylonian Antiquities in association with the Johns Hopkins University, beginning with those preserved in this country. The Johns Hopkins University will attend to the proper arrangement and cataloguing of the Assyrian collection in the National Museum, under the supervision of Dr. Paul Haupt, Professor of Semitic Languages, and Dr. Cyrus Adler, assistant in the Semitic courses, who will also coöperate in the work of forming the collection and of securing the loan of objects to be copied.

'Turning Points of Thought and Conduct,' by Dr. James Morris Whiton, is in the press of Thomas Whittaker.

Glancing over the contents of vol. ii of *Scribner's Magazine*, as it comes to us complete and bound, we meet the closing letters in the much-discussed Thackeray series; the two striking papers by Prof. Shaler, on the "Instability of the Atmosphere" and on "Caverns and Cavern Life"; Dr. Sargent's two papers on physical proportions and athletic development; Mr. J. C. Ropes's second paper in illustration of Napoleon and his times; the Bowne letters, since made into a book—'A Girl's Life Eighty Years Ago'; Mr. John S. White's "Viking Ship," and not a little else that we read with pleasure and profit on its first appearance in this monthly.

One of the best conceived and best executed works of its kind, Dr. Israel Ward Andrews's 'Manual of the Constitution of the United States' (Cincinnati: Van Antwerp, Bragg & Co.), has just undergone a second revision, with special reference to its greater adaptability to school use. We prefer the typography of the first edition, but in all other respects the present is welcome as continuing the view of the Constitution and laws to the latest date. The Constitution of Illinois, taken as a specific example of State constitutions in the first edition, has given way to that of Ohio—no doubt to meet a local demand.

The 'Elements of Analytical Mechanics,' by Prof. P. S. Michie, published by Wiley & Sons (1887), is a most excellent book of its class. It is the second edition, but differs very much from the first, which was never published. It is on the plan of Bartlett's and Wood's books on the same subject, but is confined to the mechanics of solids. We are not acquainted with any American book which gives so satisfactory a discussion of the rotation of a free rigid solid due to impulsive forces. There is a very good discussion of the Potential, and likewise a good introduction to graphical statics. The author has evidently taken great pains to be brief and clear, and seems to us to have succeeded admirably. Here and there are slight errors, mainly typographical. The author makes *density* and *specific gravity* synonymous; but the two are numerically the same only when the mass of unit volume is assumed as the unit of mass.

The fourth volume in the series of 'Mineral

Resources of the United States,' issued by the Geographical Survey at Washington, covers the calendar year 1886, and is sold at the low price of fifty cents. Its chapters on mineral ores, coal, petroleum, natural gas, building stones, fertilizers, etc., etc., are full of information for the merchant, mechanic, or simple layman. Some economical lessons are obtainable. It appears that the South Carolina phosphate output for the year in question fell below that of 1885, owing to a break in prices. Any very marked decrease in this region would make available a fairly good phosphatic rock in North Carolina, not so readily mined. The diminution in the supply of the best quality of Bavarian lithographic stone is stimulating search for its equivalent in this country with good promise in Tennessee. But, says the reporter, "a drawback which has thus far presented itself in the development of deposits of lithographic stone in the United States consists in [the difficulty of] obtaining men sufficiently skilled in quarrying, selecting, and dressing the stone, to put it into the hands of the consumers in the best shape." We "protect" this infant industry by forbidding the importation of Bavarian workmen having the requisite skill, under contract.

Whitaker's Almanack (New York: Thomas Whittaker) puts in its familiar appearance for 1888. Those who know all that is in it are few; those who go to it in vain are perhaps fewer still.

The revival of *Book Notes* at Providence, R. I., by Mr. Sidney S. Rider is a matter of congratulation. It will be published—a little four-page leaflet—fortnightly, at fifty cents a year, returning in any given number, we venture to predict, the whole price of the subscription. Mr. Rider's "historical, literary, and critical" personality (to misapply his subheading) is very racy and individual, especially when he has occasion to express himself about the tariff, as every book-lover must, sooner or later. Mr. Rider's book notices are always independent and often learned, as in his present friendly exposure of the shortcomings in Mr. Hammett's 'Bibliography of Newport.' Back numbers of the former series of *Book Notes* command a considerable premium, and we wish for the new a circulation which will inure to the benefit rather of the editor than of antiquarian dealers.

To another periodical, not new, we extend our good wishes—we mean the *Swiss Cross*, now entering on its third volume (New York: N. D. C. Hodges, 47 Lafayette Place). The significance of its name is apparent when we mention that it is the monthly organ of the Agassiz Association, a widely distributed body. We cannot expect even so well conducted a magazine as this, which appeals to extremes of youth, to attain the popularity of the children's magazines addicted to stories mostly. The reason why our education neglects the cultivation of the observing faculties is to be found in the constitution of the average mind, which is open to what addresses the imagination and the capacity for acquiring languages, but only now and again takes kindly to science. The same reason determines what reading children like most. As they get too much of fiction, in our opinion, we should like to see the *Swiss Cross* act as a corrective where it may.

To the Class of 1881, Harvard College, Mr. William Coolidge Lane (of the Library) has made a report on "The University during the Past Years"—a little pamphlet of twenty-one pages as it comes to us in a reprint. We need not go into the details of his review of a very noticeable period in the history of the College, including the logical extension of the elective system to the Freshman year. The report is adorned with heliotype views of the new buildings, the John Harvard statue, etc.

We have also before us the first annual report of the Harvard Law School Association, a very cheerful document. The membership has grown to 644, and the Association, while not satisfied with this figure, takes credit for having augmented the attendance at the Law School. It will repeat its annual dinner the day before Commencement. The Treasurer, who confirms membership with a receipt for three dollars, is Mr. Winthrop H. Wade, 10 Tremont Street, Boston.

President Angell's report to the Board of Regents of Michigan University notes an increase of thirty-six in the attendance of women during 1886–87, and a relative gain in numbers with respect to the male students. They now form nearly seventeen per cent. of the whole. He bears witness to their capacity to meet the severest tests of the common discipline, and says: "The advantages derived from the University courses have proved as helpful to the women in their lives subsequent to their graduation as to the men." Of both sexes, he says: "The number of farmers' children exceeds every other class." "Harvard University now distributes to students $66,000 a year, a sum larger than our total receipts from students."

M. Pierre Viala, Professor of Viticulture at the Montpellier Agricultural College, was sent to this country last year by the French Government to examine the American vines, and discover which species would be best adapted to the soil of southern France. His preliminary report to the Minister of Agriculture, which is published in the *Revue Scientifique* for December 24, describes briefly the different American vines, three of which he specifies as peculiarly suited to that region. His general conclusion is, that "we have to rely especially on the American stocks bearing our indigenous varieties in order to be assured of the revival of our vineyards and to maintain the legitimate reputation of the French wines."

The Paris Bureau des Halles et Marchés has published an interesting table showing the comparative amounts of the different principal articles of food consumed by a single person in the years 1881 and 1886, which seems to indicate a slight decrease of the general wealth. The Parisian, for instance, ate more bread in 1886 than he did five years before, but less fish and butcher's meat, though more pork and sausages. He had more oysters and cheese, but less butter and fewer eggs. His consumption of wine fell from 224 litres in 1881 to 186, and there was also a falling off in his beer-drinking, which was not made up by a more than five-fold increase in his consumption of cider, perry, and hydromel.

The most interesting paper in the December *Petermann's Mitteilungen* is Dr. Hans Meyer's account of his ascent of the east African mountain, Kilimanjaro, in July of last year. All his companions gave out before the summit was reached, and he climbed the last snow-field in a blinding storm of sleet, only to find himself confronted by a perpendicular wall of ice over a hundred feet high, which seemed to surround the crater. An excellent map accompanies the paper. Following this are extended notices of three of the maps in Berghaus's 'Physical Atlas,' the meteorological and those showing the dispersion of plants and animals. Dr. Schinz continues his caustic criticisms of Mr. Farini's African travels. From tables prepared by M. Boinet Bey, the population of Egypt is shown to have increased from 4,476,439 in 1846 to 6,806,381 in 1882.

The French papers announce the death of M. Eugène Yung, for twenty-four years the director of the *Revue-Politique et Littéraire*, or *Revue Bleue*, as it is more generally known. He is succeeded by M. Henri Ferrari.

The *Débats* is publishing as its feuilleton an unpublished story of Capt. Mayne Reid's, called "Under the Mangroves."

—The second number of the *Woman's World* contains some interesting matter. There is an exceedingly forcible article by Mrs. Laura M'Laren on the causes which have contributed to a belief in the mental inferiority of women, ending with an appeal to the public for a suspension of judgment on that subject for one more century: if by the year 1988 the position of women in the artistic, musical, scientific, and literary worlds is not equal to that of the other sex, it will then be time to consider the question as settled against her. There is an interesting article by Mrs. Dinah Mulock Craik, which reached the editor only a few days before her death, in which the author maintains that it is monstrous that the country which produced Shakspere should be obliged to beg, borrow, or steal from other countries the dramatic element which it could find in itself if the play-going public would insist upon having plays of a higher order, and looks to Mary Anderson and Wilson Barrett to demonstrate that there is still a wholesome vitality in the British drama. It is doubtful, however, whether players of more force of character than either of these two are not needed to reform the stage. There is also a long fashion article. To a delicate taste, there is something unpleasant in seeing discussions of fashions mixed up with the most serious questions of life and art. Fashion papers doubtless serve a useful purpose—they are the means of diffusing a pleasing consciousness of being well dressed through hamlets and towns very remote from the centres where fashion has its origin; but they are not dignified mediums through which to address an audience of cultivated persons. In a book on cosmetics and tight-lacing and the care of the feet, a person of genuine refinement, let alone an ordinary sense of humor, does not communicate far-reaching theories of mental and moral development. Books and papers of this kind are to be read, if they are read at all, in the privacy of the dressing-room, and they cannot be exposed on the library table without some feeling of degradation. In view of this elementary principle of good taste, it is rather surprising to see that such women as Mrs. Fawcett, Mrs. Henry Sidgwick, Mrs. Marshall, Anna Swanwick, and Julia Wedgwood, have promised their coöperation to what is, in the first instance, a journal of fashion.

—We speak elsewhere of that extraordinary photographic record of phases of animal locomotion made by Mr. E. Muybridge, under the auspices of the University of Pennsylvania. It remains to state that the analysis of supposed simple movements into compound thus effected can be followed by a synthesis, with the aid of the zoetrope, and especially with the aid of the stereopticon. In other words, the galloping horse, the flying pigeon, the leaping gymnast, the wrestlers, etc., can all be shown upon a screen in their proper action, to the delight of any audience fortunate enough to be invited to such an entertainment. Now it is evident that if there could be established in any large city—as in connection with a literary or scientific institution—a permanent "battery" of cameras such as was employed by Mr. Muybridge, an imperishable record of the figure, height, dress, carriage, and gait of any eminent man in or visiting the gallery could be had. Posterity, at the bidding of our photographic necroman-

cers, could call up any of these worthies at any future date, and see him move across the stage with a startling verisimilitude. Nay, we could have his very "walk and conversation," and could read our Lowell's line in two ways, as

"—— one of Plutarch's men talked [walked] with us face to face."

The phonograph, at the same time, as we may anticipate from its ultimate perfection, might repeat audibly to the same audience a passage read aloud by the personage in question on occasion of sitting (or walking) for his portrait before the battery. A collection of such recitations would furnish invaluable examples of the speech of the cultivated at any given epoch.

—For some years *Nord und Süd* has made a practice of giving its readers well-written accounts of the most sensational criminal trials of the day in Berlin, Vienna, and other Continental cities, thus furnishing a sort of literary standing to persons and incidents that otherwise would enjoy only the momentary notoriety of the newspaper, and even then would be skipped by the cultivated reader. The Zalewski trial, however, which is discussed by F. Gross in the November number, has, if the commentator's hypothesis is correct, a certain intrinsic connection with literature. Zalewski was born in 1855, and at the age of eighteen got a place in a country post-office, where he forged money-orders, and was in consequence sentenced to six months' imprisonment. At the end of his term he was required to serve in the army, in which he stayed till 1885, when he got another place in the postal service, this time in Vienna. His previous offence would have prevented this, but the copy of the circular letter concerning it had been lost. After a short time he was assigned, at his request, to duty in the registered-letter office. On May 26, 1887, he succeeded in stealing $75,000. In the two years he had been in the Vienna Post-office his salary had been raised from $150 to $450 a year, and he had married. His plan for escape was as carefully thought out as was the intended robbery, yet, according to Mr. Gross, the whole affair was due less to the motives which govern common criminals than to ambition to be the hero of what we call a "dime" novel. The characters and incidents of the crime read as if copied from fiction, unless, indeed, fiction of this sort is truer to life than has been supposed. Zalewski's first object, of course, was to get into a position where there would be something to steal, and in this he seems to have found no difficulty. His second was to provide for his escape, and here his plans were equally successful. He assumed the existence of one of the stock characters of cheap fiction, the poor, but honest and refined woman, between youth and middle-age—the "white slave, who unites the appearance of a lady with the work of a servant." On the 22d of April he advertised to the effect that a well-to-do civil servant wished, as a wife, an educated and sensible woman, poverty no obstacle. Johanna Nathanson, teacher of music and languages, aged twenty-seven, answered the advertisement. To her Zalewski called himself the Ritter von Till, said he was pursued by his relatives, and persuaded her to change her lodging so that he could visit her without being seen. He also accustomed her to the idea, during the following month, that he might have to seek refuge from his pursuers with her. She was accordingly prepared to receive him when, on the night of the robbery, he appeared. She kept him in her lodging, where she lived without a servant, a month, during which the town was full of the hue and cry for Zalewski, and yet never suspected his identity with her "knight." "Why should she?" she replied to a question at the trial. "Was he not her fiancé?" The mind of this cultivated damsel must have been fed, one would think, upon very unrealistic literature to trust any lover so absolutely as this.

—Meantime Zalewski saw no one but his brother, who appears to have become an accessory after the fact. This brother, a sergeant in the army, lived on intimate terms with a maid-servant, who, at his request, got an emigrant's passport, whereupon Johanna and her maid (alias Zalewski) set out for Havre, whence he sailed for this country, and she returned to Vienna. While he was at sea, the police, through an indiscretion of the sergeant, came upon the trail, and telegraphed to New York for Zalewski's arrest, which was effected. Now comes the really extraordinary part of the business. The Austrian Consul reported that the extradition of Zalewski might be difficult, and the lawyers (who at once offered their services) could at any rate postpone it for months. But Zalewski offered voluntarily to return, saying he should personally lay his case before the Emperor. At the preliminary trial, however, he urged that he was a victim of morphine, and had committed his crime when in an irresponsible state. But, finding that this plea made no impression, he developed the plan of defence to which he adhered to the end, in spite of its manifold absurdities, and which has made the trial a *cause célèbre*. This was, that he had been the slave of a secret political society whose object was the disintegration of Austria in the interest of the Slavic nationalities. It was through the society that he had procured his place in the postal service, and that the authorities had overlooked his previous "irregularity"; and, finally, its threat of exposing him, and so causing his dismissal, was the sole cause of his reluctantly consenting to steal the money, which, of course, was intended for the society's treasury. The money taken, Zalewski had fully intended to pay it over, but the agents of the society failed to meet him at the time appointed, and, being now alarmed for his safety, he had fled to America. These alleged disclosures attracted much attention, in spite of the inconsistency, which was easily shown, between them and Zalewski's acts. If his story was mad, there certainly was method in it, and it appears that public opinion in German Austria is quite ready to believe in conspiracies and the like. Zalewski was, however, sentenced to eight years' imprisonment—his dupe, Johanna, being at the same time acquitted.

—The session of the French Academy of January 26 will be one of unusual interest. The election to fill the vacancies made by the deaths, in July and October last, of MM. Caro, Viel-Castel, and Cuvillier-Fleury, has been appointed for that day. The candidates are numerous, those of most importance being, for the seat of M. Caro, M. Paul Janet and the Count Othenin d'Haussonville; for that of M. de Viel-Castel, Admiral Jurien de la Gravière, the Marquis Melchior de Vogüé, and M. Rothan; for that of M. Cuvillier-Fleury, MM. J. J. Weiss and Jules Claretie. M. Régis Chantelauze is the only candidate at large of importance. The most eminent of all these is undoubtedly M. Paul Janet, and there would be a peculiar fitness in his selection as a successor to Caro, although the literary and philosophical qualities of the two writers are so dissimilar. As the Count Othenin d'Haussonville is a candidate for the same seat, however, it is possible that M. Janet's superior claims may be passed over, unless his competitor should change his candidature to the seat of M. Cuvillier-Fleury, for which none of the applicants are of superior merit. When M. Gréard was elected last year to fill the place of the Comte de Falloux, much indignation was expressed among the Orleanists, and very loudly by certain Orleanist papers, that M. d'Haussonville, who was also a candidate, should not have been successful. The present election can scarcely pass without his friends, personal and political, making an effort that will elect him to one of the three vacancies. The candidates for M. de Viel-Castel's seat are all good. Admiral Jurien de la Gravière is already a member of the Institute (Académie des Sciences), and is well known to readers of the *Revue des Deux Mondes* from his interesting papers, on the French marine during the early part of the century, which have been appearing recently in its pages, and also from earlier works on the marine of the ancients, of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, and especially for his accounts of his own early and later expeditions to the Orient, the Levant, the South Seas, and elsewhere. He is seventy-five years old, which is always an additional argument in favor of a candidate for the Academy. The Marquis (formerly Comte) Melchior de Vogüé is also a member of the Institute (Académie des Inscriptions et Belles-Lettres). He is an archæologist, and has written much about Syria and Palestine, where he has spent a good deal of time. He was Ambassador at Constantinople from 1871 to 1875, when he was transferred to Vienna, where he remained until after McMahon resigned the Presidency of the republic, in 1879, when he also resigned his position. Of late years he has published in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, at long intervals, a series of very interesting papers on "Villars, diplomate," which he now signs simply "Vogüé." He is about fifty-eight years of age, and is not to be confounded with the Vicomte Eugène Melchior de Vogüé, the charming writer in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* upon Russia and Russian literature, who is a much younger man.

—The third candidate for the seat of M. de Viel-Castel, M. G. Rothan, is also a diplomatist, whose writings upon the foreign policy of France during the Second Empire give him very serious claims to the position. In the six volumes of these which have been published, the literary and personal value of the author adds to the interest of the fine and delicate observation and divination of the diplomatist, who, it has been well said, would have had only to change the tenses of the verbs in his despatches to convert them later into a history of the period, so exact were his previsions. As secretary and chargé-d'affaires of the French embassy at Berlin and elsewhere in Germany, Consul-General at Frankfort, and afterwards minister at some of the smaller courts, he was peculiarly well placed to unravel the intricacies of German policy during the years which paved the way for the Franco-Prussian war. More recently M. Rothan has written about the events and personages of what is now history, with the picturesque vigor and animation of a contemporary, and with a penetration which spares neither the Prussia nor the France of the past, and lays bare all the springs that set in motion the complications so disastrous to his own country. Both M. Rothan and M. de Vogüé, as well as M. Paul Janet, have the peculiar fitness to replace the Academician for whose seat they are candidates, which seems to be a great advantage in such a case, if not always a necessity, in the similarity of their previous careers and the direction of their literary labors.

—It is only eighteen months since Liszt died, at the age of seventy-six, and now the cable

announces the death, at Paris, of one of his greatest contemporaries and countrymen, Stephen Heller, who was born three years after Liszt (May 15, 1814), at Pesth. Like most great pianists, he was a youthful prodigy, and at the age of nine played with his teacher a concerto for two pianos in a Pesth theatre. In Vienna he appeared as pianist at the age of thirteen, and two years later undertook a concert tour through Germany. At Augsburg he made the acquaintance of a wealthy lady, who took him into her house as teacher for her children; and here his musical intelligence ripened rapidly. In 1838 he went to Paris, where he has remained ever since, esteemed as teacher and composer. But at first he had to struggle with poverty, and met with considerable opposition, owing to the novel form of his compositions and the fact that he made enemies with his critical pen. Heller's compositions afford a conspicuous illustration of the tendency of pianoforte music to abandon the artificial sonata form and seek expression in shorter and more natural forms. Oddly enough, Schumann, whose pianoforte works also illustrate this tendency, and who was one of the first to recognize Heller's genius, regrets that he should "squander his wealth in such small forms"; adding that "other, more economical composers would have made the germs of his studies suffice for entire concertos and sonatas." Had he done so, his works would have had less "future" than now seems in store for them, owing to their originality and abhorrence of triviality. Although Fétis was very wrong when he wrote that "Heller is, much more than Chopin, the modern poet of the pianoforte," Heller will rank as one of the greatest tone-poets who have made a specialty of the piano.

—By a treaty between Costa Rica and Nicaragua, signed at Guatemala December 24, 1886, it was agreed to submit to arbitration the disputes of those Governments over territorial limits, and the President of the United States was selected as arbitrator. He consented to act as such last July, and the claims and arguments of the two countries are now before him. The question is narrowed to a single point—the validity or nullity of the Treaty of April 15, 1858, which was supposed, at the time and for several years, to have been duly ratified, and to have put a happy end to an apparently interminable dissension. But the whole question was reopened seven years after by the claim, then first made by Nicaragua, that the treaty had not been properly ratified. The long and able argument against this conclusion, laid before President Cleveland by the Costa Rican Minister, reached us some days since in its English dress. It is now followed by a pamphlet bearing on the same controversy, by Señor Manuel M. de Peralta, a recognized historical authority, issued at Brussels under the title 'El Canal Interoceanico de Nicaragua y Costa Rica en 1620 y en 1887.' It contains the report on Central American affairs made by Diego de Mercado to Philip III. in 1620, involving, of course, important matter related to the early territorial divisions of the provinces, the report also of Thos. C. Reynolds of the Central and South American Commission of 1884, together with a long list of official documents bearing on the case. Señor Peralta does not put himself forward as an advocate for either party, though it is easy to see that he believes the treaty valid. It is worth noting that Mr. Bancroft, who handles the question with his customary thoroughness in his history of Central America, written before the agreement to arbitrate, is of the same opinion.

ANIMAL LOCOMOTION.

Animal Locomotion: An Electrico-photographic Investigation of Consecutive Phases of Animal Movements. By Eadweard Muybridge. Published under the auspices of the University of Pennsylvania.

THE result of years of labor and of large expenditure of money is at last laid before the public in this magnificent work. The result is one of which Mr. Muybridge and the University of Pennsylvania, as well as all those concerned either in the actual investigations or in the supply of funds for carrying them on, may well be proud, and the work should belong to every scientific and artistic institution in the country and in the world.

The words of the title must be taken in the widest sense. By far the greater number of plates are devoted to the human "animal," while the "locomotion" illustrated includes almost every action of which bones and muscles are capable. It is well known that Mr. Muybridge's investigations began in the attempt to demonstrate the falsity of some commonly accepted and traditional methods of depicting the gaits of the horse. To show how far his work has outgrown this narrow aim, it is only necessary to state that, out of the 781 plates he has now published, only 95 are devoted to the horse, and only 124 to other animals and to birds, while the other 562 are devoted to men, women, and children, nude, semi-nude, and draped, walking, running, dancing, getting up and lying down, wrestling, boxing, leaping, and playing at athletic games—in short, acting before our eyes the animal life of man.

Here we have the naked, absolute fact: here, for the first time, human eyes may see just how the human body moves in the performance of its functions, how backs bend and hips balance and muscles strain and swell. This is not art, but it is a mine of facts of nature that no artist can afford to neglect. How would Signorelli, that enthusiast of movement and anatomy, who drew his dead son naked, or Michael Angelo or Benvenuto, who thought the crupper "a beautiful bone," have revelled in such volumes as these! How splendid nature is! Here are dancing girls graceful enough to delight the soul of Raphael; athletes with heroic movement that would fire the spirit of Buonarotti; foreshortenings, and flowing contours to satisfy Tintoret; and all with the indisputable stamp of fact, painted for us by the same sun that illumined these glowing chests and cut sharp shadows under the edges of swelling muscles. Thus to see the natural man in his own motion under nature's light is a lesson to humanity of its own glory that the Puritan and the ascetic, the contemner of the nude and the ignorer of art, would do well to study.

For, any impression to the contrary notwithstanding, these plates are beautiful. There are certain phases of movement that seem awkward, certain transient moments when the limbs assume positions which none has ever seen and which strike the eye by their strangeness; but follow the whole action through its various phases, and you will find it free and noble; study the attitude at the culminating moment of an action, and you will find it superb. No one need copy the posture of some of these photographs, or imagine that because a phase of action is proved to exist it is therefore fit for immediate reproduction in art. This course, with regard to the author's photographs of the horse, has been taken by some unwise enthusiasts, and the result has been disagreeable, and has tended to throw ridicule upon all his researches. The use of these records of transient phases of motion is to show how the body passes from an earlier to a later phase, through what changes it passes from rest up to the culminating moment of action and back again to rest; and the artist's true method of study is to master the whole movement, and then to select for representation the one or two phases that most nearly convey the sense of this movement as a whole. He may even do well to throw away his photographs altogether, the action once understood, and express it by a pose not actually found in any one of them, but conveying better than any of them, taken separately, the total result of the series. For the end of art is not record but expression.

So studied, the most interesting revelation that the camera has given us is not, perhaps, that art has been occasionally wrong, but rather that it has been so generally right. In turning over these plates, one is constantly struck with the recurrence of attitudes made famous in immortal sculpture or painting. Here is John of Bologna's Mercury; here is a fragment from the Parthenon; here is a figure of Michael Angelo's or Raphael's or Tintoret's—until one is filled with wonder at the power of eye or brain that saw or divined actions and movements that have waited until now for proof of their verity. Even in the representation of the lower animals, always less carefully observed, this is true. The full-spread gallop of the horse in sporting prints is gone, but the dog has it; the canter of the horses of the Parthenon is true; and in the first equestrian statue modelled in modern times Donatello has rendered the walk with an accuracy unsurpassable. It is only the moderns and the weaklings that suffer. The Greeks and the great masters of the Renaissance saw truly and well.

There is not space, nor is there any need, to go into detail. Least has been done in the investigation of the flight of birds, where the difficulties were peculiarly great; what has been done shows the marvellous observative faculties of the Japanese, who have rendered bird-flight more truly than the artists of all other races. But the presentation of human and quadrupedal action is bewilderingly abundant and complete, and we cannot more fittingly conclude our review than by repeating our recommendation to all artistic and scientific bodies, and indeed to all private persons who can afford to do so, to subscribe at least for the one hundred plates that make up a "copy" of the work, and for as many more as they can compass the means for. Communications may be addressed to Mr. Eadweard Muybridge, in care of the University of Pennsylvania.

GEN. ORMSBY MITCHELL.—I.

Ormsby Macknight Mitchell, Astronomer and General. A biographical narrative, by his son, F. A. Mitchell. Crown 8vo, pp. viii, 392. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

THE contrast between the smooth current of a life devoted to science and the turbulent crowding of important events into a brief period of war, is well typified by the fact that Gen. Mitchell's biographer finds it necessary to devote as much space to the eighteen months of his military service as to the narrative of the preceding fifty-two years of his father's career. Yet Ormsby Mitchell's life had not been an uneventful or an uninteresting one. It is an attractive story from his infancy onward; nay, before his birth, the migration of his parents with their family from Virginia across the mountains to the Ohio, their voyage upon a flatboat through the almost unbroken wilderness hundreds of miles, their adventures on the way and in trying to make a home in the Kentucky forest, the discouragement of an evident-

ly intelligent and (for the period) well-educated family at finding by experience how uncivilized the frontier life must be, the birth of the boy in these wild surroundings, the father's early death, and the widow's struggle to provide for her family—all make up a romance as picturesque as fiction, but more interesting, because our sympathies are more deeply stirred by the knowledge that this is the very truth which happened to a man whose fame is known to us all, and who has good claim to be remembered by his scientific labors and by his patriotic service as a soldier.

While he was yet a mere child, Mitchell's mother removed with her family to Lebanon, O., some forty miles north of Cincinnati; so that, as boy and man, he always reckoned himself an Ohioan. Poverty made it necessary for him to shorten his common-school education, and when, at thirteen, in family council, his being apprenticed to a trade was under discussion, he cut the knot and showed the stuff he was made of by declaring that he would relieve the family of both care and responsibility for him if they would consent. His belief was that he could find some employment through which and in which he could continue his education, for his intellectual ambition was already roused. He found a place where, as "boy in a store," he could earn his bread and learn something besides. A year or two passed, and he discovered that the United States educated military cadets at West Point, supporting them while they were learning to be officers in the army. With characteristic energy and confidence he applied to the Congressman of the district for the appointment, and succeeded in getting such backing that he won the prize. He graduated in the class of 1829, with Robert E. Lee and Joseph E. Johnston, with good standing, and was retained at the Academy for two years as Assistant Professor of Mathematics. This was an important extension of college life and work, and probably fixed his scientific tastes and determined his career. At its close he married a daughter of Judge Clark of Cornwall, a young widow at the time, whose influence while she lived was evidently a powerful counterpoise to his impetuosity of temper, and the tendency of his strong but somewhat erratic will towards those decisions in haste of which one proverbially repents at leisure.

The army life of a subaltern in the Florida swamps was not agreeable to him, and after a brief experience of it, he resigned and took his young family to Cincinnati. His knowledge as engineer and surveyor was the readiest capital in his struggle for a livelihood, and continued to be his main reliance for some years; but in 1836 he was made Professor of Mathematics and Civil Engineering in the Cincinnati College, then newly reorganized. The Professorship gave him but a small salary, and his theodolite had still to make up the deficiency of income.

In the winter of 1841-2 he was induced to deliver a popular lecture on the "Stability of the Solar System," and the interest he aroused proved that he had lecturing talents of a very high order. The one address was followed by a course of lectures on general astronomy, and the idea seized him to use the enthusiasm excited to gather means to build an observatory, and to mount in it a telescope equal to any then in existence. To appreciate the apparent Quixotism of the enterprise, it must be remembered that this was before the days of American observatories. When, nearly two years later, John Quincy Adams laid the corner-stone of Mitchell's Observatory at Cincinnati, he could still say in his address, "Look around you, fellow-citizens. Look from the St. John to the Sabine. Look from the Nevesink to the mouth of the Columbia, and you will find not one! not one! or if one, not of our erection, but from funds liberally poured out from the coffers of that motherland from whom our fathers have decreed an eternal separation."

Mitchell's plan was to raise the necessary funds by organizing a joint-stock association, with shares at twenty-five dollars, and, by the aid of his enthusiasm, he raised the money required by personally soliciting the subscriptions, which were obtained from more than three hundred persons. The twelve-inch refractor was bought of Merz in Munich, brought home and mounted, and now the work of the astronomer began. Before, he had been collector, builder, machinist, agent.

It would be too long a story to detail his labors, his vexations, his difficulties and discouragements. They are interestingly told in the biography by his son. To support the observatory, he was induced to make lecturing tours with astronomy as his topic, and he speedily became known as one of the most eloquent and attractive of lecturers upon science, at a time when the elder Silliman and our leading scientists were frequently occupying the popular platform. In 1860 he added the supervision of work at the Dudley Observatory to his other labors, and moved his family to Albany. Here he was when the civil war broke out. Secretary Chase and Senator Harris of New York procured for him the offer of a commission as Brigadier-General of Volunteers in August, 1861, which he accepted. But before he could take the field, and while on a preliminary visit to Washington to report for orders, his wife, who had been in feeble health for some time, suddenly died. The great grief was much more than personal sorrow and pain. It was the loss of a complementary part of his own organization—a balance-wheel of his own restless energy—a calming and steadying influence necessary to make his efforts count as, with his intellect and force, they ought to do. His son says that "her absence is as plain in the narrative that follows as her presence has been in all that precedes."

Gen. Mitchell's military career was a great disappointment to him and to those who were close to him. He was still in full physical vigor, though older than most of the general officers in the national army. His early military education, added to his intellectual eminence as a man of science, gave promise that he would be a leading figure in the conduct of the war. There was no apparent reason why he might not be as prominent on the side of the Union as his classmates Johnston and Lee were on the side of the rebellion. He started a little later in the race than McDowell, McClellan, Halleck, and Buell, and therefore had to begin with subordinate commands; but his chances of eminence were as good as Grant's, or Sherman's, or Thomas's, or Sheridan's. The filial piety of his son attributes his disappointment, and indirectly his death, to the jealousy and dislike of others, especially of Halleck and impliedly of McClellan. The narrative makes it plain that Mitchell was highly esteemed and greatly liked by Stanton and Chase—he may be said to have been a favorite with them. With the Secretaries of War and of the Treasury for his friends, the command of an army seems almost a thing of course. How came he to fail of it, and to be banished to the coast islands of South Carolina, where he soon fell a victim to the climate? The lesson of his previous career is full of encouragement for every generous-minded youth, and shows triumph after triumph in his progress from poverty without education towards competence and acknowledged scientific eminence. Useful and pleasing as this lesson is, that which is taught by his career on the field of great events, in a time that must always fill a great page in history, seems more important by reason of this connection. More than this, his career in the army did not affect himself alone. It will be seen that it was in no small measure connected with the removal of Gen. Buell from active service, and in this way affected the whole course of events in subsequent campaigns in Kentucky and Tennessee. As an historical study, therefore, it is of very considerable importance, and worthy of sufficient space, at least, to outline it with distinctness.

Mitchell and McClellan were not only living in Cincinnati at or a little before the beginning of the war, but both had been connected with the Ohio and Mississippi Railroad. Mitchell had run the first lines of survey for the road, and had been consulting engineer, while McClellan went directly from its management to the organization of the Ohio troops. Each knew the reputation of the other at home. When Mitchell reported to McClellan for orders, the latter was desirous of making use of all the officers he could reach who had military education and training. He made no secret of his distrust of general officers appointed from civil life without such preparation. Mitchell, in reporting to him, reminded him that he (McClellan) was a much younger man than himself, but promised, nevertheless, his hearty and unqualified support. Yet McClellan received the assurance without cordiality, and Mitchell felt the disappointment. It is possible that he was a little maladroit in this reference to his own superior age, for to graduates of West Point it might imply a consciousness of military seniority; but it would probably be near the truth to assume that McClellan thought, from Mitchell's reputation for self-confidence and habit of pushing strongly his own ideas, that it would be precisely in cordial subordination he would be lacking; and the intimation that he was waiving the privileges of superior age would not tend to diminish this fear. One might guess, without much danger of being wrong, that McClellan a little later warned Buell that this would be Mitchell's failing, and that Buell's mention in his letter of November 27 that he found him "subordinate" is not accidental.

At the suggestion of Gov. Dennison, and in view of the anxiety at Cincinnati lest the Confederate force under Zollicoffer might advance upon that city, a department was made, consisting of the State of Ohio, and Mitchell was assigned to it, with headquarters at his old home. This was in September, when Gen. Robert Anderson was in command of the Department of the Cumberland, including Kentucky and Tennessee. For the proper defence of Cincinnati, Mitchell found it desirable to make fortifications on the Kentucky side of the Ohio River, in the suburbs of the city of Covington; but as this was in Anderson's department, the boundaries of the Department of the Ohio were made to include so much of Kentucky as would be included by a radius of fifteen miles. Mitchell applied himself with energy to the organization of volunteers, but was discontented with a rôle of organization and defence. He was not sparing in his criticisms of Anderson, nor hesitating in assuming responsibility within Anderson's department.

On the 8th of October Anderson relinquished his command to Gen. Sherman, and on the 10th Mitchell was put under Sherman's command, with a special order from the War Department assigning him to duty at Camp Dick Robinson, in central Kentucky, to prepare the troops

there for an expected movement upon Cumberland Gap, and ultimately into East Tennessee. This arrangement was made at Mitchell's request, or, as he says, on his own "appeal to the Secretary of War." He had organized and sent forward the troops that were at the camp named, and was burning to lead them in the field. But the order made complications. It was not showing proper consideration to Sherman to assign subordinates to special tasks under him. As the responsibility was his, the selection should be his. Again, Gen. George H. Thomas was in command at Camp Dick Robinson, and to put Mitchell in command of his troops was to supersede him, against which he protested. The effort, therefore, to make a particular field command for Mitchell resulted, as should have been foreseen, in embroiling everything, and in at once putting him in false relations to both Sherman and Thomas. Sherman showed admirable temper and tact in his correspondence at this period, and protected Thomas in his rights without offending Mitchell. He put plainly before Secretary Cameron, in the famous interview which occurred on October 16, the magnitude of the task in the West, but in his letters to his subordinates his tone was cheerful, his words were encouraging, and he put the best face on everything. His official correspondence is the best possible answer to the insinuations, then circulated, that his intellect was unsettled.

Gen. Buell assumed command on November 15, and pushed forward the work of organizing the Army of the Cumberland. His department was enlarged so as to include Mitchell's. The authorities at Washington still urged the East Tennessee movement, but Buell, like Sherman, doubted the possibility of supplying an army in that region by wagon trains from central Kentucky, a distance of two hundred miles. The almost starvation of Burnside's command in the winter of 1863-4 showed how well founded was that opinion. Mitchell had tendered his resignation when he failed to get the command of the troops under Thomas; but his friends saw that he had acted unwisely, and interposed to prevent its acceptance. Buell assigned him to the command of a division in front of Louisville, where he would be in the advance when the movement on Nashville should begin, and showed such regard for him and such respect for his opinions that the irritation subsided, and Mitchell awaited the new campaign with some approach to patience.

THE CENTRAL-EUROPEAN REVOLUTIONS OF 1848-49.—I.

The Revolutionary Movement of 1848-49 in Italy, Austria-Hungary, and Germany. With some Examination of the Previous Thirty-three Years. By C. Edmund Maurice, author of 'The Lives of English Popular Leaders in the Middle Ages.' London: George Bell & Sons; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1887.

COMPREHENSIVE and elaborate works by English writers on the modern history of Continental Europe are exceedingly rare. Coxe's 'History of the House of Austria,' composed in the beginning of this century, is still one of the best specimens, though eclipsed by Carlyle's powerful delineations of the life and deeds of an arch-enemy of that house, Frederick the Great. A very imperfect continuation of Coxe's history, embracing a partisan sketch of the events of 1848, was published, as its fourth volume, in Bohn's collection. The work before us, which barely in a few sketches transcends the sphere within which the power and armies of the House of Hapsburg were active forty years ago—being mainly devoted to movements in which the centres of the various races of Austria, Vienna, Pesth, Milan and Venice, Prague, Lemberg, Agram, Carlowitz, and Hermanstadt, were in a national ferment under democratic leaders, and the Austrian generals, Radetzky, Windischgrätz, Haynau, Welden, and others, wielded the sword of the Hapsburg dynasty—also attaches itself to Coxe's volumes; but it is totally different in character, and inspired by a different interest. It is, in fact, an anti-Austrian history. The author obviously went into the study of his subject with a strong antipathy against the dynasty and the bureaucratic centralization enthroned in Vienna, which, while Metternich managed their affairs, formed the most persistent and consistent, most inveterate and deleterious, power opposed to the freedom and liberal aspirations of the Continent, and a constant negation of the unity of Germany and Italy, of the independence of Hungary and Poland, of the national autonomy of Czech and Croat.

The genesis of this remarkable book—a work of love and conscientious labor—is clear. With the enthusiasm for freedom and patriotic action which the atmosphere in the domestic circle of his father, the famous "Christian Socialist," was sure to breed, the author listened as a boy to the then fresh accounts of the popular risings and combats which, in 1848-49, drove Louis Philippe from the Tuileries, Metternich from Vienna, Radetzky from Milan, Pálffy from Venice, Jellachich from before Buda, Russian invaders from Transylvania, Windischgrätz from Pesth. He knew many of the representatives of the *victa causa* as exiles in England—among them Mazzini, Garibaldi, and Saffi; Kossuth, Klapka, and Pulszky; Karl Marx, Karl Blind, and Eugen Oswald. He read, or heard from eye-witnesses, how bravely others had met death under the banners of Bem, Görgei, or Mieroslawski, on barricades, battlefields, or gallows. The story of those popular struggles became a sacred lay to him. At a riper age he learned to his grief that the cause of the peoples had not succumbed to the cannon and perfidy of the tyrants alone; that mutual jealousies and hatreds, national and provincial, and conflicting ambitions and schemes had a large share in its downfall. Prussian and Pole, Czech and Austrian, Croat and Magyar, Ruman and Szekler, had fatally struggled with each other; Venice had not acted in harmony with Milan, nor Naples with Palermo, nor Florence with Rome; the parliaments of Frankfort, Berlin, and Vienna had neutralized each other's constituent work; Kossuth was accused of presumptuous leadership, Mazzini of uncompromising republican dogmatism, Garibaldi of military rashness, Görgei of treason. Perplexed by contradictions and doubts, Mr. Maurice devoted years of labor to an impartial study of the revolutionary epoch, reading, travelling, and inquiring, though leaving out France, where the struggle had not been waged against oppression or alien rule, but between political systems and classes of the nation. The main result of these studies, as to the intrinsic merits of the general movement, is summed up thus, at the conclusion of the book:

"Those revolutions had displayed, in a way unknown before, the strength and the weakness of the national principle. The enthusiasm for liberty, and the power of generous self-sacrifice, which was kindled by a feeling for a common language and common traditions, had been shown in each of the Revolutions; and they had struck a blow at the merely diplomatic and military settlements of States which produced a lasting effect. But, on the other hand, with the love for men of the same race and language there awoke in all the nations, with terrible force, the hatred and scorn for men of other races and languages; and thus, while the leaders of the movement taught tyrants their danger, they supplied them at the same time with a defence against that danger—with another justification of the old maxim of tyrants, 'Divide et impera.' And so the work of the Revolutionists did not fail; but yet it could not achieve all the noble ends for which it was intended."

A last paragraph then tells us how the movement was to be resumed a decade or thereabouts later; how the work, "ennobled by the thought of Mazzini" and the action of Garibaldi and Manin, was to be completed "by the intrigues of Cavour" and Louis Napoleon; how, as Germany had failed to absorb Prussia, Prussia was to absorb Germany by Bismarck's "stern, hard policy of 'blood and iron'"; how the effects of the blunders of the Vienna Revolution were to be remedied by the less generous blundering of Schmerling; how Francis Deák, who had wisely stood aloof in 1849, was to revindicate for Hungary the freedom which she had lost for a time; how other national solutions were to be postponed, and "the yet more dangerous problems of Socialism . . . gradually to assume even greater prominence in the affairs of Europe." From all of which "it will be seen that the Revolutions of 1848 to 1849 were but the climax of movements of which we have not yet seen the end." This summing up clearly shows that the author's democratic ardor has not cooled off, though it may have been softened by his investigations; and that his sympathies still all lean to the side of "the people" and their leaders, even when he contrasts their doings with the achievements of such ministerial wielders of royal power as Cavour and Bismarck. This constancy of sentiment becomes the more striking when we consider how deeply and unsparingly he went into the examination of the chaos created by the dissensions and contentions of the revolutionary actors. A situation or two, reproduced by condensation from his pages, may serve to illustrate this. Let us take one from the theatre of action in Italy, which he has studied best of all.

We are in the early spring of 1848. Charles Albert had been victorious over the Austrians at Goito. Lombardy was full of enthusiasm for the King. On the day after the battle Mazzini appeared in Milan. He addressed the people from a balcony, praising the Provisional Government. But when he applied to the latter for military positions for his republican friends, their services were refused. Volunteers from Switzerland were in the same way repelled. Garibaldi, arriving in the full splendor of fame earned with the sword in South America, was told at Charles Albert's camp that he might go to Turin, "to see *if* and *how* he could be employed." Many of those who were thus repelled in Lombardy went to Venice, which, under the lead of Manin, had achieved a purely democratic revolution. But anxious as Manin was to enlist all sympathies, "he could not help being a Venetian" in the narrower sense, and Venice lost time in making common cause with Venetia. Treviso, Padua, Vicenza, and other Venetian towns had formed Provisional Governments even before they knew that Venice was free, but, disappointed by the hesitation of the Republic, Vicenza offered herself to the King of Sardinia. This decision excited indignation in Venice. The trouble was aggravated by the anomalous position of the officers of the Papal troops, marching to the aid of northern Italy. Durando, the general in chief, deemed himself an independent commander, owing to Pius IX.'s public discouragement of the advance. Though willing to fight for Venice, he felt it was safer to take orders from an established sovereign; and while he wished

to relieve Padua, he meant to do it as an officer of the Sardinian King. But the wavering of Charles Albert "between war, diplomacy, and complete abandonment of the cause" made him hesitate about extending his campaigns to Venetia. He forbade Durando to cross the Po, and sent him instead to protect the Duchies of Modena and Parma. At the end of April, the Pope launched an Encyclical by which he absolutely repudiated the war against Austria. At the same time he was pressed by Ferdinand of Naples to promote a league between Rome, Naples, and Tuscany, which was to counteract the power of Piedmont. "To say the truth, Ferdinand was not without excuse in this matter; for, while he was being driven to declare war on Austria, the Sicilian Assembly were deposing him from the throne of Sicily, and discussing a proposal to offer their island to a son of Charles Albert." Terrible indignation was aroused by the Encyclical. The cry of treason was raised against the Cardinals, and some of the patriots even talked of carrying off Pius to Lombardy, that he might see for himself the real condition of the war. Both Pius and Charles Albert reconsidered their action, and Durando entered Venetia, but was soon hard pressed, and abandoned by the King. Mazzini in Milan in vain agitated for more revolutionary action. Inscriptions on the walls, emanating from partisans of Sardinia, threatened him with death. This is one short act of the Italian drama—and the whole of it was like it. What was in the meanwhile going on in Germany?

"The fiery Republicans of Baden had returned in indignation to their State, when they found that the Preparatory Parliament would neither establish a Republic nor declare itself permanent; and, provoked by the arrest of one of their members, they had rushed into open insurrection, which only the influence of Robert Blum had prevented from spreading into the Rhine Province. And, while they were preparing to suppress the Republican opposition, the Frankfort Parliament were startled to hear that an assembly had met in Berlin which claimed, like them, to be a National Constituent Assembly; and this rivalry was made the more alarming by the assistance which Prussian soldiers were at the time giving to the Grand Duke of Hesse-Darmstadt in suppressing a popular movement in Mainz. The Frankfort Parliament indignantly resolved that 'This Assembly of the Empire has alone the power, as the one legal organ of the will of the German people, to settle the Constitution of Germany, and to decide about the future position of the Princes in the State.' And they further resolved that every Prince who would not submit to their decisions 'should be deprived, with his family, of the princely rank, and should descend into the class of citizens, and that his crown and family property should become the property of the State.'"

Add to this fragmentary picture turbulent movements in every German capital, the national conflict in Schleswig-Holstein, and the deadlier one in Posen.

Tuscan Studies and Sketches. By Leader Scott. Illustrated. Scribner & Welford. 1887.

THE author of this handsome volume is a lover of Italy, who has tempered delight in scenery and costumes with some not too learned investigations in the history of the arts. The two topics are divided by a clear line. The earlier portion of the book contains the story of the Giants of the Palazzo Vecchio, the David, the Hercules and Cacus, and the Neptune, and gathers together some interesting information about Italian organ building, the tapestry industry, and the Florentine mosaic work; at the close we are reminded on what grounds the similar mosaic ornamentation at Agra and Delhi has been ascribed to the influence of artists sent to India in search of Oriental agates and gems for the Medici chapel about 1608, if, in fact, the Orpheus at Delhi be not their own work or that of other Florentine workmen. An artistic episode is made of the beautiful bride-room of Margherita Borgherini, which employed the skill of Baccio d'Agnolo, Andrea del Sarto, Granacci, Pontormo, and Bachiacca; and occasion is taken from the recovered fresco of Sodoma at Mount Oliveto to pay homage to that powerful painter, in whom so many strains of the Italian genius met, and to defend him against the aspersions of Vasari. The latter had but a poor opinion of him, called him a spendthrift, and made other ungentle remarks about him, even saying that his wife had to leave him and support herself, while he was despised by every one; for all this no evidence is found, but only rebutting testimony. The Medici library has a chapter to itself; and these are all of the "Studies"—a well-selected list, pleasantly treated.

The second and longer portion is made up of sketches of Italian life—the vintage at the old villa of the Benvenuti, where the Countess gave a "garden-party," as we should call it; the funerals and the stage-plays in the Apennine villages; the peasant women selling the great crop of mushrooms (three thousand pounds a day at Piteglio, at four and a half centesimi the pound); the gay life at the baths, with all those Italian children who are never young in their apparel even at the seashore; the Florentine market, gone now, and the annual procession of the people to the cemetery at San Miniato. Abundance of Italian color and realism, and a sense of great pleasure in observing it, make all these attractive. Of greater interest, however, are the last two papers, which narrate a journey to Volterra and San Gemignano. The latter is getting to be a hackneyed subject now; but Volterra is fresh, and antiquity has there one of its most impressive seats. The Etruscan city is not too remote, nevertheless, from the modern world. Hard by are the borax springs of Count Larderel, which produce £240 worth of boracic acid daily, and the proprietor, it is interesting to learn, has set up excellent schools, "the infants', the boys', the girls', the adults' night-school—all in such exquisite order and keeping that they would win a premium from an English school board." There is, besides, a spinning and weaving school for young unmarried women; the Count provides the wool and cotton, and the products are sold for the profit of the workers. The salt-works of San Leopoldo, from which the Italian Government obtains an annual revenue of £130,000, are also in the neighborhood. Volterra itself, as the centre of the Etruscan power, is filled with relics; the country about has the picturesque characteristics of a volcanic region, and lying, as it does, off the regular routes of travel, it is full of interest. The volume, as a whole, realizes its very modest aims.

A History of Photography; Written as a practical guide and an introduction to its latest developments. By W. Jerome Harrison, F.R.S. Scovill Manufacturing Company. 1887.

THOUGH foreshadowed as long ago as 1777, the practical question of how to preserve the light-record from destruction by the agent which produced it was not solved till 1839, and, as applied to the present form of photography, not until ten years later. Since then, progress in discovery has been rapid, and of the various stages Mr. Harrison has omitted to notice none. Every form of production of fixed images by the action of light has passed under his careful scrutiny, and, condensed though it be, his history, so far as our own memory goes, overlooks nothing. Of scientific photography, as in astronomy, he has made no account.

In treating of photography in colors Mr. Harrison shows himself to belong to the category of dreamers. He asks, "When will the Niepce, the Talbot, or the Herschell arise who will do for colors what these 'fathers of photography' did for pictures in black and white?" Without being rash enough to put a limit on the progress of science, it is pretty safe to reply, "Never, until some new property of matter is discovered." The fact is, that all the apparent renderings of natural colors by the photograph are, thus far, fallacious coincidences, and no one has ever succeeded in getting in the camera a true reproduction of the colors of natural objects. It is unquestionable that chloride of silver, exposed to light under certain conditions, decomposes in an iridescence which to a limited extent coincides with certain colors of the prism, so that when a chloride film is exposed under colored glasses, the decomposition it undergoes partially reproduces, at a certain stage of the decomposition, the colors of some of the glasses; but the continued action of the light ends in monochrome. Mr. Harrison says that "with regard to natural colors we are now precisely in the condition occupied by Davy and Wedgwood with respect to ordinary photographs." But this is not the case. There is nothing to show that the colors of the natural object are the cause of the colors even in the decomposing chloride. We have seen a blue sky produced in a wet collodion negative, but it was clearly an accident of the molecular constitution of the vehicle for the silver reduced by development, and was only visible by reflected light. But the colors on daguerreotype plates, which have given the most marked results, may be produced, as Becquerel shows, without the action of light. Placing a silver plate in a "solution of hydrochloric acid," and attaching it to the positive pole of a voltaic battery, etc., etc., "as the combination of silver and chlorine took place, the layer of silver chloride increased in thickness, and as it did so its color changed to gray, yellow, violet, and blue; and, continuing the action, these colors appeared a second time." And no more is done in the decomposition of those films by light than is thus shown to have been done in the forming of them by electric action; and in every case thus far, as stated by any trustworthy scientist, the images, while never coinciding completely with nature, disappear under the continued action of light. We have seen some of the results of the experiments made, and while a part were certainly curious coincidences, others were deliberate fraud.

A frontispiece portrait of the author of this book by the "Mosstype" is a very successful print from the block derived from a photographic negative. Another print of three children, at the end of the volume, by the same process, suggests the need of a sure means of correcting defects in the block, the want of which is a great drawback still to all the block processes.

Studies in Civil Government. By W. A. Mowry. Boston: Silver, Rogers & Co.

THERE is no more gratifying evidence of the increasing attention given to the study of American history and institutions than the steady improvement in the quality of the manuals. There are already several excellent narrative

school histories; and Mr. Mowry adds one to the brief list of serviceable descriptive text-books. The civil Government which he has in mind is, to be sure, that of the United States only, but he treats of the local as well as of the general Government. The book is therefore a compromise between a description of institutions, like Nordhoff's, and an elementary commentary on the Constitution, like Andrews's or Townsend's. None of the topics which he has selected for treatment are uninteresting, and most of them are essential for the future citizen to know. Among the best things are the chapters on public schools and local taxation, and the brief descriptions of the post-office, the national banks, and other public institutions. The spirit of the book is to teach government as it is. In its neat exterior, clear type, convenient table of contents and index, and simple arrangement, it is almost a model. Mr. Mowry has had the happy idea of illustrating his book with tolerable pictures of the Capitol at Washington, and other public buildings, and with still more suggestive plans of the House and Senate chambers.

The chief fault of execution is a want of proportion, which has led to the total omission of some topics that must not be left untaught. If four pages can be given to copyright, there surely should be space for some account of State governments. It is well to give a chapter to territorial growth, but it should not take the place of a sketch of the civil status of the various classes of the people. If Mr. Mowry had contented himself without the constitutional texts, which take up one-fifth of the book; or if he had printed the Constitution of the United States only once, instead of in considerable part twice, he might have found room for some account of political parties and political methods. The comments on the clauses of the Constitution in many cases add nothing, and in other cases are phrased in technical terms. It is, however, a book in the right direction, and likely to be interesting and useful, in the hands of an intelligent teacher.

De Omnibus Rebus: An Old Man's Discursive Ramblings on the Road of Every Day Life. By the author of 'Flemish Interiors.' With one hundred illustrations by H. Caulfield Orpen. London: John C. Nimmo. 1888.

THIS volume makes no demands upon the reader except for leisure. The "road of every-day life" which its author journeys upon is the route of the London omnibus. Incidents of the way and odd characters or caricatures are the theme to which he returns from time to time, but his discursiveness is the rambling of a man who is trying to make talk, and bears the same relation to thought that gossip does to conversation. He is hard put to it to find something to say, and he pieces out with such ancient witticisms as he can remember. There can be but few books in which it takes so many words to say so little. There is enough material for one good Roundabout Paper, but it would be a short one. The relief to the reader who suffers the tedious diffuseness of these hundreds of octavo pages about the conductor, the driver, the fares, and the nothings which they suggest for mention, consists in the little illustrations by Mr. Orpen, which have the spirit of humor in them; these tell their own story, and the book can practically be perused by a man in search of amusement, by merely turning the leaves and glancing at these pictorial Britons, who exhibit themselves in attitudes and expressions which convey their whole character. The text adds nothing to their vigor or piquancy. They are, of course, slight sketches, scratches of the pencil, such as any one may see in the minor illustrations of the comic press, but entirely successful in their humble effort. There is a curious incongruity between their pettiness and the author's voluminous lucubrations. It is Harlequin mounted on the shoulders of gigantic Dulness. Nevertheless, if one has great abundance of leisure, he may take pleasure in the London atmosphere which pervades the book. The Londoner is present in every scene; and in every turn of the author's style, in his interests, his haunts, his prejudices, and all that is his, the citizen of the British metropolis stands confessed.

Women and Men. By Thomas Wentworth Higginson. Harper & Brothers. 1888. 12mo, pp. 326.

MR. HIGGINSON has reprinted in book form the series of articles, chiefly on women and incidentally on men, which have already appeared in *Harper's Bazar*. They discuss, with great good sense and judgment, the changes in the condition of women produced by the extinction of her home-sheltered occupations of spinning and weaving, and by the coincident extinction of that profound ignorance which was once thought essential to modesty. The curious slowness with which many people—aged and conservative people of both sexes—recognize the changes in character and career which are necessarily produced by such great changes in circumstances, will cause articles of this sort to serve an important function, doubtless, for many years to come; but to one who has a keener vision for the signs of the times, they have already a somewhat antiquated air. It is only the slow-of-going and the hard-of-seeing who have still to be convinced that a good education is not wasted when spent upon a woman, and that she can tie her bonnet-strings with modesty and virtue as she passes down the elevator and out of the door of some mammoth manufacturing establishment. Of the various causes, however, which have hastened in this country the complete recognition of woman's right to an independent existence, not the least important, perhaps, is the steady stream of sound and careful argument which, from the early days of the *Una* to the present time, has poured from Mr. Higginson's pen. No one is more deserving than he of the warm feeling which the victims of a resisted oppression must have for their tried and true knight-errant.

Of the articles which do not concern women, the best is that on the novelists of the Howells school. It is an admirable defence of the position that because commonplace characters are capable of being accurately painted, it does not follow that a writer of sufficient genius cannot make as fine a picture of characters that are not commonplace.

The publishers have done a graceful writer a great unkindness by giving a very inartistic exterior to his book.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbott and Mathewson. Demosthenes Against Philip. Vol. I. Part 1. Macmillan & Co. 75 cents.
Baker, A. M. How to Succeed as a Stenographer or a Typewriter. Fowler & Wells Co. 25 cents.
Clodfelter, N. J. Snatched from the Poorhouse. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros. 50 cents.
Connolly, D. The Household Library of Ireland's Poets. With a Full and Choice Selection from the Irish-American Poets. Daniel Connolly.
Currier, Prof. A. H. The Life of Constans L. Goodell, D.D. Introduction by Dr. W. M. Taylor. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $1.50.
Dabney, Prof. R. L. The Sensualistic Philosophy of the Nineteenth Century Considered. New and enlarged ed. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $2.50.
Daryl, P. Ireland's Disease: Notes and Impressions. George Routledge & Sons. $1.25.
Hodder, E. The Life of Samuel Morley. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $3.
Johnston, R. M. Mr. Absalom Billingslea, and Other Georgia Folk. Illustrated. Harper & Bros.
Lea, H. C. A History of the Inquisition of the Middle Ages. In 3 Vols. Vol. II. Harper & Bros.
Lockyer, Prof. J. N. The Movements of the Earth. Macmillan & Co.
Mitchell, Dr. S. W. Doctor and Patient. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.50.
Morgan, A. Shakespeare in Fact and in Criticism. William Evarts.
Morsbach, L. Ueber den Ursprung der Neuenglischen Schriftsprache. Heilbronn: Gebr. Henninger.
Murray—Herman. One Traveller Returns. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.
Ohnet, G. Le Maître de Forges. W. R. Jenkins. 60 cents.
Parker, Dr. J. The People's Bible. Discourses upon Holy Scripture. Vol. VII. Funk & Wagnalls. $1.50.
Patton, J. H. The Triumph of the Presbytery of Hanover; or, the Separation of Church and State in Virginia. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. 75 cents.
Platt, J. J. Idyls and Lyrics of the Ohio Valley. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Portraits and Biographical Sketches of Twenty American Authors. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 15 cents.
Prescott, Dr. A. B. Organic Analysis: A Manual of the Descriptive and Analytical Chemistry of Certain Carbon Compounds in Common Use. D. Van Nostrand.
Renan, Ernest. Histoire du Peuple d'Israël. T. I. Paris: Calmann Lévy: Boston: Schoenhof.
Richardson, D. N. A Girdle Round the Earth: Home Letters from Foreign Lands. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $2.
Richey, Prof. T. The Parables of the Lord Jesus According to Matthew. E. & J. B. Young.
Riley, J. W. Afterwhiles. Indianapolis: Bowen-Merrill Co.
Routledge's Almanack. 1888. George Routledge & Sons.
Runcie, Constance F. Poems, Dramatic and Lyric. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 26, 1888.

The Week.

We presume the defeat of Mr. Randall at Harrisburg in the organization of the State Democratic Committee will put an end to the talk, of which there has been a good deal, of the President's renomination having been endangered by his message about the surplus. Nobody in the Democratic party has so distinctly and unmistakably represented the opposition to Mr. Cleveland within his own party, on all sorts of grounds, good, bad, and indifferent, as Mr. Randall. He represented, too, in a peculiar degree whatever hostility there may be in the Democratic party to any revision of the tariff in the direction of lower duties. In fact, he has always been, in the House, the greatest obstacle to any revision of the tariff. Moreover, he had a Presidential "boom" of his own in preparation. Well, he has lost control of the State Committee in Pennsylvania. The election of a chairman took place on Wednesday week at Harrisburg, Mr. Randall himself being on the ground to direct operations and encourage his supporters. His "man" Sanders was beaten by a vote of 42 to 35. The Committee then proceeded to elect the Executive Committee, and the Randall ticket was again defeated. But a bitter pill still remained for Mr. Randall to swallow. A resolution was introduced by Mr. Scott, the member of Congress, heartily endorsing the Administration and in set terms the President's tariff message. The Randall party vainly protested against this as trampling on a bruised reed. The conquerors were, however, merciless, and carried it. All this in the heart of Pennsylvania, too, in the Presidential year.

A good many Republican papers with short memories are saying the same thing as the Rutland (Vt.) *Herald*, that "Mr. Lamar goes upon the bench under the reproach of being the first Justice upon whom the Senators ever largely divided according to party lines." Stanley Matthews was nominated for Justice in the last winter of President Hayes's Administration, when the Senate had forty-two Democrats out of seventy-six members, and was not confirmed. Mr. Matthews was again nominated for the place at the opening of the Garfield Administration, when the Senate was so evenly divided between parties that David Davis held the balance of power, and after long delay he was finally confirmed by one majority on an almost strictly party vote. Mr. Lamar having taken his seat on the Supreme Bench, it remains to be seen whether his appointment will be made a Republican issue in the coming Presidential canvass. It seems as if it would be rather a good thing to take up, because, like the tariff, a President who was elected on it would never have to act on it. With the Lamar issue, the Foraker hand-shaking issue, the surplus issue, the rebel-flag issue, the "Paris message," and ex-Gov. Fairchild's three kinds of palsy, the party ought to be able to make a desperate fight next summer.

The opposition in the House to the bill authorizing the issue of national-bank circulation to the par value of the bonds deposited as security therefor, instead of 90 per cent., as at present, are behaving in a very unseemly manner. The bill comes as a report from the Committee on Banking and Currency. It is before the House in the regular way. Mr. Weaver, the Iowa Greenbacker, has declared his intention to filibuster against the bill, or, as he puts it, to "apply properly the parliamentary rules of the House." This means that when the majority are in favor of a bill that you are opposed to, you will prevent the taking of a vote upon it by moving to adjourn and calling the yeas and nays on that motion, and then moving that when the House adjourns it shall adjourn to a particular day, and then calling the yeas and nays on that, and requiring the yeas and nays to be read aloud by the clerk, etc., etc. Mr. Weaver got only 55 members to vote with him against taking up the bill, 151 voting the other way; but since one-fifth of the members are sufficient to order the yeas and nays on any motion, there seems to be no way to overcome Weaver but to tire him out as he is trying to tire the House. It is quite as likely that a sufficient number of members can be found to vindicate the dignity of the body by sitting up o' nights, as that one-fifth of the members will sit up in order to help Weaver weave his web of dilatory motions. The bill itself is not nearly so favorable to bank circulation as Weaver's fancy paints it; but whether it be more or less so, the House owes it to itself to put an end to such spite work.

Ex-Justice Strong of the Supreme Court, who delivers a course of lectures on the Constitution before a Washington law school every winter, was asked by a student during one of his lectures last week whether in his opinion the Blair bill was constitutional. "I do not see how it can be constitutional," he replied. "It is my opinion that it is unconstitutional, and this I believe to be the opinion also of the present bench." This expression of opinion will not surprise anybody who is familiar with the course of the Supreme Court during the past fifteen years. Nobody can read the State-rights decisions rendered in such cases as the Kuklux Act and the Civil Rights Act without becoming convinced that, so long as the Republican judges who thus maintained the rights of the States remain on the bench, the court would promptly annul any bill establishing Federal control over education in the States if it should become a law. Judge Strong's remarks fully vindicate Senator Hawley's warfare against this measure on the ground of its unconstitutionality. The conviction of its equal unwisdom is steadily gaining strength.

A convention which had been in session at Washington for several days devising means to reduce the surplus, brought its labors to a triumphant close on Wednesday week. The resolutions adopted are adequate to the threatening condition of the surplus. They propose that the Government shall pay to every American ship engaged in foreign trade, whether steam or sail, 30 cents per ton for each 1,000 miles of distance sailed, and *pro rata* for any less distance than 1,000 miles—that is to say, a thousand-ton sailing ship sailing to Liverpool would be entitled to draw from the Treasury $900 per trip, or $1,800 per round trip. A steamer of 5,000 tons would draw $9,000 per round trip. In order to guard against fraud, it is provided that the distances shall be certified by the Hydrographic Office to the Treasury, so that no designing skipper sailing to remote ports can take the longest way around in order to enlarge his subsidy. No allowance is made for lying to in bad weather, or for detention in foreign ports. Nor is it required that the ship shall carry any paying cargo. A ship going in ballast, as they are sometimes compelled to, may draw the same amount of money as one carrying tea or silks. This, however, is in harmony with the spirit of the proposed measure, which aims not at the carrying of freight, but the carrying of the flag, as the last resolution shows. This resolution breathes the loftiest patriotism. After reciting that the vast manufacturing and commercial interests of this country are entitled to a foreign mail service, it is resolved that "such service can only be relied upon, in peace and war, from American hands warmed by American hearts under the American flag." But there is nothing in the resolution even remotely implying that "American hands" are to be exclusively employed, or employed at all, in this service. The only requirement is that the capital invested shall be exclusively American. Capital warmed at the rate of thirty cents per ton per thousand miles would not need the warming of American hearts in addition.

From statements made by Mr. W. L. Garrison and Mr. Arthur T. Lyman in the Boston *Post*, it is learned that the wool trade of Boston was not represented in the recent wool conference at Washington, and also that the carpet manufacturers did not agree to the programme finally put forth as the voice of the united interests of wool-dealers, growers, and manufacturers. It may be set down as a fact that any manufacturer of woollens who says that he is in favor of a tariff on the raw material of his industry tells an untruth. He is no more a free moral agent than were the guests of the Arkansas tavern-keeper who kept a pistol in sight at the head of his table, and said, "Any man who says he don't like hash, lies." Mr. Ly-

man, who is at the head of the Lowell Manufacturing Company, states an undoubted truth when he says that "under the wool-growers' threat of taking off the duty on manufactured goods, the manufacturers and dealers yielded to their demands for a restoration of the rates of 1867 or even higher rates." The worsted manufacturers have been crushed by the duties on their raw material and by the changes in the art of combing wool. They are now in a position where no attack made upon them by the wool-growers could do them harm. If all duties on wool and on worsteds were removed, they would be in a far better position than they are now. It is amazing that they should give even a tacit assent to this pernicious agreement. Probably the bill introduced by Mr Breckinridge to classify as woollen all worsted cloth imported, by whatever name it is known to the trade, is introduced with the expectation that the worsted manufacturers will ere long coöperate with the tariff reformers in efforts for free wool.

The Boston *Commercial Bulletin*, the special trade organ of high tariffs in New England, shows signs of wavering on the subject of the duties on carpet wool. Its latest opinions on that question are based upon a collection and compilation of the views of wool-growers, dealers, and manufacturers in various parts of the country collected by the *Bulletin* itself. A glance at the replies of the parties whose letters are published shows clearly that there is an intestinal strife among the three interests—growers, dealers, and manufacturers—that has not been allayed by the recent convention at Washington, and that cannot be. The special significance of the *Bulletin's* article is that, in spite of the apparent harmony secured at the Washington conference, the manufacturers, or, at all events, the carpet-makers, have not desisted from the agitation, but are keeping up the fight, notwithstanding the threat of the wool-growers to repeal *all* duties on woollen manufactures if the wool duties are disturbed. It is perfectly understood that anybody who is enjoying "protection" under the tariff as now constituted is at liberty to become a roaring free-trader if his part of the tariff is meddled with. He can run amuck at the whole list of duties without incurring any opprobrium or the imputation of British gold. But all others—that is, all who are so unfortunately situated that they cannot be protected by the tariff, or have been neglected by the tariff-makers—are to be jumped on as enemies of American industry and of American wage-workers if they favor any reduction of duties whatever. This line of distinction between friends and enemies of American labor is likely to become well marked as the fight goes on.

The letter of President Corbin on the Reading strike is a conclusive and crushing rejoinder to all the accusations and appeals that have been made to him to surrender his company to the Knights of Labor coal-handlers, trainmen, and miners, to be operated in their peculiar fashion of delivering freight only to good men, and mining coal only in case it is to be handled by the good and true; the discrimination between the good and the bad to be made by the local district assemblies. One would have supposed *à priori* that so fantastic a conception of railway traffic could never have entered into the head of any civilized creature. But we know that it did enter into the head of Martin Irons and his whole following of Knights in the Southwest as lately as two years ago, and that it resulted in the destruction of the order on the Southwestern system. President Corbin's letter makes it clear and certain that it will have the same result on the Reading system. The fact that the Reading Company was once ruined by selling coal for less than cost, having made a net loss of $12,000,000 in twelve years, which has only recently been made good by an assessment of that sum on the holders of its securities, is pretty good bail that President Corbin means business when he says that the company will not recede from the position it has taken. It will not recede because it cannot. But the miners will recede by and by, because they cannot live on air. The Reading Company has been trying to live on air for twelve years, and has failed in the attempt. It now seeks a more substantial diet.

The seekers for signs in the political firmament can find a very significant one in the first public banquet of the Reform Club on Saturday evening. Here was an organization, scarcely thought of a month ago, assembling in such great numbers that the rooms, which were feared to be too large when selected, were filled to overflowing, tables having to be set in the lobbies to accommodate those who were crowded from the main hall. Nearly or quite all in attendance had enrolled themselves as members, and the first official announcement which the President of the Club made was that the first limit of membership, 400, had been filled and that steps were already taken for the purchase of a club-house. No one who was present at the banquet could have been long in doubt as to what was the real cause of this phenomenally sudden growth. It was revealed when, at the first mention of President Cleveland's name by the Chairman, the whole assemblage broke into a roar of applause which seemed inexhaustible, and which was renewed with undiminished volume whenever throughout the evening the same name was spoken. The Club has, in short, sprung into existence full-grown in answer to the President's call for courage in politics.

The "Preachers' Meeting of the Methodist Episcopal Church in Baltimore" has disclaimed "all sympathy with and concurrence in the act of the President of the United States, performed in commemoration of the Pope's golden jubilee," as a "new departure in making such marked official recognition of a religious hierarchy claiming also temporal sovereignty." It would, of course, have been better if the President's act had had the approval of the Preachers' Meeting, but one has some difficulty in seeing the great importance of it. The Pope is one of the great facts of the world. Some hundreds of millions of people acknowledge him as the head of their Church. If by withholding recognition of him the President could abolish the Papacy, most good Protestants would probably think it a good thing to do. But this is impossible. As long as there is a Pope, and millions, of whom large numbers are fully as pious and conscientious as the Baltimore Preachers, revere and obey him, he becomes a proper object of courtesy to every civilized man, and especially to every civilized ruler. He is a far more estimable and useful person than the Czar of Russia or the Sultan of Turkey, and yet the Preachers would not have objected to a birthday or other present from the President of the United States to either of these. Moreover, it has always been held until now that the present of a good book was one which the best men could properly make to the very worst. The lower the opinion we have of the Pope, the more anxious should we be to put good literature in his way. Satan himself, the Preachers will admit, ought to have the Bible or any other good book put into his hands, if he could be got to read it. Why, then, not give the Constitution of the United States to the head of the oldest Christian denomination? The Preachers are also of opinion that the President's gift was "a political discourtesy if not offence to King Humbert." How can this be when King Humbert himself offered presents to the Pope, which the Pope refused to receive? The Preachers would feel very queer if King Humbert told them they had been making great fools of themselves about the whole matter, and yet we venture to assert that this is exactly what he would tell them if they asked him to speak his whole mind, for he is a plain, blunt man.

Gov. Hill, in granting a three days' respite to Driscoll, the murderer, intimated that he wished to help remove the stigma now resting on Friday as "hangman's day"; but if he expects to be able to rehabilitate Friday, he is greatly mistaken. He has one of the strongest traditions of the Christian world to contend against, and it is one which has now become a deeply rooted superstition even among people who care nothing about Christian traditions. Eighteen centuries of disgrace rest on Friday. All sailors and all servant girls, and especially cooks, all who dislike to sit thirteen at table, and all who have vivid dreams, regard it with deep suspicion. Moreover, millions who are not superstitious dislike beginning any long undertaking on Friday. Nobody is willing to be married on Friday, or would be born on that day if he could help it. From the earliest days of modern criminal jurisprudence it has been set apart as a peculiarly suitable day for the infliction of capital punishment. What harm this does, or why Gov. Hill should dislike it, it is hard to see. There is nobody especially interested in

Friday above any other day. There is no Friday vote. "Labor," we believe, dislikes Friday extremely, as a day on which there is never a holiday. In fact, there is some danger that Labor may resent an attempt to discredit Monday by deferring an execution to that day, as Monday is a day on which Labor is apt to enjoy itself. Moreover, Labor Day is the first *Monday* in September, so that it seems to us, in showing a want of respect for Monday, the Governor has put himself "in a hole" of the worst kind. Friday has no friends, but Monday has many, as he will find to his cost.

The object of the imprisonment of so many editors and orators in Ireland was to frighten them so that they would stop agitating, but now that the first victims of the law are beginning to emerge from prison after the expiration of their terms, it does not appear that much progress has been made. The editors and orators are apparently as defiant as ever, and ready to begin over again, and have been immensely raised in the estimation of the mass of the people. Moreover, there is no perceptible diminution in the agitation. The meetings, making allowance for the season, are still numerous, the plan of campaign is still carried out, and is proving more or less successful. The National League, too, continues to hold its meetings. There is a great scarcity of outrages, owing, doubtless, to the strenuous exertions of the leaders to prevent anything that will shock English opinion. In short, Mr. Balfour seems to be succeeding about as well as Mr. Forster. Mr. Forster locked up a great many men, but made them very comfortable in jail. Mr. Balfour locks up only a few, and treats them very badly in jail. The result is about the same. It remains to be seen how long the English constituencies, with whom the final decision now rests, will allow the farce to continue. They would probably stop it at once if they could be consulted, but the Ministry are determined not to consult them as long as they can help it. They say their policy must have a full trial.

The British Ministry are apparently threatened with a fresh crop of difficulties in Wales and Scotland, the land question being at the bottom of them all. In Wales there is fierce resistance to the tithes collected from the farmers for the benefit of the Anglican clergy, which compels the Sheriff to call for the assistance of nearly 2,000 police and soldiers. The trouble is, that the Anglican or Established Church in Wales is the church of the gentry. Hardly any of the Welsh people belong to it: they are mainly nonconformists of various denominations. Its clergy is supported, nevertheless, in large part by tithes levied on the farmers, who never enter its church doors, as used to be the case in Ireland. The Welsh are ordinarily peaceable and submissive, and bore this without a murmur as long as the times were good. But now that farmers find it very hard to make a living at all, and that the Irish have won so much by resistance, the Welsh, too, are adopting the "plan of campaign" against the Episcopal clergy; that is, they refuse to pay anything at all, or only what they think reasonable. And the clergy, who have to live, have delivered them over to the secular arm. In Scotland the disorder is simply agrarian. The crofters, or holders of small patches of land, find they cannot make a living on their holdings, and look with longing eyes on the great sheep-pastures and the parks into which so much of Scotland has been converted, and have taken to driving off the sheep and killing the deer. It is in vain that the political economists explain to them that sheep farming on a large scale is more profitable than their little spade husbandry, and that the mountains would never bring so much rent in any way as in "shootings" for rich Englishmen and Americans. Gunboats and marines have had to be sent against them. A jury has just acquitted a batch of them who were put on trial in Edinburgh, in spite of a strong condemnatory charge from the judge. If the Scotch should really get their blood up, a coercion bill for them would have to be the first work before Parliament when it meets in February.

The movement in England to unite the two branches of the legal profession, so that every lawyer may be able to practise either as a barrister or solicitor, as he pleases, has been fathered by the Solicitor-General, Sir Edward Clarke, who has made a very telling statement of objections to the present system of separation. The two principal objections are that it increases expense, by compelling every litigant to employ two separate lawyers, neither of whom is responsible in any way for the charges made by the other, and that it keeps young barristers in a state of idleness and often of destitution, in the early years when, although not competent to try cases in court, they are abundantly competent to prepare them for trial, or, in other words, to do the solicitor's work. But we believe the objection which most American lawyers who have watched trials in English courts would put in the foreground is, that the solicitor's instructions to the barrister cannot and do not take the place of personal communication between the barrister and the client which the English system forbids; and that consequently English jury cases are rarely as thoroughly tried as American cases are. The barrister, in other words, is never, or rarely, as completely charged with his subject as the American counsel is, and, owing to his never seeing his client, and having another man to stand between him and himself, does not feel the same sense of responsibility to him that the American lawyer feels. At the same time, we believe a good many American lawyers are of opinion that many advocates do their work in court far better when instructed by an expert than when instructed by a client. It is not every man who has the art of extracting from a client the essential features in his case, nor is it every man who finds out for himself whether he has the art or not. Of course it may be said that the work here divides itself naturally between the man who knows how to prepare and the man who knows how to present, but this division is not so easy as it appears at first sight, because when the barrister is made accessible to the client, every client insists on getting at him and "stuffing" him before the case goes to trial. He cannot put a litigant off by telling him that his story had better come to him through a third person.

The final refusal of the French Ministry, by a unanimous vote, to allow M. de Lesseps to start a lottery to raise money for the Panama Canal has caused another sharp drop in the shares, and led the old gentleman to issue a circular in which he gravely announces that he is going to appeal to the Chambers against the decision of the Cabinet, and asks the public to back him up by bringing pressure to bear on the Deputies. Even if he does not get his lottery, he is going to issue more bonds, he says, containing "the fullest guarantees." There is, however, no guarantee now which would do the canal any good except that of the French Government, and this he will never get until the Government makes up its mind to own the canal. This would be an adventure from which even Louis Napoleon would have shrunk, and which such rickety Cabinets as French Cabinets now are will hardly venture on. But the Cabinet must come to some decision as to what is to be done when Lesseps dies or comes absolutely to the end of his resources, in order to avert a dangerous panic.

Anarchism had a merry-go-round at Havre on Monday. Louise Michel was addressing a crowd of Anarchists. In the midst of her discourse a man named Lucas, one of the audience, fired two pistol shots at her, one of which took effect in her head. The other Anarchists set upon Lucas with the intention of lynching him, but the police, who have an inconvenient, superserviceable habit of "shadowing" Anarchist meetings, interfered and rescued him after he had been pretty savagely kicked and trampled on. Louise was taken to a hospital and Lucas to prison. It was learned on examination that Lucas had sought the hand of Louise in marriage—an Anarchist marriage of course—and had been rejected. All this was consistent with the principles of Anarchism. The only incident calculated to wound the finer sensibilities of an Anarchist was the untimely interference of the police. If an Anarchist woman refuses to marry an Anarchist man, why should he not kill her? Science tells us that man in the primitive state—the natural state that Anarchism seeks to revert to — universally "went courting" with a club. When he found a woman to his liking, he ordered her to follow him to his cave or hollow tree, and if she refused or hesitated, he knocked her down and dragged her off. This is the custom among Australian savages now. What unreasonable beings the other Anarchists at the Havre meeting were to interfere with Lucas's attempt to revive the customs of the golden age.

GOVERNMENT DEPOSITS IN THE NATIONAL BANKS.

Mr. John Jay Knox, in a recent article in the *Independent*, remarks that while there is no question about the security of the Government's money (some $50,000,000) deposited in national banks, "it will require very delicate management on the part of the Secretary of the Treasury to withdraw so large an amount from the banks at any time in the future without great disturbance to the business interests of the country." This is obviously a correct prognostication. The money is deposited in the banks because there is no outlet for the Treasury's accumulations. To hoard it in the Government vaults would be "contraction" at the rate of ten millions per month, and that is not to be thought of. Anything is better than that. The banks get this money without interest. They could hardly afford to pay interest, because they are obliged to buy bonds to deposit in the Treasury as security, and take the risk of their declining in the market, as they are pretty sure to do when the money is drawn out and the bonds have to be sold to get back the money to pay the Government. The Government deposits are meanwhile loaned to the banks' customers, the borrowing public, the business community throughout the length and breadth of the country. When the money is recalled by the Government, it must be recalled by the banks from their customers. It has gone into business channels. It is part of the "life blood of commerce." This is an exceedingly artificial state of things.

The taxpayers are not, as a general rule, lenders of money on commercial paper. They do not discount bills of exchange, or make advances on warehouse receipts, or on stocks and bonds. Merchants and manufacturers are not accustomed to rely on cash resources coming in small driblets from the people in their character as payers of indirect taxes. But this is exactly what is now going on at a pretty rapid rate. The Government is merely an intermediary, gathering up money from the consumers of sugar, tobacco, liquor, blankets, etc., and lending it to traders of every description to carry on their business with—an anomalous and ridiculous condition of affairs, not so disastrous as would be the hoarding of the money in the Treasury, but, as Mr. Knox says, creating a situation of much delicacy, and requiring extreme prudence on the part of the Secretary of the Treasury.

If we go back fifty years in our history, we shall find a similar state of things, as Mr. Knox also reminds us. On the first of November, 1836, the Government had on deposit in eighty-nine banks $49,377,986. These were the so-called "pet banks" of the Jackson and Van Buren Administrations. An act of Congress had been passed to distribute this surplus in four instalments among the States. The deposits in the banks were drawn upon for this purpose, but the business community, to whom the banks had lent the money, could not respond. Before the third instalment had been paid to the States the banks suspended, and the crisis of 1837 set in. The Government itself soon afterward suspended, and was obliged to issue Treasury notes to pay the salaries of its own officers and employees. It would perhaps be too much to say that the crisis of 1837 was caused by the Government's action in first swelling the amount of bank and mercantile credit, and then curtailing it in the manner described. Other causes were at work to the same end. But the Government's action was well calculated to precipitate disaster if the materials for one were at hand.

Mr. Knox points out the advantage to be gained in this critical situation by promptly passing the bill now pending in the House to authorize the banks to issue notes up to the par value of the bonds held by them as security for circulation, instead of 90 per cent. This would give them about $20,000,000 with which to meet the call of the Secretary for the deposited money. If this bill were amended so as to make it possible for banks in the large cities to retire from circulation the notes that they do not want to keep out—that is, by authorizing the reduction of the minimum amount of bonds held by each bank to one-tenth of its capital—there would be no increase in the aggregate amount of national-bank notes whatever, but merely a redistribution of them from places where they are not wanted to places where they are wanted, from the city banks to the country banks. And this would be especially helpful in view of the Government deposits in the banks, since the city banks can easily pay when called on, while the strain will be heaviest on the banks and business men of the small towns.

THE "BLOODY SHIRT" SYMBOL.

"Bill" Chandler, the new leader of the Republican party, has hitherto met with pretty good success in rallying Republicans to the standard of the "bloody shirt," which he unfurled as soon as he entered the Senate Chamber last month. With very few exceptions the Republican press has obeyed the orders of the commander, and applauded his reactionary proposals for Federal control of elections in the South and his warfare against Mr. Lamar. It had begun to look as though the Republican platform of 1888 was to be made by hopeless Bourbons without any effective protest.

But a revolt has suddenly broken out in the camp, which involves the repudiation of the whole bloody-shirt policy. The West has always been the favorite field of the Bourbons, and Iowa, of all the Western States, their especial stronghold. It has been a curious and puzzling question why the West, which is enterprising and progressive in material things, should be dull and slow in questions of national policy, but so it has long been. People in the East found out that the war was over long ago, but there seem to be many communities in the West where the inhabitants suppose that the strife is still raging, and sit up at night to get the latest news from the front. Easterners are commonly styled narrow and selfish by Westerners in comparison with themselves, yet it has been along the Atlantic seaboard, rather than on the prairies, that the magnanimity requisite to national reconciliation was developed. The "cold" New Englander has warmed towards his Southern brethren in the reunited nation, while the "bluff and hearty" Western man has kept on taunting them with their defeat, and yelling all sorts of opprobrious epithets at them.

When, therefore, a representative Republican newspaper of the West serves notice upon the Republican party that it must change its ways on this question, it means a great deal; and this is what was done by the *Iowa State Register* on Sunday week. The *Register* is the leading Republican paper of Iowa, and its editor, Mr. J. S. Clarkson, is the Iowa member of the Republican National Committee. Hitherto, it has always been an out-and-out bloody-shirt organ, calling all Southerners—except the few who vote the Republican ticket—"rebels," ranting about "the Confederacy in the saddle," and talking generally like a Bourbon of the Bourbons.

The "constant reader" of the *Register* undoubtedly rubbed his eyes soon after he began the editorial entitled "The Party Platform for 1888," to make sure that he was awake, for more surprising matter he had never encountered in those columns. The article set out with the declaration that "the contest of 1888 will be decided fully as much by the platform as the candidate, if, indeed, the platform is not far more important than the candidate." It proceeded to attribute the defeat of 1884 largely to the platform of that year. Dropping that absurd pretence about the party's having been beaten by poor old Dr. Burchard, the *Register* confessed—and the confession must have been good for its soul—that "it was Republican business men voting against their party who defeated it in New York, Connecticut, and New Jersey."

Looking to the future, the *Register* asks, "How shall the platform of 1888 be so made as to regain these business men and to recoup the party for its losses in 1884?" It insists that this is not a matter of sentiment, but one of deliberate political calculation and solution. "It is clear," the *Register* says, "that the seaboard cities are determined to have good relations reëstablished with the South. It is clear," it adds, "that there is no longer a majority in the North to respond to the nobler issues on which the Republican party has so long stood. *It is clear*," it finally asserts in the bluntest manner, "*that there is no longer a majority in the North to sustain that idea in public affairs symbolized by the name of the bloody shirt.*"

The *Register*, for consistency's sake, deplores the fact that such a state of things exists, but it frankly admits that it does exist. Things being so, it says: "The Republican party may still breast the current and so prove the heroic spirit of its organization and purpose; but what good is it to it, or any interest it would serve, when in doing so

it keeps itself out of power, and therefore unable to protect in the least degree any interest of the loyal people, or any interest of the survivors of the Union Army?" The *Register* goes on to point out that the Republican party, by clinging to the bloody shirt, "has at the same time kept itself incapable of gaining new friends in the South." It holds that Kentucky, North Carolina, Tennessee, and the Virginias have a majority of voters who are with the Republican party on the tariff issue, "and who would vote the Republican ticket if they did not have to vote, in doing so, for a platform which taunts them with their record in the war." It concludes that the time has come to "desectionalize the party," to bid for the support of the "new voters"—in short, to renounce Bourbonism and all its works; and it thus calls upon the West to take the lead in the change of base which it recommends:

"The war is nearly twenty-five years away. The republic is now to be reunited, and the Republican party is the only one the country has ever had with heart and brain both great enough thoroughly to reunite it. The Eastern States have practically decided for the departure; the great seaboard cities have fully decided in favor of it; the West and South are neighbors in location and interest and are rapidly growing together. A million new voters are being added every four years, to whom the war for the Union is a history and not a personal experience, and who are not swayed by its passions or memories. The South will never yield the power it has taken back to itself, and can keep to itself on the line of the old issues of the war, and the majority of the North has refused longer to antagonize it on that line. The North is Puritan and the South Cavalier. The Puritan with a thing accomplished turns his back upon it, and goes forward to new things. The Puritan is the North. Can he not conquer the Cavalier by recasting the issues of the day, and showing himself to be his neighbor and willing to be his partner? Feeling has died down in the North, and as it shall die down here so will it disappear in the South."

The *Register* concludes, as it began, with the declaration that "the Republican party failed on its platform of 1884," and that "it must change its platform if it shall win in 1888." The importance of such a pronunciamiento from such a source cannot be easily exaggerated. It means a break in the bloody-shirt ranks, where a "united front" was the only hope, small as that hope was, of the Northern Bourbons. It means that the bloody shirt must go.

We heartily congratulate the *Register* upon its awakening, and wish it well in its efforts to arouse other Republican organs to a realizing sense of the situation. At the same time we feel bound to add that it is a case where wisdom comes too late. The *Register's* article was published on Sunday. On Monday all but three of the Northern Republican Senators voted to reject a thoroughly reconstructed Southerner for Supreme Court Judge on the ground that he was a "rebel" and "traitor." No Southern State will vote in November, 1888, for a party which thus treated a representative Southern man in January, 1888. Nor will any death-bed repentance of the *Register's* sort bring back into the Republican party patriotic Northern men like that veteran Republican and Union soldier, Col. George E. Waring, jr., of Newport, R. I., who was finally driven to abandon it, in his own words, by "the attitude of the party leaders towards the confirmation of Mr. Lamar."

THE PRESENT STATE OF SUBSCRIPTION.

THE dissensions in the American Board over the lawfulness of letting the heathen know anything about the doctrine of future probation, have directed fresh attention to the present state of subscription to creeds in the churches. On this subject a distinguished theologian recently published some advice to a young minister. The latter was supposed to be in an uneasy position ecclesiastically. Allusion was made to the suspicions of his orthodoxy entertained by his older ministerial brethren, to his own longing for a more congenial, because more liberal and up-to-date, denomination, and to various other thorns in his cushion. It was rather curious, however, that not the faintest reference was made to the question of the young man's personal honesty, in the attitude in which he found himself towards a creed which was distasteful to him, though he had sworn allegiance to it. It was curious, and yet it was not at all curious, as things are going; for subscription has come to be largely recognized as more of a form than anything else, and the case cited is simply significant of the lapsing of the question so strenuously debated fifty years ago.

It should not be inferred from this that there is no longer any restlessness on the part of young men in submitting to the same creed tests from which some of their fathers shrank, or that consciences are not as tender now as a generation ago. The difference is that palliatives have been discovered in the last score of years. One of these is an open and distinct relaxing of the terms of subscription. This has appeared in English and Scotch ecclesiastical legislation, but has not, so far as the writer knows, yet overcome the prejudice in America against English importations. In the University Tests Act of 1871, the burden of subscription to the Articles was entirely taken off the backs of the students at Oxford and Cambridge, except in the cases of divinity students, who, with the fellows, professors, and heads of colleges, were still required to subscribe. The latter, however, were supposed to be greatly relieved, in common with all clergymen of the Church of England, by the Clerical Subscription Act of 1865, which substituted a general assent in the place of a declaration of assent to "each and every article." It was indeed argued in Parliament, at the time of the proposed change, that there was no real letting down involved, since the whole was made up of all its parts, and there could be no honest assent to the whole if some parts were excluded; furthermore, it was said, if a subscriber may exclude any one part, he may also any other, and thus there would be no validity to the creed whatever. But these views were argued against by the friends of the bill, and it has been accepted as a great boon by troubled consciences. In this way Dr. Arnold's idea of subscription, which gave considerable scandal in its day, had to wait only twenty-four years for legal enactment. It was in 1841 that he wrote to an old pupil: "The real honesty of a subscription appears to me to consist in a sympathy with the system to which you subscribe, in a preference of it, not negatively, merely as better than most others, but positively, as in itself good and true in all its most characteristic points."

But that even this has not afforded thorough and permanent relief appeared from an article in the *Nineteenth Century* for September, 1885, entitled, "Why Men Will Not be Clergymen," written by a young Oxford man, Mr. Hubert Handley, who said that he, with many others in the universities, were far from being satisfied with the relieving legislation of '65; that their education had led them to believe many things which not only found no countenance, but were positively denounced, in the Articles; and that, while they had the greatest reverence for Christianity and a high affection for the Church of England, they could not see their way to take orders honestly. A postscript to the article stated that, since writing what had gone before, the author had been informed by the highest authority of the Church that a clergyman was at liberty to hold any scientific or historical opinions he pleased; but it added that, if this were so, it ought to be made known, directly and legally. Till it should be, the Oxford young man felt the old difficulty.

Even in Scotland, where men proverbially take their theology so hard, a beginning has been made in rendering subscription less severe. The Synod of the United Presbyterian Church of Scotland adopted in 1879 a declaratory act, expressive of the sense in which the ministers and elders of that denomination are to be understood when they assent to the Westminster Confession. The explanation amounts to this, that they do not take several of the clauses of that symbol in the obvious meaning of the words. But the important thing is that the movement was decidedly in the direction of liberality, and that it has been hailed as a great relief by many who have benefited by it.

A second palliative is found in the various movements for creed-revision. Of actual accomplishment little can be said. The Creed Commission of the Congregational Church, and the new creed devised by that body and submitted, with general acceptance, to the denomination, are the most recent and positive achievements in this direction. The Cumberland Presbyterians before that had got out their new and revised edition of the Westminster for their own use. There is more or less sporadic talk in the Presbyterian Church of attempting a revision of its doctrinal standards, but nothing tangible has resulted, thus far, except the relief given some advocates of amendment in freeing their minds by speaking out in meeting. In fact, it would seem that little more is to be expected along this line. The Congregationalists are at present serving as a warning to the other denominations. Within the limits of ministerial clubs, it is often admitted that the creed is not exactly what it ought to be, and that it would be a great

comfort if some of its items had not so laboriously to be explained away; yet all hasten to add that the time has not yet come for any change.

One reason why they do not feel it imperative that there should be a change, and the most effective of all the palliatives, is to be found in the fact that subscription is nowhere taken so seriously as it used to be. That is to say, what was attempted for clergymen of the Church of England in the act of 1865 has been quietly and almost insensibly brought into practice in this country. An ambiguous assent, in general terms, is everywhere substituted for the older strict acceptance of the letter. In few cases has this come about through any distinct ecclesiastical action. It is simply custom gradually gaining the force of law. Men now assent to creeds as a "system," "as a whole," and feel at perfect liberty to reject certain parts—a considerable number of parts, sometimes—parts once, at least, thought vital to the system.

Probably the most conspicuous instance of such an assent is the subscription to the Articles of the Episcopal Church in the United States by its candidates for orders, which is, so to speak, by indirection, that is, by engagement "to conform to the doctrines and worship" of that Church. None of its clergymen are held strictly bound by the merely formal assent they give before ordination. A prominent clergyman of that Church felt entire freedom to say of the Articles, publicly, that they "are not generally approved." It is clear that, in such a case, subscription cannot be felt as a burden. Similarly, though in a less degree, has it fared with the Presbyterian churches. Since the reunion of the Old with the New School branch, an acknowledged, if not a strictly legal, latitude nas been attached to subscription to the Westminster Confession. Certainly the Presbyterian subscription is allowed to mean some things in New York city which it would not be allowed to mean in Pittsburgh. It is allowed to mean some things in Pittsburgh which it would not be allowed to mean in South Carolina. If a young man seriously asks what forms and shades of doctrine are essential to the system to which his assent is required, the highest Presbyterian authority will tell him that it is an unsettled question. But if he wanted to find out what the entire Church would consider to be the heretical among several competing opinions, his only way would be to try to carry a case through all the church courts. This will not be found exactly a royal road to knowledge.

Now, it would be a mistake to infer that the condition of things thus outlined shows moral looseness on the part of those concerned. The ministers and authorities of the churches are not guilty of playing fast and loose with such solemn obligations. The difficulty is rather in a complete oversight of the question. The vast majority show themselves unwilling to take steps to remove what a few feel to be a grave defect, because the vast majority do not perceive that any defect exists. Their minds are directed almost exclusively to other aspects of ministerial life. Their profession is an exacting and absorbing pursuit. Matters of immediate practical concern loom up so large that remote and delicate questions, like the one in hand, are not seen. It may be safely said that the matter of subscription to a creed is a thing to which the great mass of clergymen do not give many minutes of thought in a year. To most of them the whole affair is *res adjudicata;* they signed the creed so many years ago, at ordination or installation, and since then they have not bothered their heads about it. If you talk to them about church extension, about missions, about the relation of laboring men to the churches, you find them awake and interested; but if you once begin on the question of subscription, it strikes them like a particularly dry bit of ancient history.

BYRON'S CENTENARY.

THE absence of any widespread interest in the centenary of Lord Byron, which occurred on Sunday, is a marvellous illustration of the vicissitudes of literary reputation. Only in Greece was public notice taken of it. The brilliancy with which his fame burst forth, the unexampled rapidity with which it spread through Europe, the powerful influence it continued to exert on the youth of the next age, were to the men who witnessed them sure signs of the magnitude of his future renown. The decadence into which it has fallen would have been incredible to them. But so far are we from that strong impression of his genius that the comical incident of his grandson, Lord Wentworth's, feeling himself called on to protest against any public notice of the illustrious poet from whom he sprang, excites only a feeling of amusement, and seems a kind of caricature of the irony of fate. It was Byron's distinction to have been the first man of letters who enjoyed an international reputation at once; and one can hardly credit the fact that he has shrunk so wonderfully. In the month that he died Sir Walter Scott, in a brief article which attracted wide attention, said that it seemed almost as if the sun in heaven had been extinguished; and when Scott soon followed him, Landor, writing to Crabb Robinson, remarked that the death of these two had "put the fashionable world into deep mourning," and drew gloomy predictions, in the well-known manner of contemporaries, because the great men were leaving no successors.

Something of the shock of Byron's death and of the exaltation of his genius at the moment was due to the manner in which he met his end; he had fallen like one of his own heroes, died in a cause, and appealed to the romantic feeling of the age. Even then, however, to admire him was found to be a different thing from approving him. When the thirty-seven guns had been fired at Missolonghi, and the Turks had responded with "an exultant volley," and the ship had brought home the remains, the Abbey was refused, and he was buried in the common soil of England. Two incidents of the funeral bring him very near to us. Lady Caroline Lamb met the cortège as she was driving, and, on being told, in answer to her question, that it was Byron's, fainted in her carriage; and Mary Shelley, as she saw the procession winding down, reflected on the short-sightedness of human life, asking who could have foretold at Lerici such changes as she had witnessed in two short years.

Hobhouse could raise only a thousand pounds for a memorial with all his efforts, but with this he got Thorwaldsen to make a statue which was sent to England in 1834. The Abbey was again refused, and, to the discredit of the nation, this work was allowed to remain stored away in the Custom-house eleven years, because no fit place could be got to put it. At last, in 1845, Dr. Whewell gave permission to set it up in the Library of Trinity, which it still adorns. Thirty years later came the miserable fiasco of Beaconsfield's Committee, which, far from making Newstead Abbey a national possession and gathering there the relics of Byron, placed in Hamilton Park (other sites being refused) that statue of the poet leaning on the rocks, with his dog Boatswain beside him, which can only be described as popular melodrama in stone, beautiful only for the mass of red marble which the Greek Government gave for its base. It is to be remarked, also, that at this time the Abbey was a third time practically refused, as Dean Stanley, out of respect to the action of his two predecessors, but not apparently for any other reason, precluded application for erecting a tablet there by a letter in which he said he preferred the subject should not be brought before him.

The history of monuments, however, is not necessarily proof of fame. Others of England's greatest do not sleep in the Abbey, and the hero not infrequently waits for his statue a long age. The place of fame is on the lips of men, and Macaulay, when Moore's Life came out, could speak of Byron as "the most celebrated man in Europe." The decline of his vogue was nevertheless rapid and unmistakable. We all remember Carlyle's oracle — "Close thy Byron; open thy Goethe." This must have been about 1840. But, unfortunately, as one writer observes, to open Goethe is to return to Byron's greatness. Did not Goethe tell Eckermann that a man of Byron's eminence would not come again, nor —save the mark!—such a tragedy as "Cain"? He thought him greater than Milton—"vast and widely varied," whereas the latter was only simple and stately. Perhaps, as we have been told, Goethe was flattered by Byron's imitation.

Whatever was the reason, the critical judgment of Goethe is one to be weighed with regard to Byron, and to himself, also, for that matter. What part Goethe's praise may have had in making Byron the hero of "Young Germany" we have no means of determining, but his works were vital in the new age there, and still his hold seems greater on the Germans, if we may judge by the test of translations and biography, than it is elsewhere on the Continent. Heine was more than touched by him, though he was far from being his duplicate, and could see the humorous side of those young Parisians—Musset the foremost—who were melancholy in the

full glow of first manhood, and went about in despair dining sumptuously every day. One pities Musset, for Byron was, as much as another man can be, the secret of his fate. Lamartine caught only the sentimentality of Byron, but Musset assimilated his darker spirit, his recklessness, and license, and scepticism, and transmuted his very coarseness into a Parisian vulgarity. Stendhal and Sainte-Beuve paid tribute to him; and, to cut the subject short, Mazzini thanked him in the name of Italy, in Spain Espronceda drew his inspiration from him, and Castelar in the later time eulogized him for his liberating influences in the peninsula with Spanish amplitude of phrase. Karl Elze thinks that the Russian poet, Pushkin, was his child; if it were so, Byron might well be proud of what such an influence was the beginning of in Russia. This rapid survey, with its brilliant names, impresses the mind with the range and dominance of this man, of whom Landor's sneer, when he hoped that "the mercies which have begun with man's forgetfulness may be crowned with God's forgiveness," does not now seem so absurd as formerly.

To look at the matter from this point of view, however, is to confuse Byron with Byronism. There was a European mood, a temperament of the revolutionary time, that fed on Byron, but he was not its creator, and to regard him as more than a single influence of many that moulded the young men of the next generation, is to give him vastly more than his due. This is the secret of his vogue in Europe—not that he liberated their minds, but that he set the fashion for minds expanding in a new age of intellectual pride and moral irresponsibility, helped to form their attitude, and was a rallying name for the faction. He was licentious, but he was neither democratical nor atheistical; he had no body of opinions properly thought out and correlated with social facts, either in politics or religion; he had no strong convictions even; but, with prejudices of rank and reminiscences of Scottish theology from which he could not free himself, he was an impulsive and therefore uneven revolter from the old régime, and never quite at home in the new camp. He preferred, he said, to be beheaded by the King and not by the mob; and the whole aristocrat spoke in the saying. Shelley wrote of him, "The canker of aristocracy needs to be cut out," and he hits off Byron's inconsequence in religion where he speaks of him under the name of Maddalo and contrasts him with himself. Maddalo, he says, took a wicked pleasure in drawing out his taunts against religion; but, he adds, "What Maddalo thinks on these matters is not exactly known." Byron is believed to have talked with Shelley more seriously than with any other man. He did not himself know what he thought; and his state of mind was well expressed by his remark to Lady Byron, "The trouble is, I *do* believe." As Stevenson lately observed, the old Gordon blood was strong in him. In substance, therefore, unlike Shelley, who was democratical and atheistical on principle, Byron was far from being the ideal of the various "young" nationalities, France, Germany, Italy, and Spain, in the principal tenets dear to the age. It was rather his personality, and what they transformed him into by their worship, that had power over them in their search for "liberty"; and truly, though his ideas were incomplete and fragmentary, and inextricably blended, even in their formation, with his impulses and the accidents of his position as a pariah of genius, yet there was a contagion in his spirit, a dash of energy and of abandon, that told as blood tells more than thought.

One advantage, too, Byron had with foreign nations that with his own counts as a defect. He had no form, no art, no finish; and the poet who failed in these things can be read in our day only by a kind of sufferance, and with continual friction with what has come to be our mastering literary taste for perfection in the manner. It follows from this defect that he bore translation better than he otherwise would. His quality is power, not charm; the mood, and the situation, and the thought are the elements that count in his poetry, while the words are at the best eloquent or witty, but not "the living garment of light." The result was, that he could be given almost completely in a foreign language; he lost practically nothing. This consideration may go far to explain the relative estimate of him by foreign writers in comparison with other English poets; for these others who have the charm that cannot be transfused, the art that will obey no master but its own Prospero, are seen, as one may say, without their singing robes; and their poetry, made prose, loses half its excellence. This, together with the German element in one portion of his work and the strong Italian influence in a larger portion, especially in 'Don Juan,' must be taken into account in any attempt to understand why he was the best known English poet on the Continent, and perhaps, with the exception of Shakspere, still is.

In England, Byron's reputation met with rapid decline from natural causes. It is not likely that his misconduct in morals was much against him, and Beaconsfield was wholly on the wrong track when he reminded the Byron meeting that, after half a century, a man's private life scarcely enters into the estimate of his literary genius. It seems rather Byron's lack of orthodoxy that England most resented. Society put up with much libertinism in those days in high quarters; but Byron had attacked the faith, or at least elements of it which the Church shared in common with Calvinism, and this was too shocking a matter for a society which found hardly more than matter for gossip in natural sons and daughters. This was the reason which a bishop alleged in the House of Lords in answer to Brougham, in the debate on the second refusal of the Abbey. Byron had attacked Christianity, and he should not be interred "in the Temple of our God." The middle classes have always rejected Byron, in like manner, because he scoffed, though, no doubt, his life and the licentious portions of his poetry also offended them. From the first his scepticism was heavily against him, and probably it still remains the strongest objection to his works in the minds of Englishmen generally. In Landor's bitter attack (he had offended Landor by rhyming his name with *gander*) this charge is made the climax, and the passage is brief enough to quote as the best word of Byron's enemies:

> "Afterwards, whenever he wrote a bad poem, he supported his sinking fame by some signal act of profligacy: an elegy by a seduction, a heroic by an adultery, a tragedy by a divorce. On the remark of a learned man that irregularity is no indication of genius, he began to lose ground rapidly, when, on a sudden, he cried out at the Haymarket, *There is no God.* It was then surmised more generally and more gravely that there was something in him, and he stood upon his legs almost to the last. Say what you will, once whispered a friend of mine, there are things in him strong as poison and original as sin."

This, with all its excess, is no inapt character of Byron, as English prejudice drew him.

On the other hand, much that was in his favor at first was necessarily temporary. The man had a story. He was one of the picturesque characters of the age, and while he lived he was interesting to his time merely for his personal fortunes. It was to his gain, too, that he identified his own romance with that which he early invented, appealing to the adventurous in men and to the pity and admiration of women. His heroes are strong, and strength succeeds with the sex in fiction as well as in life; and they are, besides, usually faithful in love, while their crimes are taken out of the moral region of deliberate choice by a kind of emotional sophistry, and somehow are charged to their circumstances, so that the unwary and innocent reader commiserates their villanies instead of being revolted by them. These tales (and no part of his work was more popular) are trying reading to-day, but we forget too readily what raw and bloody fiction the world had in the first score years of this century; we cannot conceive how London ran after stories of blighted brigands and sentimental corsairs, in the very thunder of Waterloo. But so it was, and Byron was more interesting in that he was the unhappy and noble original from which the pirates of his imagination were drawn. If he changed the scene and wandered over Europe as Childe Harold, he gained in sentiment; if he wore the mask of Manfred, he gained in tragedy; and if he sneered in Don Juan, there was the jaded man of the world, perhaps more interesting. He was, moreover, a peer; but a dead peer certainly is no better than a dead lion, and when he died, why—the fashion in collars changed. Other living personalities occupied the stage; England grew steadily more sincere in religion, more strict in the standard of private morals, more exacting of seriousness in thought and of perfection in literary form; and all these influences were adverse to Byron, who made no offsetting gain in his own country from the revolutionary fervor that helped him on the Continent.

What is there left? Some stirring passages of adventure, some eloquent descriptions of nature, some personal lyrics of true poetic feeling, dramas which, it is to be hoped, have

finally damned "the unities," and one great poem of the modern spirit, 'Don Juan.' And what remains of that melodramatic Byron of women's fancies? His character has come out plain, and we are really amazed at it—proud, sensual, selfish, and, it must be added, mean. Ignoble he was, in many ways, but, for all that, the energy of his passions, his vitality, his masterly egotism, and the splendid force of his genius, made him a commanding name and stamped him upon the succeeding European time. He cannot be neglected by history, but men certainly appear to pass him by. Arnold has endeavored to bring him back by a collection; but Arnold's critical views on poetry seem to be justifications in age for the tastes he had when he was young—reasons after the act. A late biographer thinks that the decadence of his fame is due to the conservatism of the last half-century, and that in the revolutionary age that ought soon to be beginning, he will retrieve himself. But can this be hoped of a "revolutionary" poet whom Swinburne has cast aside? The prediction does not convince us. Byronism has gone by, and the age of the "enlightenment" in Germany and France; such a mood is not repeated. Goethe outlived Wertherism, but had Byron such good fortune? In his own character there are such defects as forbid admiration in the light of our moral ideas; and in his poems, taken apart from their time, there are other defects, both in their substance and, unquestionably, in their form, which forbid the sort of approval that would make them in a true sense classic, as a whole, though the qualities that make 'Childe Harold' and 'Don Juan' great, and preserve here and there passages in other poems, are those that confer immortality. He was a poet; he was a force, also, that spent itself partly in creating a world-wide affectation, and partly in rousing and reinforcing the impulse of individual liberty on the Continent; but he is a poet no one can love, and he left a memory that no one can admire, and there is none of his works that receives the meed of perfect praise. And, as to the fruits of that vast influence, is it hard to say whether they were more good than evil? At all events, it is certain now that Sir Walter indulged in a tremendous hyperbole when he likened Byron's extinction to that of the sun in heaven.

THE HIGHER EDUCATION FOR WOMEN IN NEW YORK CITY.

NEW YORK, January 21, 1888.

AT the present moment there are from New York city and suburbs two women students at Cornell, four at Bryn Mawr, thirteen at Smith, seventeen at Vassar (besides fifteen in preparation for it), and thirty-one at Wellesley; making a total of fifty-seven students coming this year from New York city or some place whence they could easily attend a day college in New York. And if fifty-seven girls can leave their homes and encounter the discomforts of an independent life for the sake of pursuing a collegiate education, how many would attend college gladly, enthusiastically, were it not necessary to face the obstacle of leaving home? It is certain that where fifty New York mothers would consent to their sons leaving home to study at Harvard or Yale, only four or five of them would permit their daughters to attend Wellesley or Vassar. The principal of one of the best schools for young ladies, a school where the pupils are fitted conscientiously for a collegiate curriculum, told me the other day that, though she has only lately begun, she has sixty-five pupils (including two grades, seniors and juniors), and that, of the seniors, sixteen from this city are about to enter some college (Wellesley, Smith, or Bryn Mawr), and at least five more are wofully bemoaning their fate because their parents will not allow them to leave their homes.

For the last thirteen years there has existed a "Society to Encourage Studies at Home." It merely aims to encourage women to study by a system of correspondence between teacher and pupil. It wisely supposes that there are a great many women who have a taste for study, but cannot leave their homes to attend college. A pupil can study as much as she thinks she is able, and can become as proficient as she wishes in any branch of knowledge that is capable of being studied at home, and without a tutor upon the scene. No degrees are given, but a certificate stating exactly what has been studied, and with what success. The teachers are women of culture and refinement, and correspondence with them is a great boon. Of the women in New York who are longing for *something definite* to do in the way of study, and are prevented from attending college because there is none in the city, thirty-three pursue this course, besides thirty-six others that live in the vicinity, thus making a total of sixty-nine girls in New York and vicinity who are studying by this method for lack of better.

Sixteen hundred girls go to Normal College. Out of these 1,600, only a small number become teachers, and that is the object and worth of the college—to turn out teachers. The curriculum at Normal does not satisfy the demand in women for a complete collegiate course; seven graduates of Normal College are now studying at Columbia. It is commonly supposed that only parents who could not afford to pay tuition fees send their children to Normal College. On the contrary, a very large number of the parents could easily afford it, and would gladly send their daughters to a private college where a higher curriculum and degrees could be procured. For such as cannot afford to pay tuition, President Hunter tells me he is very anxious to secure the right of conferring degrees as the New York College for boys has the right. He would also alter and improve the present curriculum of Normal College, having an Art course for such as would care to take the degree B.A., a Normal course for such as would care to become teachers, and possibly an Industrial course for such as would wish to earn their living as artisans.

There exists also an apology for a collegiate course for women held out by Columbia College. There have been thirty-eight girls who began that course. During the four years, eight have dropped from the ranks—either from discouragement at the slender advantages offered and many difficulties to contend against, or perhaps from nervous dread of encountering the phalanx of staring youths; one girl has graduated and received her certificate, and one more has put argument into the mouths of the enemy by leaving the course to enter upon married life. Thus, with wonderful perseverance, twenty-eight girls have continued to take the course. These twenty-eight girls have worked nobly, actuated by the sentiment that a principle was at stake. They felt that they were there on trial, on probation; several of them, though deriving but little benefit from their labors, still kept on, hoping that their perseverance would finally induce the trustees to open to the women students the full privileges of the college.

By a resolutfon of the trustees of Columbia College adopted June 8, 1883, it was ordered that "a course of collegiate study equivalent to the course given to young men in the college, should be offered to such women as may desire to avail themselves of it, to be pursued under the general direction of the Faculty of the College, in accordance with the following principles, and regulations," etc. This read excellently—it seemed as if the long-talked-of loaf was at last to be thrown to the women; but, alas! it soon turned out to be a stone, and of a particularly indigestible quality. These "principles and regulations" simply were to the effect that the women could pursue their studies wheresoever and howsoever they pleased, except under the sacred roof of Columbia. Their unhallowed presence was not for an instant to be sanctioned in the laboratory or lecture-room. All that concerned Columbia was that the women were to be present at its examinations twice a year, and to be able to answer certain questions, which questions satisfactorily answered, they were at liberty to return home again and prepare for the next set of questions.

It is no easy task for a girl to study alone, unaided by tutor or professor, and prepare for examination papers more difficult than had the boys, inasmuch as the examinations for women were prepared from the entire range of the books, and the examinations for men prepared only from lectures, the particular bent of which had become familiar. Yet twenty-eight New York girls are now doing it.

A couple of years later the trustees passed a resolution allowing the college to confer degrees on women if they had in all respects followed the full equivalent to the boys' course—in all respects except the important ones of attending lectures and working in the laboratories. Is it to be wondered at that only two or three have essayed to gain a degree of B.A. or B.L. under such conditions?

The women have been admitted, during the past couple of winters, to lectures given at Columbia on Saturday mornings. Prof. Boyesen, Prof. Charles Sprague Smith, Dr. Butler, Dr. Titus M. Coan, and others have been heard with great enthusiasm each week by some 200 ladies, and many applicants for tickets were obliged to be refused. Some years ago several professors were in the habit of inviting a few ladies to attend their lectures. The ladies enthusiastically availed themselves of the invitations, and were among the most ardent listeners. Among the ladies invited were some members of the President's family and a daughter of one of the trustees. All was going smoothly when, unfortunately, the trustee in question in an evil moment was seized with the desire to read the Constitution and By-laws of the College. To his horror he found that, in allowing his daughter to attend the lectures at Columbia, he was violating the laws of the college! He at once withdrew his daughter; the President could scarcely permit his relatives to remain, so he was obliged to follow the example of the trustee, and soon there was not a woman left.

The President called a meeting of the trustees and read them the resolution passed some years ago by them, and essayed to prove that the admittance of women to the lectures was not against its spirit, but only the letter of it. The resolution was to the effect that no person should be allowed to attend the lectures of the

college professors, without having duly matriculated as a student of the college. The President clearly explained that at the time the resolution was passed there was no thought of women entering the college or asking for admission to the lectures. The resolution was passed merely to prevent the possibility of the professors permitting men to attend their lectures, pocketing the receipts obtained, and thus depriving the college of its tuition fees. As the admission of women to the lectures was a matter of courtesy, and known to the college, there could be no such objection. Notwithstanding this very plausible reading of the resolution by the President, the trustees agreed that women must no longer be allowed to attend any of the lectures.

Failing in his object, the President then called another meeting and asked the trustees to legalize the admission of women to the lectures by another resolution worded carefully, so as to preserve the spirit of the original resolution. This they refused to do, and even those who had hitherto shut their eyes to the prevailing habit now vehemently opposed the resolution permitting it. When asked by the President for an explanation, they could only answer that they wished the question had never arisen before the Board, for, though in the irregular operation of the illegal habit they had seen no real objection, still they were loath, officially, to advocate such an advanced and liberal (and possibly demoralizing) condition of things. So, since that day, no women have been permitted to attend the regular lectures. Even if women could legally be admitted to the lecture-room, there would still exist a reason why coeducation could not take place at Columbia College proper. Columbia, like Harvard, needs all her income for the institution as it now exists, and does not care to assume new responsibilities.

President Barnard has told me that he has every reason to believe that if only the funds for a separate college could be raised, and a building not far from Columbia be built or hired, there could be soon put in working order a successful college with its instruction furnished by the professors and other instructors of Columbia College. I have not met with any professor that would not be heartily in favor of such a plan. They all agree in thinking that the present course at Columbia for women is little more than a farce, and yet the women students continue to increase in number, so eager are they to pick up the stray crumbs of knowledge that are offered them. Even now, though there is not yet a regular college where women can be instructed by the professors of Columbia College, there are a great number of principals of private schools for young ladies who, shrewdly seeing how anxious their pupils are for something, anything, really collegiate, have engaged one or more Columbia professors or tutors to lecture to the girls during the winter, and the different instructors may be seen scattered about the city as trump cards in the hands of clever schoolmistresses.

An annex to Columbia would, of course, be compared with the Harvard Annex. It could well bear comparison. The Harvard Annex has been established for about eight years; it began with twenty-seven students and to-day has 100 students. It now occupies modest but comfortable quarters in Cambridge, and only requires to be recognized as permanently connected with Harvard University to become a perfect success. The founders of the Harvard Annex had to cope with serious difficulties that are entirely removed from the founding of an Annex to Columbia. The students of the Harvard Annex are not permitted to gain a degree, but are obliged to content themselves with certificates. On the contrary, a graduate of the Columbia Annex would readily receive the degree of B.A., as the "Circular of Information for the Collegiate Course for Women at Columbia College, 1887-88," reads: "The degree of bachelor of arts will be conferred on such students as shall have pursued, during four years, a course of study fully equivalent to that for which the same degree is conferred in the School of Arts, and shall have passed all the examinations required." And, further, "any woman who shall have taken the degree of bachelor of arts in the collegiate course for women may study for *higher degrees* under the direction of the Faculty of the college." And for those who wish only to pursue some special studies: "To students not pursuing the full course required for the degree of bachelor of arts, but limiting themselves to one or more courses of inferior range, a certificate of proficiency in the subjects pursued will be given on the satisfactory completion of such course or courses of study, to be signed by the President of the college and the examining professor or professors."

In Cambridge they have an Annex and are praying for certain conditions that will insure its permanent existence and success. In New York we have the conditions that would bring permanent existence and success, *but we have no Annex.* "Where shall the scholar live?" says Longfellow. "In solitude or in society? In the green stillness of the country, where he can hear the heart of nature beat, or in the dark, gray city, where he can hear and feel the throbbing heart of man? I will make answer for him, and say, in the dark, gray city." In this "dark, gray city," this huge, growing, striding, ambitious city, with its many means of satisfying life's demands, there is one lack—the lack of a college where women may attain a complete education without leaving their homes and families. Ought we not, therefore, to begin at once to organize an association for the collegiate instruction of women by the professors and other instructors of Columbia College?

ANNIE NATHAN MEYER.

DAUDET'S 'THIRTY YEARS IN PARIS.'

PARIS, January 13, 1888.

I TRIED not long ago to give an analysis of the 'Journal des Goncourt,' and I insisted upon the difference between the social habits of the writers of the eighteenth century and of those of our own time. I showed how the Goncourts, though they belonged by birth to what is called society, always remained voluntarily out of society; how they shut themselves up, led solitary and contemplative lives; how, when they mixed with other men, they only cared to see writers, artists, devotees of the ideal. This spirit of seclusion, this divorce from the concrete realities of life, is exemplified again in a volume of memories, of biographical notes, just issued by Alphonse Daudet under the title of 'Trente ans de Paris.' This little volume is not a real biography—we have in it only glimpses of the past life of Daudet; but *ab uno disce omnes*, and the pictures which he gives us are so vivid, are so full of light and life, that it is impossible to form an incorrect opinion of the aim and character of the whole existence of the writer.

If, among our popular novelists of the present day, there is one who can be, in some senses, compared to Dickens, it is Alphonse Daudet. He has the same innate sympathy for all sufferers, for the weak, the humble, the victims of life; the same sense also of humor, though his irony deals with an entirely different class of people. For a Frenchman, he is almost a problem, for he combines in himself a strange northern sentimentalism with the most extraordinary comprehension of the "sunny South," of its candid vanity, of its childish gayety, of its impulsiveness, of its levity. Daudet is, at the same time, superficial and deep: he can suffer and he can laugh. The mystery of this double nature is probably to be found in his ancestors; but he tells us nothing about them, he only narrates in his first chapter his "arrival in Paris," the difficulties of his youth.

As soon as he left school, Daudet became what we call a *pion* in the little *collège* of Alais, in the Cévennes. The *pion* is not a teacher, he is the man who remains with the boys between the teachers' lessons and during the recesses; who eats with them and sleeps in the same dormitory. He is generally a very poor young man, who, for a miserable salary, finds in a *collège* the means of preparing himself for the examinations of the University. In the half-military, half-conventual character which the French Revolution and Napoleon gave to the French *collèges*, the poor, despised, unhappy, discontented *pion* took the place of the priest. The organization of the lyceums was an exact copy of the organization of the Jesuits' school; only they are lay schools, and the element of devotion to the child, of religious propagandism, has been suppressed. The child and the *pion* have become enemies, instead of being friends. You may perhaps have read Daudet's 'Le Petit Chose.' It is an exquisitely painful story, as it relates very exactly the sufferings of a *pion*. Daudet tells us, in his 'Trente ans de Paris':

"Yes, it was myself, this *Petit Chose*, obliged to gain a living at the age of sixteen, in this humble profession of a *pion*, and doing it in a distant province, in a country full of iron furnaces, which sent us rough little boys of the mountains, who insulted me in their brutal and hard mountain idiom. Delivered up to all the persecutions of these monsters, surrounded by hypocrites and brutes who despised me, I bore all the vulgar humiliations of the poor. No other sympathy, in this prison of sorrow, than the sympathy of the priest whom I have called the Abbé Germane, and the horrid 'Bamban,' whose queer little face, always dirty with ink or with mud, rises sadly before me while I write this."

Long after his stay at Alais, Daudet often woke up at night with his eyes full of tears, thinking that he was still a martyr. No wonder if he was anxious to leave Alais; but where could he go? To Paris? What would he do there? Paris is the great centre, the great luminary, which attracts all the butterflies of the country. Its very name is a promise; few young men have not felt like the young hero of Balzac who looks down on Paris from the height of Montmartre, and says: "À nous deux, maintenant." Alphonse Daudet had, fortunately for him, a brother who was already in Paris, living on a small salary. This brother sent for him, and offered him his hospitality.

The boy (for he was not yet a man, being only sixteen years old) travelled for two days in a third-class carriage, in winter, with light summer clothes. After he had paid for his ticket, he had only two francs in his pocket; he bought nothing on the way, and, towards the end of the journey, when the train was crossing the dull plains of Champagne, he nearly fainted. There were some gay sailors in his car who gave him some drink. He fell asleep, and only woke up in Paris. His brother was waiting for him, with a hand-cart and a commissionaire. "Where is your baggage?" Fine baggage indeed—a poor little old trunk, full of nails and mended in every corner. They started on foot, at the dawn of day, towards the Quartier Latin, walking behind the commis-

sionaire. Paris appeared to the poor and tired boy in its mysterious and almost awful matinal silence. "The gaslights were being extinguished; the streets, the Seine, its bridges, all seemed dark through the fog. . . . I kept near my brother; my heart was heavy within me, and I felt an involuntary terror." Then comes the description of the *crèmeries*, of the Rue Corneille, of the frugal breakfasts—"three sous' worth of coffee"; the first impressions produced by the Odéon, by the white marble statues of the Luxembourg Garden. "My brother was rich. He held the office of secretary to an old gentleman who dictated to him his memoirs at the price of 75 francs a month. We had to live on these 75 francs till we received the visit of Glory. We were together in the fifth story, in the Rue de Tournon, hôtel du Sénat."

How amusing is the description of the colonies of students, especially the students from Gascony, from the "sunny South"—noisy, turbulent, incessant singers and talkers. We meet among them Gambetta. "He was already the man whom we have known and admired. Happy to live, happy to talk, a loquacious Roman on a Gaulish stalk, he made himself drunk with his own speeches, shook the windows with his thundering eloquence, and ended generally in great fits of laughter. He was already a king among his comrades, especially as he received from Cahors 300 francs a month—an enormous sum for a student of those times."

Daudet had no turn for politics, as many of his friends had; he was completely absorbed in literature. He tells amusingly the history of his first trials. The office of a publisher was the Mecca of his aspirations. I wonder, even now, how he ever found one, with his poetical look of an Italian *pifferaro*. Even now he wears his long and curly hair parted in the middle, and looks thoroughly Italian, like the men of the Roman Campagna whom you meet on the steps of the Trinità del Monte. At the age of twenty he must have looked exactly like the models who are found in all the studios. His brother was his Providence, and helped him to make his way. He found a publisher in the Quartier Latin, named Tardieu, who published his first book of poems, 'Les Amoureuses.' He was a man of letters.

We could wish Daudet had given us the history of his relations with his publishers, but he jumps from Tardieu to Villemessant, editor of the famous *Figaro*, and gives a description of him. He tells us also the story of his first dress-coat, and of the visit he made in it to Augustine Brohan, one of the best actresses of the time at the Théâtre-Français. This visit was his début in the world. His acquaintance with the world was continued in a few literary salons. First, we have a charming picture of old Mme. Ancelot, now forgotten, but once the queen of a salon. "Nothing admonishes her. Everything gets old and faded round her—the roses of the carpet, the silk of the hangings, the memories, and the people; and while the century goes on, this life which is stopped, this home of another age fixed like a boat at anchor, sink silently into the past." Sometimes Mme. Ancelot asked Daudet to recite some verses. "Louder, louder," said she, "M. de la Rochejaquelein does not hear." She did not hear herself.

Daudet's readers will be interested in his "History of my Books." He makes us acquainted with the man who became the type of his 'Tambourinaire,' with the real Tartarin de Tarascon, and with the history of its publication. We learn what I may call the genesis of the charming volume 'Lettres de mon moulin,' written in the little domain of Montauban, on the road to Arles, where Daudet stayed at various times in order to cure himself, as he says, of Paris and to breathe the perfumed air of his dear Provence. We have also the genesis of 'Jack,' one of his best stories. We see the real Jack, such as he knew him, and learn his real adventures. We follow him from his infancy to the Hospital of Algiers, where he died; for Daudet never creates any types without having a model—his imagination is always helped by his memory. All Paris knows who were the principal characters in 'Le Nabab,' in the 'Rois en exil.' We have all recognized under their new names the men and women who have *sat* for him; and sometimes we have thought, also, that he has been too unmerciful, too ungenerous, that he has made too much use of persons who had been his friends or the protectors of his youth, that he has taken too many liberties with persons whom he had better have left in their solitude. In his 'Évangéliste,' for instance, he has, without sufficient evidence, tried to throw odium on certain religious persons; in the 'Rois en exil' he has mixed his palette in such a way that some irreproachable characters have come out in his work in false and odious colors. This excessive liberty, which borders sometimes almost on cruelty, is a consequence of the unsocial life of our modern writers of the Daudet type. Had he mingled more with the world and felt its useful pressure, he would have deprived himself perhaps of certain loud effects, but his work would have gained on the whole—he would have been nearer the truth.

AN EXEMPLARY ART CATALOGUE.

University College,
Liverpool, January, 1888.

Lovers of art in the present day enjoy facilities for study possessed by no previous generation. Not only are museums on every hand and of every kind increasing both in number and in accumulated wealth, but loan collections are continually being organized in all manner of places. The student who would take advantage of all the opportunities now offered him in different cities and countries, would have to travel with much persistence from place to place, and need not rest either summer or winter. This is perhaps possible to no single amateur. There must be many, not in America only, who were unable to see, for instance, the wonderful collections of the works of Reynolds, Gainsborough, and Van Dyck brought together in successive years at the Grosvenor Gallery, or the surprising collection of works of the English school during the last fifty years by which Manchester has recently gained so much prestige, not to mention a solid accumulation of pounds sterling. Unfortunately, these collections have to be dispersed almost as soon as they are brought together, and nothing remains but a bare list of names by which to measure the value of what one may not have seen. An illustrated catalogue was indeed published of the Reynolds collection, but the work was poorly done and failed of its purpose. With the means of illustration now at the disposal of publishers, it ought to be possible to publish (and sell) a really satisfactory memorial illustrated catalogue of every such collection, and these catalogues would in course of time assume a value and importance which it is difficult to overrate.

In 1886 there was an international exhibition at Edinburgh, noticeable among other things for being one of the few exhibitions productive of a compact profit. Needless to say, an art collection formed one of its most attractive features. This collection consisted entirely of French and Dutch pictures, one and all the outcome of the Romantic revival in France. It was formed chiefly if not entirely by the energy of one gentleman, himself the owner of many of the best examples shown, who had the discretion to prefer success in his undertaking to fame for himself, and whose name never appeared before the public at all. This collection attracted an unwonted amount of attention. It has now been made the subject of a memorial catalogue in every way worthy of its merits.

The volume,* besides possessing beauty and interest, is noticeable as a specimen of artistic production. It has been printed at the Edinburgh University Press, and is understood to be the first (or almost the first) of a series of artistic publications which may be looked for from the same quarter. Lovers of finely printed and illustrated books may be glad to have their attention called to this. The paper and printing of the catalogue are good. The title-page and initial letters are, to my thinking, a little out of harmony with the style of the rest. They resemble seventeenth-century work, while the type and proportion of letter-press and margin are visibly modern. The illustrations are excellent. They represent sixty-nine out of the one hundred and ninety-two numbers included in the catalogue. They consist of fifty-four outline sketches incorporated in the pages, and of fifteen etchings, of which one is by Mr. B. F. Blommers (after his own picture), the others by Hole or Zilken. The average of all the etchings is good; one or two are more than good. I may mention especially the charming interpretation of Corot's "Evening in Normandy."

The letter-press has been supplied by Mr. W. E. Henley, a writer widely known to specialists in this part of the world, but to the public chiefly as quondam editor of the *Magazine of Art*. No one, perhaps, would have been found possessed of a wider knowledge of the productions of the Romantic school, not in painting only, but in literature, drama, and all other branches. His introductory "Note on Romanticism" may be recommended to all who are interested in the Renascence of the nineteenth century; not that it actually formulates much direct information or criticism, but that, by implication and reference, it leaves upon the reader's mind a feeling of the mass and energy of the productivity of a great epoch. It is pregnant and suggestive—a brief dissertation which, read at the right time by the right man, might well decide the direction of a life's study.

More than this it is needless here to say. Some criticisms I would willingly add, but they would deal with matters of secondary importance, and could only be made interesting to the reader if prefaced, like the catalogue, with a dissertation upon Romanticism, written from another point of view. W. M. Conway.

Correspondence.

PROHIBITION AND HIGH LICENSE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: You have frequently advocated high license as a better practical means than prohibition for the suppression of intemperance. In the message of the Governor of Iowa, recently published, he says, "During the last year, and particularly during its latter half, there has been a decided falling off in penitentiary con-

* *Memorial Catalogue of the French and Dutch Loan Collection*, Edinburgh International Exhibition, 1886. Edinburgh: Printed at the University Press and published by David Douglas. 1888.

victs, and a very large number of county jails have been empty, some of them for the first time in years. There has been a marked improvement in the condition of our poorer people, especially in the families of laboring men addicted to strong drink."

Can a result like this be shown in the States which have adopted a system of high license?

W. A. N.

TERRE HAUTE, IND., January 17, 1888.

[We have lately quoted Bishop Ireland's statements about the effect of the new High-License Law in Minnesota. He says it has greatly reduced drunkenness and disorder, increased the bank deposits of the Polish and other of the poorer classes of people, and that in "many of the smaller places drunkenness has disappeared altogether."

In Illinois, high license has reduced the number of saloons from 13,000 to 9,000, and under the provision of the law which permits any municipality to increase the tax to any limit it pleases, or to refuse all licenses whatever, by a majority vote of its citizens, prohibition has not only been decreed, but is enforced over two-thirds of the soil of the State. In the cities it has greatly restricted the number of saloons, and has perceptibly decreased drunkenness and crime.

In Ohio, where a tax law prevails, levying only $200 on each saloon, 2,088 saloons have been closed because of the tax, 517 more have been closed by votes of town councils, and in 200 towns prohibition is enforced under a local-option clause.

Similar results have been obtained by high-license laws in Michigan, Missouri, and Nebraska, as we have repeatedly pointed out. In Missouri and Michigan, separate local-option laws have been adopted, which have given a larger portion of the rural sections of the State absolute prohibition. In fact, it is the almost invariable practice in States adopting high-license or tax laws to proceed naturally to supplementary local-option laws. The two working together accomplish the most satisfactory results. High license restricts and regulates the liquor traffic in the cities, and local option secures prohibition in the smaller towns and villages. In each case the remedy adopted is supported by the public sentiment of the community, and the consequence is that the law is enforced. A vital point, which prohibition advocates too often overlook, is that the principal struggle with the liquor evil is in the cities, not in the country districts. We do not know of a single instance in which high license has failed to restrict the traffic in cities, nor do we know of a single instance in which prohibition has succeeded in abolishing it there, or in doing more than to drive it into secret places, where its harm has been increased rather than diminished.—ED. NATION.]

HOW TO PROCURE GOVERNMENT PUBLICATIONS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Will you inform me, and I imagine many others of your readers, how Government publications may be obtained without relying on the uncertain favor of one's Representative or Senator? Some time ago I wrote to the Government Printing Office for a pamphlet on State boundaries, published by the Geological Survey, remitting at the same time the advertised price, 10 cents. I never received the pamphlet.—Yours respectfully,

E. BRUNCKEN.

MILWAUKEE, WIS.

[A failure of the mail either way would account for our correspondent's disappointment. But a safe resort would be to Mr. J. H. Hickcox, 906 M. St., W., Washington, whose monthly priced 'Catalogue of U. S. Government Publications' ought to be accessible in every public library in the country. —ED. NATION.]

"THE CHEAP LIBRARIES AND ROYALTY COPYRIGHT."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Mr. Charles E. Taylor, in your issue of to-day, says that "one, and not the least, object of the 'League' is to put a stop to these unreasonably cheap editions of foreign authors," "the radical evil which it is the aim of true international copyright to uproot."

I should rather state the continuance of low-priced editions of reprints under the royalty system as a special advantage—

(1.) To authors. By the explicit and repeated statements of the most experienced publishers, they can sell *fifteen copies of a popular book at ten cents for one at a dollar.* This gives an author precisely *one-half more* copy-money on a low-priced than on a high-priced edition. Yet further, an American author whose sales have been exceeded by few, found that when the sales of certain full-priced books began to decline, the issue of cheap editions not only gave him copy-money on these cheap large issues, but also actually increased the sale of the library edition. Mr. Justin McCarthy was informed in Philadelphia by a most successful author in American history that, after buying two copies of Mr. McCarthy's 'History of Our Own Times' in cheap form, he had placed the bound library edition on his bookshelves, and that all the members of his college classes had purchased the low-priced issue. One of the dozen publishers of Mr. Haggard's 'She' sold 130,000 copies in cheap form, which at 10 per cent. royalty would have given the author nearly $3,000, while probably more of the library edition were bought than if the issue had been confined to the higher-priced style. No answer seems ever to have been made as to this statement of facts respecting the profit to authors of the sale of popular books at low prices. The author of 'Called Back' found a sale of 300,000 of his book before his death, because it was issued at a shilling.

There are classes of books, not popular with the masses, which, under royalty, as now, can only be issued in high-priced editions; and the authors, instead of a trifling honorarium, given as a favor involving personal obligations, would then receive their established tithes.

(2.) As to the public: The largest effort of the imagination can but faintly conceive the advantage, as well as delight, to scores of millions of students and toilers of small means of possessing books, "*their very own.*" Ten books at twelve or twenty-four cents (copy-money added) of the Franklin Square Library are worth to them nearly ten times as much as one book at a ten-fold price, just as ten pieces of plain bread are worth more than one piece of cake to men who cannot buy all the cake they want. The better paper and binding are unimportant to them, as compared with the very soul of the authors conveyed to them in their writings. Those who have passed much of their time in caring for the young can alone know their exquisite delight in the ownership of favorite books, and that a little library becomes a salvation to them from the allurements of gross temptations.

It must never be forgotten that in the advance of the cost of books by ten times, under a copyright of exclusive sale, seven-eighths of the net advance goes to the venders and one-eighth only to the authors. I cannot see any reason to believe that English publishers, who largely become owners of copyright books, would not place their reprints at the highest practicable prices in America.

Wrongly or rightly, our tariff takes a toll of 25 per cent. on the works of British authors brought here. The royalty system would not take one-fourth of their property away, but would probably double its present value. This is common sense and justice both for authors and readers.

If American authors have a lively competition, the secured British tithes should compensate them for this. Legislation should care for authors and readers, leaving publishers to adjust their system to the needs of their principals.—Respectfully, R. PEARSALL SMITH.

JANUARY 12, 1888.

[The desirability and advantage of cheap books, the proper division of the profits made upon the sale of a book between its author and its publisher, and the righteousness of the royalty-copyright scheme which Mr. Smith advocates, are entirely distinct questions. And it does not follow because the enactment of his pet plan would, as he claims, insure cheap books, that the royalty-copyright legislation proposed is either right or expedient. The United States has witnessed the questionable extension of legislation in many directions, but we have as yet no example of an act establishing, for the moral right inherent in one person, a different kind of legal protection from that granted to secure the exercise of the very same right by another person in the same community. Nor has the exceptional legislation interfering with the natural laws of trade, so as to influence the amount of profit which might accrue to the producer of any special article, ever received the sanction of thoughtful people.

As regards cheap books, they, as well as everything else which goes to add to the pleasure and dignity of human life, may be sold *too cheap.* Whenever a book is sold at a price which does not allow to every person who is a factor in its production an equitable payment for his share of the mental or physical labor involved—that book is too cheap. Books may be too cheap from another point of view. Mr. Smith would put the price of a good book down to the cost of a cigar. But we conceive that if a book is to make a lasting impression upon the mind of its reader, there must go more self-denial into the act of making it his "very own" than is called for by the sacrifice of a single cigar. Mr. Smith admits that not all books are popular, and that only those of established popularity would come within the operation of his plan. He names two very good examples of the kind of books (and they are the only kind) which would be widely sold under a system of enforced cheap reprints. But the distribution

to "scores of millions of students and toilers of small means" of ten-cent editions of books like Mr. Haggard's 'She' and Mr. Conway's 'Called Back,' in order to save them from the "allurements of gross temptations," seems much on a par with a mother's endeavor to keep her darlings out of mischief by an unlimited supply of sweetmeats. The following words from one of the great writers of English literature may be recommended to Mr. Smith's thoughtful perusal: "Life being very short, and the quiet hours of it few, we ought to waste none of them in reading valueless books; and valuable books should, in a civilized country, be within the reach of every one, printed in excellent form, for a *just price;* but not in any vile, vulgar, or, by reason of smallness of type, physically injurious form, at a *vile price.* For we none of us need many books."—Ed. Nation.]

THE RATE OF WAGES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your comments on the letter of "H. D. C." in the *Nation* of January 12 seem to leave untouched, except by implication, the vital fallacy in people's minds regarding the relation of the rate of wages to the question of reduction of the tariff.

Like "H. D. C.," many people, believing on *à priori* grounds in the advantages of a reduced tariff, fear that such a reduction can only be accomplished by a corresponding reduction in the rate of wages. The fallacy seems to be that they assume as true that the higher the rate of wages the greater is the cost of product. You pointed out that foreign competition does not bring English wages down to the level of German, French, and Belgian wages, which are as much lower than English as ours are higher; but you gave no explanation of how that is possible. The truth seems to be that the cost of the product depends just as little on the rate of wages, *leaving out of account the amount of the product of those wages*, as the speed of a horse depends on the time he is running, without regard to the distance he covers. If the cost of the product depended on the rate of wages only, the farmer would get the paupers and the imbeciles to work for him, and yet every one knows that the farmer who pays enough to secure competent and intelligent labor need have no fear from the competition of his neighbor who employs incompetent laborers at a less rate.

On turning to vol. xx. of the U. S. Census of 1880, we find it full of illustrations of the correct principle. In certain glass works in the United States the average price of labor was in 1860 $1.22 per day, and in 1880 $1.63¼, and, therefore, under the popular fallacy, the manufacturer of 1880 could not possibly compete with the one of 1860; and yet we see the cost of the same grade of tumblers, which in 1840 was $1.50 to $1.25 a dozen, only 25 cents to 35 cents per dozen in 1880. That is, with increased rates of wages we may still have a cheaper product. Again, in 1860, the average wages in a certain well-established axe factory were $1.75 a day and in 1880 $2.25, and yet the axes cost $11 a dozen in 1860, and only $8.50 in 1880.

In other words, with higher rates of wages, we may, with improved processes, better and cheaper raw material, and more skilful labor, have a cheaper and yet better product. For example, what with better sand, the natural gas, and the better class of mechanics in Pittsburgh, Pa., as compared with Belgium, we might see (had we the soda ash free of duty) American glass, made by better-paid laborers, exported to Belgium at a profit. Nor is this so very improbable. Mr. Edward Atkinson, who has made a special study of the subject lately, tells us that the wheat-farm laborers in Rhenish Prussia, a most prosperous part of Germany, are paid from $4 to $6 a month and their board, and poor enough board at that, while in Dakota we pay the regular laborers $25 a month, and temporary laborers $2 a day and their board; and yet the cost of producing the wheat in Rhenish Prussia, not including interest on the land, is 80 cents per bushel and only 40 cents in Dakota. It is nearly the same thing with pork, and we actually find both France and Germany, with their cheap labor, putting a high duty on American wheat and pork to protect themselves from the product of our labor that is more highly paid.

The question then comes to this, Is the product of American labor relatively enough greater than that of European to enable us to compete and yet to pay the higher wages? Statistics necessary to prove the exact ratios probably cannot ever be got with sufficient accuracy, considering all the difficulties in the way, to prove this beyond a doubt; but it is to be remarked that in looking over the exports of the United States we find that though we cannot compete, with our present tariff, in the raw materials, which require but little labor, yet, as we put more and more labor into these materials, and make agricultural tools, pianos, carriages, chemicals, and medicines, machinery, firearms, locks, refined sugar, and the like, we are able to export them with profit, and in direct competition with the cheaper labor of the Old World. Another indication of our power to maintain higher wages than the other countries is, that if the total yearly product of the United States is divided among our laborers, it gives to each laborer more than the total product of England or the Continental countries, divided up, gives to each of their laborers. If, then, the American laborer produces more per head, why may it not be possible that we can afford to pay him a higher rate of wages in open competition?

R. H. Dana.

Boston, January 17, 1888.

DR. ELY AND THE LABOR QUESTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Believing with you that the lasting solution of the labor question is to be got by each man doing justice to his work, by putting his heart into it, and by trying more to give value received than by worrying about all due, I am moved to send you the following item:

At the Illinois State Teachers' meeting, held in Springfield December 28–30, Dr. R. T. Ely of Johns Hopkins read a lecture on "The Teacher and the Labor Question." Anything more profitless could scarcely be devised. The good he said has been published over and again in a score of school journals for months past; as for the rest, it was pure twaddle. The lecture was far inferior to much that has been published on the subject, and contained absolutely no new light. Now, if he did not know that his talk was stale, his ignorance should detract somewhat from the value of his writings; if he did, then by what right does he denounce workmen who want long-time pay for short-hour work? For he received $150 for his effort. It looks very much as if the Doctor had symptoms of the striker's complaint—something for nothing.

Yours, Frank M. Drew.

Genoa, Ill., January 14, 1888.

MORE OF BLAINE'S "SURPLUSAGE."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: As an interesting illustration, though on a comparatively small scale, of Mr. Blaine's ideas as to the disposal of the surplus, the scheme to obtain from Congress an indefinitely large appropriation to make a good harbor for vessels and larger yachts at Bar Harbor, Me., deserves a prominent publicity.

The plan, which originated with Mr. Blaine, and which, I understand, is now being urged at Washington by his lieutenant, Mr. Hale, is to connect with the shore an island which is nearly a mile distant from it at the nearest point, the depth of water between being at high tide not less than seventy feet for the greater part of the way, and at the shallowest, save when one small reef comes to the surface, twenty-five or thirty feet. The bottom, moreover, shelves seaward, and the exposure is to the full force of every storm. When this herculean labor has got well under way, Mr. Blaine has announced his intention of getting a further appropriation made for the removal of the bar which gives its name to the town, a bar hundreds of feet wide and thousands of feet long.

The alleged reason for the enormous outlay these schemes would necessitate is to make a naval station for training ships and ships of war, but for this Bar Harbor is ill-fitted both by the severity of its winters and by the gayety of its summers, while good harbors of Nature's making, with quieter seas and quieter seasons, abound upon the whole New England coast.

That local trade would be benefited by the creation of a first-class harbor is doubtless sure, and the measure would certainly find favor in Mr. Hale's neighboring home of Ellsworth; but why the country at large should be taxed for such a purpose it would be difficult even for Mr. Blaine to satisfactorily explain. That some explanation or justification of the scheme should be given, however, is made doubly desirable for the friends of these two statesmen, who have been made the subject of occasional unkindly criticisms, by the fact that they both are landowners at Bar Harbor, and might therefore be suspected by the uncharitable of being influenced by personal considerations.

One must allow, however, in common justice to Mr. Blaine, that his brain is certainly a very fertile one, and that if he had but the management of affairs, there would never be danger to the community from an accumulation of the surplus.—I remain, yours very truly, B.

Boston, January 16, 1888.

DARWIN ON CLASSICAL STUDIES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The letter of your correspondent "H. T. P." in the *Nation* of January 12 must have occasioned a good deal of surprise. Mr. Darwin is quoted as entirely opposed to classical studies, and his opinion of the classics as a means of education is brought forward as "particularly interesting and valuable just now, on account of the rabid criticism directed against the liberal and progressive policy of Harvard University."

All this is very surprising, for reasons disclosed in your correspondent's own representation of the facts. Mr. Darwin is quoted as recording the fact that "nothing could have been worse for the development of *my* mind than Dr. Butler's school, *as it was strictly classical.*" "*No mathematics* or *modern languages*" is noted as the *chief omissions* (the italics are mine). Now, I submit that the foregoing makes a very poor case against the classics. No classicist of sense or culture has proposed throughout the discus-

sions of the past twenty years to offer a course of study that shall be "strictly classical"; nor should the friends of classical study be held responsible for the unwisdom of the old English cathedral schools, with their heavy mediævalism. In an ordinary school course nowadays, of the range and scope of the old Shrewsbury school, about seventy hours a week are devoted to recitations, and, of these seventy hours, only some thirty hours are devoted to the classics. So far, therefore, as the allotment of hours is concerned, your correspondent has upset only his own straw man.

But this is a minor point as compared with the following: Your correspondent's only witness is Mr. Charles Darwin—a man destined by Providence (I suppose) for a thousand years as the world's foremost scientist. Rightly, then, does Mr. Darwin say, "Nothing could have been worse for *my mind* than Dr. Butler's school." But minds like Mr. Darwin's are manifestly not the sort of minds educators are trying to treat and train. How absurd it would have seemed to your zealous correspondent had some classicist summoned as his only witness Dr. Arnold, Prof. Curtius, or Prof. Hadley. How much value would attach to the testimony of any one of these witnesses had he stated that he had attended ——— school, whose course of study was "strictly" scientific, and that nothing could have been worse for the development of his mind than Dr. ———'s School! In the interest of truth and sobriety in a serious educational question, I submit that your correspondent is guilty of a glaring *non-sequitur*. The whole question, Mr. Editor, of the rightful place and use of the languages and literatures of Greece and Rome calls for a finer spirit and a truer deliberation than are revealed by such deliverances as this I have been examining.

The "modernists," having fought a righteous fight and won a pronounced victory in favor of more science and more modern languages in our schemes of education, should now have a care lest, from being the persecuted, they should now emerge as the persecutors. It is indeed much to be feared that their own epithets "rabid" and "bigoted" may soon be applied to themselves with manifest pertinency. X.

TRAINING FOR THE REASONING FACULTIES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: If you ask me what early training will most strengthen and develop the observing and reasoning faculties, I answer, "A close and rigid classical education, extending through both school and college."

If you ask me how I prove this, I answer, "By the early education and subsequent scientific life of Charles Darwin."

If you ask me where this proof can be conveniently found, I answer, "In the letter of your correspondent 'H. T. P.,' *Nation*, January 12, 1888, p. 29."—Respectfully, etc.,

C. C. N.

Washington, D. C., January, 1888.

STATE NOMENCLATURE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: When considering the possibility of the passage by Congress of an act enabling the Territory of Washington to form a State government, the desirability of the change of name from Washington to some name of local or other appropriate significance should be recognized. Aside from the confusion of the possible State with the national capital, the present confusion of Washington and Wyoming Territories, arising from the precise similarity of the abbreviations used for each, W. T., is not inconsiderable. Letters for one Territory not uncommonly go astray to the other, and news from places in Washington Territory is very often printed in Eastern papers as from places in Wyoming Ty. which do not exist. The arrival of a certain ship at Port Townsend, Wyoming Ty., was once announced in an Eastern paper. Whether the dropping of the designation Territory from Washington would entirely overcome this confusion is a question.

H.

Cambridge, Mass., January 20, 1888.

Notes.

The new American Folk-Lore Society met at Harvard College on January 4, and took organic shape. Its object was defined to be the study of folk-lore in general; and in particular, North American collection and publication. Its membership is open to those who pay $3 in advance on January 1 of each year. It will hold an annual meeting by appointment of the Council. Its organ will be a scientific journal, sent free to every member, and whose first number will, it is hoped, be published in April, by Houghton, Mifflin & Co., with a quarterly appearance thereafter. Prof. F. J. Child of Harvard was chosen President. The Acting Secretary is Mr. W. W. Newell of Cambridge, Mass., to whom intending members should address themselves. The list already printed in the circular before us is a remarkable collection of names eminent in American literature and scholarship, and any one might well wish to find himself in such good company.

The fifth and sixth annual reports of the Managing Committee of the American School of Classical Studies at Athens (1885-87) are united and put under one cover. We read of one young lady (A. M., Mich. Univ.) as among the students of 1885-86, who devoted herself to the temple remains of Eleusis. Excavations during the period in question were made of the theatre at Thoricus, on the southeastern coast of Attica, and of the theatre of Sicyon, northwest of Corinth. Of these we shall hear later in detail. The home of the school has been built on land given by the Government, Dr. Charles Waldstein has been secured as permanent Director, and a strenuous effort is now making for a permanent endowment.

Scholarships to bear the name of the late Archbishop Trench are to be established in Alexandra College, Dublin, and an appeal is made for American coöperation in this memorial foundation. Subscriptions should be sent to Macmillan & Co., 112 Fourth Avenue, New York.

Ginn & Co. promise in April an 'Introduction to the Study of the Middle Ages, A. D. 378-814,' by Ephraim Emerton, Professor of History in Harvard University.

T. Y. Crowell & Co. will publish next month 'Napoleon and the Russian Campaign,' by Count L. N. Tolstoi, with a well-engraved portrait of the author after the least satisfactory original which has yet fallen under our notice. It has been badly engraved before.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. issue at once 'The Second Son,' by Mrs. Oliphant and Mr. T. B. Aldrich; 'A Masque, and Other Poems,' by Dr. S. Weir Mitchell; 'Beyond the Shadow, and Other Poems,' by Stuart Sterne; and a two-story volume by Bret Harte, containing "A Phyllis of the Sierras" and "A Drift from Redwood Camp."

This being the season of the year for new ventures in periodicals, we are to expect next month the weekly *Garden and Forest*, a journal of horticulture, landscape art, and forestry, under the general control of Prof. C. S. Sargent of Harvard, as we have already given notice. Its publication office is in the *Tribune* building. Also, about the same time, will appear the *Publishing World*, an illustrated monthly literary newspaper, undertaken by the Brinckerhoff Printing & Publishing Co. at No. 771 Broadway. Mr. Hugh Craig will be the editor. *Outing* has again changed hands, and is henceforth to be conducted by Mr. J. H. Worman, editor of the *Daily Saratogian*.

The first number of the *Lincolnshire Notes and Queries*, a quarterly journal devoted to the antiquities, parochial records, family history, traditions, customs, folk-lore, etc., of the county, is before us (Horncastle, Eng.: W. K. Morton). The editors are Ernest L. Grange, M.A., and the Rev. J. Clare Hudson, M.A. The typography is very tasteful, and the contents pointed and entertaining. We observe in the partial list of subscribers but one American—the Boston Public Library; but many individual Bostonians might well occur on it, considering the relations of Lincolnshire to the Bay Settlement. A folding facsimile of a protection granted by Charles I. in 1643 is the sole illustration of the present number.

In the present month there is to appear at Oporto a new *Mensageiro Litterario*, a review with a European bibliographical section, as well as a scientific and a literary. The publisher, J. J. de Mesquita Pimentel, aims at something different from any existing publication in Spain, Portugal, or Brazil.

In the December number of *Le Livre* M. L. Derôme has something learned and valuable (as we expect of this writer) to say concerning the ups and downs in the reputation of Charles Perrault, best remembered by what is a minor title to remembrance, his 'Contes des Fées.' As a favorite officer of Colbert's, a superintendent of royal construction under Louis XIV., author of the colonnade of the Louvre, founder of the Académie des Inscriptions and of the Académie des Sciences, member of the Académie Française, whose receptions (beginning with his own) he first made public, besides introducing the secret ballot, he left enduring traces of his originality and force of character. In many ways he was ahead of his time, as in bespeaking for France a uniform system of weights and measures, and in contending against the humanists by insisting on the greatness of the moderns, as in his famous 'Parallèle des anciens et des modernes,' his critical judgments having since been fully ratified. On this point M. Derôme dwells at length, and urges a collective edition of his works. To Perrault and not to Scarron belongs the couplet describing the shadowy coachman in Hades who,

> ". . . tenant l'ombre d'une brosse,
> Nettoyait l'ombre d'un carrosse."

Some interesting facts about the family of Rabelais are also to be found in this number of *Le Livre*, with the announcement that an exhibition of caricatures is to be held in Paris during the present year.

The *Revue des Deux Mondes*, in the number for January 1, announces that there will appear in its pages during the coming year papers by M. Renan, "Les Règnes de David et de Salomon"; M. Taine, "Le Passage de la République à l'Empire"; and "La Conquête de l'Algérie," by an Academician less widely known than the other two, M. Camille Rousset, whose previous

work on the same subject, 'Les Commencements d'une Conquête,' published a few months ago, first appeared as separate articles in the pages of the *Revue*. M. Renan's papers on the reigns of David and of Solomon will continue the story of his 'Peuple d'Israël' from the point where the published volume ends far enough into the next one to give as vivid an impression of that as the long passage previously published by the *Revue*, "Saül et David," gave of the earlier one. M. Taine's promised papers, like his "Napoléon Bonaparte" in the numbers for February 15 and March 1 last year, will be a portion of the forthcoming volumes on the Empire in his great work, 'Les Origines de la France contemporaine.' Three other Academicians are also announced to contribute in a lighter vein to the *Revue des Deux Mondes* during the present year: M. Victor Cherbuliez, with "La Vocation du Comte Ghislain"; M. Octave Feuillet, with "Un Artiste"; M. Ludovic Halévy, with a story which has been talked of for more than a year, "Blanches Couronnes."

No. 2 of vol. x of the *American Journal of Mathematics*, lately received, reminds us that we have not yet noticed No. 1 of the same volume, received some time ago. That number was adorned with a very fine full-page portrait of Prof. J. J. Sylvester, well worthy of being framed and hung up in the library of every mathematician. The shape of the massive head is completely exposed, since it is almost entirely devoid of hair, and the stamp of profound, absorbing, and yet quiet thought appears in every lineament of the strongly marked countenance. Another feature of these two numbers of the *Journal* is the more than ordinarily extensive use of geometrical figures to illustrate the text. One of the articles in the first number has six figures in the text, and a paper in No. 2, entitled "Forms of Non-Singular Quintic Curves," is supplemented by twelve quarto pages, containing forty-seven figures. The fourteen papers contained in these two numbers are evenly divided between European and American writers, including among the latter Prof. Young of University College, Toronto, Canada. Of the contents of these papers we can only say that those who have made, or who intend to make, mathematics the principal study of their lives, will find them of the highest interest; to all others they will be unintelligible.

The pictorial supplement of the *Art Age* for January is a very competent etching by Mr. Hamilton Hamilton after Mr. F. D. Millet's spirited painting "The Click of the Latch"—a young wife, with beaming face, looking out of the cottage window to greet her husband.

George Bell & Sons, London, have published a fluent English translation by May Herbert of 'Schumann's Early Letters.' There is of course an introduction by Sir George Grove (an English musical work without a preface by Grove would be an anomaly), and the editor points out with satisfaction the esteem in which Schumann is held in England to-day, as compared with the neglect of former times. The letters were reviewed at length in the *Nation* when they first appeared in Germany. They are of interest even to non-musical readers who like to look into the workshops of genius.

The prettiest book which has come out of England for a long while is 'Aucassin and Nicolete,' done into English by Andrew Lang (London: David Nutt; New York: Scribner & Welford). It is a reproduction of the form and spirit of the best Elzevirs. There is an etched title-page by Mr. P. Jacomb Hood, who has also adorned the tiny volume with exquisitely delicate and appropriate head-bands and tail-pieces. The paper is Japanese, tough and supple and rich-toned. The printing has been done at the Chiswick Press; the modest rubrication is especially to be commended. The whole book, inside and outside, is a testimony to the taste and learning of the editor-translator. His rendering of the *chante-fable* is idiomatic and felicitous, with at least a suggestion of antiquated quaintness. The style, as Mr. Lang tells us, "if not Old English, is at least English which is elderly, with a memory of Malory."

The first folio of Shakspere, which is of inestimable value to the student of the text, has been brought within the reach of every one by the photographic facsimile which has been made of it in a reduced octavo size ('The Works of William Shakspere in a reduced facsimile, from the famous first Folio Edition of 1623. With an introduction by J. O. Halliwell-Phillipps.' New York: Funk & Wagnalls, 1887). Mr. Halliwell-Phillipps's Introduction is very short, and contains nothing noticeable. When we remember that an average copy of the original brings £500, and a good copy has sold as high as £714, the use of photography in multiplying the volume for the "poor scholar" is something to be thankful for. We observe, also, two new reprints by the same means in the Shakspere-Quarto Series, the "Richard II." of 1634 (the Fifth Quarto) and the "Famous Victories of Henry the Fifth," 1598, which, though not Shaksperian, is important enough as the predecessor of Shakspere's play on the same subject to be included, and is thought to contain the germ of the comic elements which he developed.

Cassell's National Library swells its second volume with Selden's 'Table Talk,' Defoe's 'Essay upon Projects,' and another instalment of Pepys.

Sensible and humorous is Mrs. A. M. Diaz's 'Bybury to Beacon Street' (Boston: D. Lothrop Co.). The villagers of Bybury are supposed to meet together, and to talk and write about their experiences, as well as to discuss various subjects. We hear also from the busy Beacon Street woman, whose days are as painfully subdivided by the conflicting claims of home, society, charity, and shopping, as poor Mrs. Lammerkin's of Bybury by those of cooking, sewing, baby-tending, etc., which all seem to require attention at once. Amusing as well as distressing are the stories of their tormented hours. Sunlight in the house, simplicity in dress and diet, self-respect instead of the worship of wealth and fashion, education of women in skilled labor, are among the things Mrs. Diaz advocates by the mouths of her speakers. These and other topics are touched with the bright insight and penetrating common sense which are the worst enemies of stupidity and folly. The social lump needs plenty of such leaven. We hope that both in city and country the book will be widely read.

Books on housekeeping and connected subjects abound. Harper & Bros. offer us Juliet Corson's 'Family Living on $500 a Year; a Daily Reference-Book for Young Housekeepers,' based on a series of articles which appeared in *Harper's Bazar*. This is food-economist, cook-book, and instructor in table service all in one. The discouragement which might come to an ordinary housekeeper through realizing from its contents what an amount and variety of knowledge it is possible and desirable to have on such matters, is handsomely offset by the enlightenment and suggestions it affords. Not the least attractive of the thirty-six chapters are those which contain bills of fare. One has, however, a feeling that to practise the economy here indicated, and at the same time to follow out all the ideas in regard to table variety, would entirely absorb time, strength, and vitality. Moreover, the amount of spicing and frying required does not exactly accord with some hygienic considerations. However, the book is a capital one, and every housekeeper should feel grateful to the able and painstaking author.

Still another work on household matters is 'The Biddy Club,' by Griffith A. Nicholas (Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.). Despite the undignified title and informal opening, the gist of it is very serious advice upon housekeeping questions, especially the treatment of domestics. It is the careful effort of some earnest well-wisher to both mistress and servant to teach the former how, by fulfilling her own duties, she may develop capacity in the latter. It is daring in its ideals, but full of admirable suggestion. It emphasizes strongly the duty of treating servants with kindly consideration as well as the strictest honor, and has also the conspicuous merit of showing how American women should face the dragon of domestic service, instead of cowering before it, as is often assumed must be done.

An interesting supplement to the grand "Édition Nationale" of Victor Hugo has just been issued in Paris uniform with that most sumptuous publication. It is devoted to the costumes of "La Esmeralda," the opera-libretto Hugo wrote for Mlle. Bertin in 1836, and it contains fifteen colored plates after the water-colors of Louis Boulanger, a facsimile of an engraving by Celestin Nanteuil of the scene of the first act, a facsimile of the "poster" of the first performance, a selection from Mlle. Bertin's score, and a preface by M. Charles Nuitter, the learned archivist of the Opéra. (Paris: Testard; New York: F. W. Christern.)

Part 18 of the 'Geschichte der Deutschen Kunst' (Westermann) continues the narrative of German painting. Part 19 introduces the section on Art Industry. The colored and other plates and the cuts interspersed with the text are, as usual, abundant and of a high order.

—Mr. Lowell's poem stands first in interest in the February *Atlantic*, not only for its author's sake, but intrinsically. It is a long poem and difficult in its matter; the style, too, is exalted; but though readers who are not familiarized with the language of verse at once condensed and elevated may find the first reading hard, the meaning and the beauty of the poem will yield, as we have discovered for ourselves, to repeated perusal. The author himself anticipates criticism by calling the lines "a mystical comment on Titian's 'Sacred and Profane Love.'" There is no reference to these pictures in the poem, which uses the myth of Endymion for its allegory. It describes the growth and changes and typical moods of love for woman from the youth's white ideal to the man's passion for possession, and afterwards, ending with the affirmation of the three-fold nature of his object of desire as "queen of my heaven—queen, too, of my earth and hell." The lines which express the youth's first impulses of awe and worship, his maiden fancies, are especially beautiful; but the characteristic of the poem is its nobleness. This slight analysis and suggestion are all we can give, but we hope they may serve to prevent some natural discouragement in those who may be disposed to think that the poem "entertains of too hard matter." The other contents of the magazine are almost entirely literary, which is a matter for congratulation. There is much fiction, much poetry, and much criticism. Mr. Lathrop's article upon George Meredith is better than is usual from his pen, and though one observes a good deal of

"hedging" by means of over-praise, it is a paper which helps to clear the air about this latest idol of "the cult." Mr. Lawton's essay on the "Medea" has many excellences, and Mr. Perkins's sketch of Madame Necker is entertaining history. The view of the state of European law on the subject of civil and religious marriage, which is the only other topic we have space to mention, is interesting in its subject, and seems to be exhaustive and trustworthy; it is a chapter in social development, rather than a technical inquiry.

— *Harper's* has a good deal that is of interest in politics. Senator Edmunds replies to Henry Watterson, on the protective side of the tariff argument, but he contributes nothing new to the discussion, except perhaps his opinion that the tax on whiskey does not affect its consumption. He is followed by Osborne Howes, jr., who writes of our shipping interests, and advocates a free-trade basis, on which alone they can flourish, either by taking off duties or by allowing drawbacks, together with the necessary change in the registration laws. His argument is simple, straightforward, and business-like. There is a cognate paper on the various ship-railways, with maps, now undertaken or proposed in Canada, about the Lake States, in Florida, and in Mexico; and a sketch is given of the Athenian ship-railway at Corinth, and of the feat of the Venetians in transporting a navy to Lake Garda in the Middle Ages. The Socialistic agitation in England is very instructively treated by J. H. Rosny. He does not enter into the right and wrong of the matter, but he illustrates the methods of the propagandism of the theory by the London groups, and shows the state of affairs, the actual look of the situation, very effectively as well as in an entertaining way by reporting the conversation in an English barroom and the scenes in Victoria Park where the orators hold forth. The sketches which illustrate this paper are very spirited. The West is the subject of some frontier reminiscences by Gen. Marcy in his exploring days before the war, and of an historical paper by Edmund Kirke on Robertson's colony in Tennessee in 1780. Quebec is described and illustrated in the usual way, and Mr. Howells has a paper on Villeneuve and its environs, in which he amuses himself with destroying the Byronic myth of Bonnivard, whom he draws in his own manner, and makes very agreeable if less statuesque. Art is represented by Felix Buhot's works, and Mr. Henry James contributes the fresh fiction of the number.

—The condition of our negro population is the subject of a Washington letter in the *Frankfurter Zeitung* of December 24, 1887. The writer's view of their social status is correct enough, but he is rather at sea in his historical retrospect, as when he says that the South was, at one time, more opposed to slavery than was the North, and that the civil war was a struggle between "the sons of slave-owners and the planters to whom their fathers had sold their dark commodities." This is a corollary to the misleading statement that "in 1790 the negroes were distributed throughout the country, and were almost exclusively slaves," but that "during the first quarter of the century, the inhabitants of the Northern States gradually sold their slaves to the South, where climate and the nature of the agricultural products increased the value of negro labor"—all of which sounds as if this countryman of Von Holst had drawn his facts from the pro-slavery pamphlets of Buchanan's Administration. The results of his observation, however, are better than those of his reading, and his opinion of the mental capacity of the negroes, as shown since the war, and of their possibilities of mental and physical progress, is decidedly favorable. He comments in detail on instances of race prejudice in both Northern and Southern States, and is especially struck by the fact that while the marriage of a white with a black involves ostracism from all society, miscegenation without marriage not only is visited with no social or legal penalties, but is so common that, exclusive of field hands, the color of at least half of the negroes is tinged with white. Add to this that while the negro women are industrious and willing to sacrifice themselves for the good of their children, the men rarely have any respect for the bonds of marriage, and, if married at all, are frequently several times bigamists, and the moral future can hardly be deemed promising. It appears that a German-American journalist has predicted that, in 1,000 years, there will be neither whites nor blacks in this country, but only "colored" people. The probability of this the correspondent does not deem it necessary to discuss, since "in 1,000 years there will very likely no longer be any United States."

—A writer in a recent number of the Berlin *Gegenwart* gives some interesting information concerning the results of a somewhat novel educational experiment lately tried by the French Government. It appears that, as early as 1883, Jules Ferry was persuaded to send a few young Frenchmen abroad at the public expense, to enable them to get a better knowledge of the German language. The first group sent out consisted of six persons chosen by a competitive examination in German from among twenty-five candidates for teachers' positions in the *écoles supérieures*. The Government stipend was fixed at 100 francs a month, exclusive of travelling expenses. In 1884, Fallières, then Minister of Instruction, decided to extend the privilege to graduates of the secondary schools, even though they did not propose to devote themselves to teaching, but to business. In defence of the idea, it was alleged that the graduate of the French schools had no practical command of German, and that this could only be gained by residence abroad. It was also urged that the stipendiaries would not only learn a foreign language thoroughly, but would also acquire some knowledge of the people among whom they should sojourn. As M. Bréal put it, "Ils n'apprennent pas seulement l'allemand et l'anglais, mais l'Allemagne et l'Angleterre." The argument seems to have been convincing, and the policy recommended has now apparently become a fixture. The annual expenditure for thirty stipendiaries is (the figures are for 1886) about 60,000 francs. Of these thirty, thirteen are sent to Germany and distributed among twelve different cities and nine different States. The proper distribution of the stipendiaries and the finding of homes for them are made the business of a committee of seven, of whom M. Bréal is at present chairman. The first report of this committee, to judge from the *Gegenwart's* description, presents the results of the new policy in a very rosy light. The stipendiaries not only without exception make good use of their time in learning German, but speak in warm and even enthusiastic terms of their life in Germany. They dwell upon the kindness of the German families in which they have lived, and upon the cordiality of their German fellow-students. "They all admit," says our authority, "that the art of instruction is more highly developed in Germany than in France; more attention is paid to the individuality of the learner, and the personality of the teacher counts for more." Only in drawing, it is observed, is the French training superior.

—One can hardly help speculating upon the results which may come from this policy if it be kept up uninterruptedly for a period of years. As every one knows, it is ignorance more than anything else which serves to keep national prejudice in an inflammable condition. The French have hitherto been famous for their lack of curiosity with regard to other peoples, and it is rather singular that they should be the first to adopt such a policy as that above described. But there can be no doubt that if the brief experience of the past few years offers any criterion, the policy cannot be otherwise than wholesome in its bearing upon the relations of France with Germany. Every French teacher, every French merchant, who has lived for two years among the Germans, will become a centre of influence and a source of accurate knowledge with regard to them. Thus light will gradually be let in upon many a dark place of superstition and prejudice. If the French people were really acquainted with things German, were even as well acquainted with them as the German people are with things French, it would be much more difficult than it is for the peace of Europe to be endangered by the sudden frenzy of the Parisian populace. That improvement in the teaching of German in French schools will result from this policy hardly admits of doubt; but whether, from a purely pedagogical point of view, the expenditure will really pay, is perhaps questionable. The sending of prospective teachers abroad is resorted to professedly because as pupils they have not been able in the French schools to learn to speak German. But will their own pupils fare any better? If practical command of a foreign tongue, that is, the ability to speak and write it easily, is to be regarded as the sole end and aim of instruction, then we fear that nothing will ever suffice except the transference of the entire class to foreign soil.

—It is cheering to read, on the title-page of a serious historical work, "twenty-fifth edition." This popularity, not often accorded to works of fiction, has been attained by Mr. Francis Parkman's 'Pioneers of France in the New World' (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.). The volume on our table bears not only the above legend, but this also—"revised, with additions." The revision begins with the original introduction (written twenty-three years ago this very month), which has been shortened; and what is noticeable, on a careful examination, is the author's overhauling of his style in minute particulars in a way very instructive as self-criticism. A recent visit to Florida has caused him to modify the local color of his former descriptions, and in harmony with this is a freer use of quaint citations from his sources, as in the case of Ribaut and Laudonnière especially. This leads to some expansion of the Florida narrative. The list of authorities has been enlarged, and among those of latest date Gaffarel's 'Histoire de la Floride Française' has proved most useful. We owe to it a new and pregnant ninth chapter, on Charles IX. and Philip II., in which the subsequent agent of the St. Bartholomew massacre appears in the more decent aspect of the King of all France making reclamations of Philip II. for the slaughter of Ribaut's Lutheran colony by Menendez. Whether he merely wished to save appearances or not, the redress sought was not vigorously demanded and was not accorded. Charles had assented to the colonization of Florida as proposed by Coligny, "not for the [Protestant] Faith, but for France":

"The enterprise, in fact, had a double character, political as well as religious. It was the reply of France, the most emphatic she had yet made, to the Papal bull which gave all the western hemisphere to Portugal and Spain; and, as if to point her answer, she sent, not Frenchmen only, but Protestant Frenchmen, to plant the fleur-de-lis on the shores of the New World."

The index of this improved edition has been greatly extended, as was desirable.

—The career of Savonarola may now be regarded as developed in the fullest light of historical research. The revised edition of Villari's 'Storia di Girolamo Savonarola' is at length completed with the appearance of the second volume, and bears evidence of the author's customary diligence in leaving nothing unexplored that throws light upon the subject. To the ordinary reader his careful analysis of contemporary testimony and the clear insight and eloquence of his exposition render the work attractive, while to the student it is indispensable. The generous dimensions of the Appendix of Documents enables the author to give *in extenso* all the more important papers connected with the life of the Frate. Those in the second volume are of especial interest, comprising all the official reports of the several trials to which Savonarola and his assistants were subjected. In addition we have, what is too often lacking in such works, a copious analytical index, occupying fifty pages. Yet even this does not exhaust all that can be said about Savonarola, for simultaneously there appears a second and enlarged edition of Gherardi's 'Nuovi Documenti e Studi.' The two works are in no sense rivals, for Villari's book is an historical biography in the best sense of the term, embodying a philosophical investigation into the factors which rendered possible such a career as Savonarola's, and made its catastrophe inevitable, while Gherardi's is not a history, but materials for history. It concerns itself principally with subsidiary points of interest, and illustrates how thoroughly Italian scholars have ransacked every accessible source of information on the subject. Among other matters we may mention an extended bibliography, comprising 212 articles, and including even an essay on the subject which appeared in *Scribner* in 1880. One of the important additions to this edition is a series of accounts of the expenses of the *Dieci di Balia*, from 1497 to 1499, by which we learn that the pile on which Savonarola was burnt cost 10 lire 17 soldi. In those evil days, wood was dear and human life was cheap.

—The fourth edition of 'Meyers Konversations-Lexikon' (New York: Westermann) gets through with the eighth volume and well along in the ninth in the parts which have recently come to hand. As usual, one sees everywhere marks of alert recognition of the latest authorities. Italy is the leading geographico-political article; Japan, also, fills a large space; the Jews and the Karls and the Church (*Kirche*) are the other leading titles. There are excellent maps of Italy, of Hamburg and Altona, Jerusalem, Cologne, Königsberg, Cairo and vicinity, etc. The European colonial possessions in Asia, Africa, and Oceanica are shown in comparative charts. The German colonies in Africa, on the eastern and western coasts, form a sort of triangle suggestive of easy transcontinental exploration between friendly stations. The plates of ceramics, beetles, and cactuses are beautifully executed in colors. The American portion is well cared for as far as it goes. Mr. Howells, while ranked below Hawthorne, is pronounced incontestably the first living American novelist. Mr. Henry James is not allowed to be second, for his name does not occur in the Lexikon, though Postmaster-General James is admitted. The artistic family of Hunt is likewise ignored, and the Jay family, in spite of its hereditary distinction. Gen. Greely, further, is missed, but the editor explains, in the *Korrespondenzblatt* on the cover, that due mention will be made of him under North Polar Exploration. Another correspondent is notified (and the fact may have a cis-Atlantic interest) that the collection of life masks made in 1879–'82 in the South Sea and the Malayan Archipelago by Dr. Otto Finsch, and numbering 164 pieces, may be had for $400, or a sample lot of six for $20. They are multiplied, colored, and sold at Castan's Panopticum in Berlin. Lovers of 'Uncle Remus' who enjoy Brer Fox's adventure with Cousin Wildcat, will find under *Katze* a graphic illustration of the difference between the latter's tracks when in a hurry and when proceeding stealthily, and will understand the success of Brer Rabbit's mystification. Finally, in the American group, we may fitly name the article devoted to the late Friedrich Kapp, whose historical works hold an honored place in our literature.

SIR STEPHEN DE VERE'S TRANSLATIONS FROM HORACE.

Translations from Horace, and a few Original Poems. By Sir Stephen E. de Vere, Bart. With Latin text. 2d ed., enlarged. London: George Bell & Sons.

GOETHE says that translators are like carriers who convey good wine to market, though it is apt to be very much watered on the way. It is not often that a translator devotes twenty-seven pages of preface to explaining his process of dilution, or to defending it in advance. This is, however, what Sir Stephen de Vere does; and the reader likes him the better for it; his admixture of the thinner element ceases to be a sin, and becomes at worst an error. He does precisely what he promises, and does it honestly; if the result is disastrous, it is his method, not his character, that is to be condemned. By Sir Stephen's own opening statement, in the preface, "No classical author is so difficult of translation as Horace." Fully recognizing this, his translator accepts also the dictum, which he quotes from Hallam, that, "in all translations, to represent the original character is the first duty." If, therefore, he fails, it is in an enterprise of conscious daring; if he attempts, in Boileau's phrase, to put lance in rest against his author's text (*jouster contre l'original*), he at least touches Bois-Guilbert's shield, for he not merely attempts to translate Horace, but he undertakes fearlessly the noblest and most difficult of the odes. If he fails to render them —and we think that this is the case—it is the result neither of negligence nor of weakness, but of a false theory.

Sir Stephen sets out with the assumption that Horace's condensation is "little in harmony with the English language or the usual current of English thought." The last clause of the sentence may be true, and if true it is of no consequence. The question is not of the usual current of thought or an unusual one; it concerns only the resources of a language. Longfellow found those resources adequate to the almost literal rendering of Dante into English verse; yet Dante is, among the moderns, the acknowledged master of compression. Sir Stephen de Vere ranks Horace in this respect with Tacitus: "He is the Tacitus of poetry" (p. xiv). But Emerson showed that Tacitus, in the hands of a master, not only required no dilution, but was susceptible of compression. Tacitus, explaining why the effigies of certain great men were not carried in a certain procession, wrote, "Eo magis præfulgebant quia non visebantur." Emerson, reducing six words to five, and fifteen syllables to seven, translated this sentence, "They glared through their absences." The moral is, that the difficulty of translating a highly condensed author may not lie wholly in the language, but in the man, and that although Horace may have many English translators—Miss Mitford says that "all gentlemen" amused themselves with that enterprise in her time—he will never be really rendered into English until he finds some one to deal with him as did Emerson with Tacitus or Longfellow with Dante. For his "curiosa felicitas," though by no means the whole of him, is yet so large a part of him as to be essential; a loose and flowing version, like that of Sir Stephen de Vere, may be very pleasant reading as a rhymed paraphrase, but a translation it is not. One might as well try to represent the 'Inferno' by a measure borrowed from the 'Lady of the Lake.'

Let us take, for instance, the well-known ode to Mæcenas, beginning "Tyrrhena regum progenies" (iii., 29). These three opening words are here thus translated:

> "Thou whose lineage springs
> From old Etruria's kings"

—eight words for three; and then there is added:

> "Come to my humble dwelling,"

which corresponds to nothing in the original, the invitation being there solely given by enumerating the delights that await the guest. These include the perfume for his locks, the very mention of these tresses coming lovingly from the poet:

> "Pressa tuis balanus capillis."

But this is only rendered,

> "And perfumes pressed from nard divine";

while the locks themselves, the only thing to explain the presence of "balanus," are left unmentioned. This is the double calamity of a loose and flowing translation; it not only inserts a great deal that is not in the original, but it always turns out to have omitted much that is there; it not merely amplifies but substitutes. The next lines yet further illustrate this inevitable evil. We can well praise the translator for condensing "Eripe te moræ" into "Haste!" but see how hopelessly the balance inclines against him in what follows:

> "Nec semper udum Tibur, et Æsulæ
> Declive contempleris arvum et
> Telegoni juga parricidæ."

This he translates,

> "Leave Tibur sparkling with its hundred rills;
> Forget the sunny slopes of Aesulae,
> And rugged peaks of Telegonian hills
> That frown defiance on the Tuscan Sea."

Here "semper udum" is hammered out into five words, and "Telegoni juga" into eleven; we have, outside of Horace, the sparkling rills, and the sunny slopes, and the rugged peaks, frowning defiance on the Tuscan Sea; we have a vast multiplication of syllables, and, after all, the "parricidæ" is ignored. So a few lines later he translates

> "beatæ
> Fumum et opes strepitumque Romæ,"

leaving out the significant "beatæ" and giving only

> "The smoke, the tumult, and the wealth of Rome."

In the next verse the whole sententious line,

> "Plerumque gratæ divitibus vices"

is left out, and the word *mundæ* is also omitted, thus losing sight of that cleanliness which is an essential attraction of the rustic meal described. There is no reference in the next

verse to the action of the sun in bringing on the sultry weather:

"Sole dies referente siccos."

In the next verse the translator needlessly substitutes "panting" for the simple weariness or languor of the flock (*grege languido*), and dilutes the terse

"caretque
Ripa vagis taciturna ventis,"

into a needless, though graceful amplitude,

"Where by mute margins voiceless waters creep
And the hushed zephyrs sleep."

Coming to the next verse, we find the whole structure of the ode altered by inserting a summons where none is given—

"Too long by civil cares opprest,
Snatch one interval of rest."

There is no such proposal; the poet has got far beyond direct appeal, and all the rest of the poem is a sweet and gracious philosophy, whose dignity is partly missed when the translator omits altogether the "prudens" by which the wise foresight of the deity is characterized; and he again weakens a condensed moral precept by expanding the simple

"Quod adest memento
Componere æquus"

into

"Wisely and justly guide thy present state,
Life's daily duty";

giving us ten feebler words for five strong ones. In the next verse the translator gives a note of tragedy quite beyond the key of Horace, by introducing "drowned men" among the things borne away upon the overflowing stream; while he omits altogether the delicately drawn contrast,

"fera diluvies quietos
Irritat amnes."

In the passage that follows—the most celebrated in the poem—the translator is at his best, and we gladly quote his version; he renders eight lines in eight, and with a fair degree of vigor:

"Blest is the man who dares to say,
'Lord of myself, I've lived to-day.
To-morrow let the Thunderer roll
Storm and thick darkness round the pole,
Or purest sunshine: what is past
Unchanged for evermore shall last.
Nor man, nor Jove's resistless sway
Can blot the record of one vanished day.'"

Later, "I praise her when she stays" is at least a pardonable expansion of "Laudo manentem"; and "Pauperiem sine dote" is even abbreviated into "Dowerless poverty"; but in the noble closing verse we have great diffuseness again, while yet there is a total omission of the local references which make all the scene so vivid, and neither the *Africis procellis* nor the *Ægæos tumultus* appears at all in the translation.

By thus tracing the method of Sir Stephen de Vere as applied throughout a single important ode, we are enabled to judge of it in all. He is graceful, sympathetic, and faithful, according to his own standard; but, after all, he works in stucco where Horace worked in marble.

THE CENTRAL-EUROPEAN REVOLUTIONS OF 1848-49.—II.

The Revolutionary Movement of 1848-49 in Italy, Austria-Hungary, and Germany. With some Examination of the Previous Thirty-three Years. By C. Edmund Maurice, author of 'The Lives of English Popular Leaders in the Middle Ages.' London: George Bell & Sons; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1887.

INCOMPARABLY greater, however, than in Italy or Germany was, in the spring of 1848—and after—the confusion in Austria. Vienna, after its honeymoon of freedom, was seething with revolutionary commotion. There were students' risings, laborers' riots, international wranglings, changes of Cabinet, Camarilla-conspiracies, and, finally, the flight of the Emperor Ferdinand to Olmütz. In Bohemia, the strife between German and Czech culminated in the gathering of a Slavic Congress in Prague, a senseless insurrection, and the bombardment of the city by Windischgrätz. Galicia was in a Polish revolutionary ferment. In southern Hungary the Serbs were rising against the Magyar revolutionary order of things created by Kossuth; the same was done by the Rumans and Saxons in Transylvania; and more ominous was the arming of the Croats under Ban Jellachich, against the authorities in Buda-Pesth and for the creation of a "triune" State—Croatia-Slavonia-Dalmatia. There was a perfect maze of movements and countermovements, of national schemes and plots; and the fury of the participants in them equalled the ferocity with which tyranny fights for its existence, or feudal reaction establishes its sway. Yet our author takes a most charitable view of all these popular strifes. He says:

"Though these divisions hindered the coöperation of the members of the different nations who might have worked together for freedom and progress, it should always be noted that the desire of each nation was, in the first instance, for the development of a free national life, connected with true culture and learning, and independent of mere officialism. If the Magyars were overbearing and tyrannical towards the Croats, it was partly because they believed that these divisions (the fault of which they attributed to the Croats) were tending to strengthen the hands of their common oppressors. If, on the other hand, the Croats appealed to the Emperor for protection against the Magyars, it was not from any courtier-like or slavish desire to strengthen the hands of despotism, but partly because they felt that the position of the Emperor enabled him to judge more fairly between the contending parties. . . ."

And thus "Tros Tyriusque mihi nullo discrimine agetur" has evidently been a leading maxim in writing this book. The sympathetic side of this impartiality we can only applaud. But there is another side to it, where it becomes excessive and unjust. (The author himself, as the Preface shows, felt the danger of becoming unfair from equal sympathy.) The Serbs and Croats, Rumans and Saxons, were surely struggling for their own national freedom when they demanded of Kossuth separatistic autonomies, and, on their demands being refused, immediately flew to arms, began a Vendean warfare against the Magyars, coöperated with the Imperial forces and finally with the invading army of Czar Nicholas, and stabbed Hungarian independence, and with it the democratic revolution of all Europe, to death. We can sympathize with all those secessionists of Hungary in their blindness, which made them restore, at the expense of streams of blood, the centralizing despotism of Metternich, under the more unscrupulous auspices of Haynaus and Bachs. But are Kossuth and his friends, who had just broken the yoke of Metternich and feudalism for all Austria, and by parliamentary means conquered constitutional freedom and civil rights for all its divisions and races, to be so severely inveighed against as they are by our author, for not yielding to demands for miniature autonomies which, as they firmly believed (and correctly, *we* think) could but lead to a speedy breaking up of their country into small fragments—for the benefit of Russia alone? Were not the Slovaks in the northwest and the Ruthenes in the northeast soon to come forth with demands like those of their Slavic brethren in the south? Were not the former gravitating towards a union with the Bohemians, and the latter with the Little-Russians of the Czar? Would not the Rumans of Transylvania have joined those in Moldavia and Wallachia, and the Serbs of the Banat become annexed by the Servian Principality? Was not Croatia granted real national autonomy, only short of independence? Could a thousand lines of national demarcation be drawn in every direction, so as to prevent incessant strife and ultimate chaos? Nor ought it to be forgotten, in judging the claims of "the Magyars," that this term covers not only six million Magyars by blood, but also three or four million ardently sympathizing fellow-citizens of different races—northern Slavs, Germans, Jews, Armenians, and others—in one word, nearly two-thirds of all the inhabitants of the Hungarian realm.

We can hardly doubt that the omitting of a clear exhibition of the relative strength and importance of the contending camps considerably impaired the historian's own perspective. In the same way we find that his avoidance of all references to authorities caused a dangerous laxity in examining, and looseness in stating, facts. We must say that we have never met with a more shocking perversion of a public act by a decent writer than the following statement perpetrates (p. 441): "On the 8th of October [1848] Kossuth issued an order to the towns of Hungary, in which he told them that any one that did not hang out the Hungarian flag, and express in writing his devotion to the Hungarian cause, and his willingness to obey the committee appointed by the Government, should be shot as a traitor." This "savage proclamation"—a mild expression, if we consider that it virtually condemned to death millions of Slavs, Rumans, and Saxons—existed only in the brains of some anti-Magyar informants of our author. Had he looked for more authentic authorities, he would easily have discovered that the order was issued only to the *fortresses* of Hungary, and threatened only their *commanders*—about a dozen men—and only in case they would neither hoist the Hungarian tricolor, in place of the black-yellow flag of Austria, nor surrender their commands to officers loyal to the Constitution. (The proclamation can be found in the *Kossuth Hirlapja* of October 13, 1848, and abstracts of it in every extensive history of the Hungarian Revolution, such as Bishop Horváth's or Irányi and Chassin's. Not one such, however, was consulted by Mr. Maurice, as his list of "Authorities" shows.) This defamation of Kossuth, into which the historian has been betrayed in part by his charitable desire to extenuate the fury of the opponents of the Magyar cause, demands a public retraction.

Nor is it the only involuntary injustice done that cause in painting its prominent defenders. They are largely, though not chiefly, wronged by omissions. There is no allusion to the wonderful organizing activity displayed by Kossuth throughout the desperate contest, nor a mention of even the principal battlefields on which the valor of his *honvéds* shone. And not only are Szolnok, Kápolna, Nagy-Sarló, etc., unnamed, but the whole strategic history of the war is wanting. Even the capture of Buda is not stated, though its siege is spoken of. In fact, almost everything in this history referring to warlike events is either very defective or barely allusive. We may instance the events in Posen, Schleswig-Holstein, and Baden, and the Novara campaign. The principal exception is Garibaldi's defence of Rome. It was, perhaps, the author's intention not to include military actions in the picture of the 'Revolutionary Movement of 1848-'49'; but, if so, he ought to have stated it. By far the fullest and most satisfactory parts of the work are the introductory chapters, treating of the period of Metternich's sway, and the narratives of the Italian revolution—though not done *sine ira et*

studio. Radetzky is painted as black as Haynau, "the tiger of Brescia." The portrait of Mazzini exhibits no blemish. Metternich and Charles Albert are very fairly depicted, and the Emperors Francis and Ferdinand kindly treated, while Frederick William IV. and most German actors appear only in pale outlines. Altogether German affairs do not receive their due share of attention. Every page of the book, however, bespeaks the writer's earnestness, humane sympathies, and love of political righteousness. And the whole of it is vigorously written.

The list of "Authorities Consulted" teems with misprints in German words; in the main parts we find "einen Kammer" (p. 308), "Izstein" (repeatedly for Itzstein), and a few similar inaccuracies. On page 14 we find: "On June 18, 1816, the students of the University met to celebrate the anniversary of the battle of Leipzig"—which was fought in October; p. 39: "February, 1822," for February, 1821; p. 49: "Ibrahim, the Pasha of Egypt," for Ibrahim Pasha, the son (or adopted son) of Mehemet Ali of Egypt. The county assemblies of Hungary were not convened "once a year" (p. 74), but four times. It was not in the "sevententh century" but in the sixteenth that Transylvania "separated for a time from Hungary" (p. 110). The movement attributed to "Maria Theresa about 1731" (p. 115) is probably referable to 1741, the second year of her reign. Chancellor Apponyi was not directed by Metternich "to supersede the Hungarian County Assemblies by administrators appointed by himself" (p. 201), but to have them presided over by such officials. The statement that in 1847 the Hungarian House of Magnates "called upon the Lower House to limit themselves to votes of thanks," etc. (p. 203), is almost absurdly loose. On pp. 242 and 243 "Archduke Maximilian," or "Maximilian," is, by a kind of aphasia, three times used in a story of Archduke Albert, instead of this latter name. "Voyvodeschaft" (p. 282) is a mongrel form for Voivodship. Karajitch (or "Karadziç"), who died in 1864, did not contribute to the development of Serb literature "during the latter part of the eighteenth century" (p. 283). Neusatz is not a "town of Slavonia" (p. 284). The Emperor Ferdinand's second flight from Vienna was not "to Innspruck" (p. 393), but to Olmütz. To say that Bem distinguished himself as artillery commander "at the battle of Ostrolenka," and "also commanded . . . in the insurrection of 1830" (p. 394), is like saying that Grant distinguished himself at Vicksburg, and also commanded in the Civil War. "March 7," on p. 416, stands for March 4. Charles Albert did not make his "final effort" against the Austrians "in April, 1849" (p.489), for he abdicated on the evening of his defeat at Novara, March 23. In justice to the author let us state that these flaws have been picked out of 500 large pages, densely filled with facts, and very attentively read, as they fully deserve to be.

GENERAL ORMSBY MITCHELL.—II.

Ormsby Macknight Mitchell, Astronomer and General. A Biographical Narrative. By his son, F. A. Mitchell. Crown 8vo, pp. viii, 392. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

THE capture of Fort Donelson, the march on Nashville, Grant's movement to Pittsburgh Landing, Buell's to join him there, and the battle of Shiloh, all followed in the winter and early spring of 1862. Mitchell had shown himself a good commander of an advance guard, and when Buell left Nashville for the Shiloh and Corinth campaign, he intrusted to his subordinate the duty of covering Nashville and the left flank of the Grand Army under Halleck. It was the most important detached duty connected with the movement on Corinth, and the selection implied confidence in his capacity to exercise a quasi-independent command. He was expected to move southward from Murfreesboro to Fayetteville, with discretionary power to advance as far as Huntsville, Alabama. Upon hearing of the victory at Shiloh, he hastened his march and entered Huntsville on the 10th of April. His movement had been a vigorous one, and the results were important, though he had not been opposed by any considerable hostile force. Fifteen locomotives and eighty cars were captured, and Mitchell speedily sent detachments eastward to Stevenson and Bridgeport, and westward to Decatur, thus occupying about one hundred miles of the Memphis and Charleston Railroad. From Nashville, lines of railway went directly to Decatur and to Stevenson, forming a triangle, which, when some gaps were rebuilt which the enemy had made in their retreat, would make a system of communication of great strategic value. The southern side of this triangle was along the northern bank of the Tennessee River, which was crossed by no bridges except at the two ends of the piece of railroad which Mitchell now held, and this made the occupation and defence of southern Tennessee and northern Alabama safe and easy.

Mitchell telegraphed the result of his march to Nashville, whence it was forwarded to Washington, and his friends there secured his promotion to be Major-General, almost immediately, without waiting for the recommendation of his immediate superiors or any official knowledge of his achievement, except his own despatches. On the 17th of April he telegraphed a somewhat fuller report to the Secretary of War, assigning as a reason for it that he was uncertain whether his despatches reached General Buell. In this he says that he considers his line one of vast importance, and that a heavier force was needed upon it; but he does not inform the Secretary that the task assigned him was merely that of covering Nashville and the left flank of Halleck's army. On the 21st of April he telegraphed to Secretary Chase that he had spared the bridge over the Tennessee near Stevenson in the hope that he might be permitted to march on Chattanooga and Knoxville, but that he was now ordered to burn the bridges, adding significantly that he did not comprehend the order, but must obey it at once. He also said he thought the whole line of that railroad (the Memphis and Charleston) ought to be occupied, yet he feared it would be abandoned. This despatch Mr. Chase showed to the Secretary of War, who apparently showed it to Mr. Lincoln, and the President telegraphed Halleck to know what it meant. Halleck answered that Mitchell was not ordered to destroy railroad bridges, so far as he knew. Stanton then directed Mitchell to communicate daily with himself, saying that much interest was felt in his operations.

To a reader who knows anything of military subordination and discipline, the above outline only too plainly shows that Mitchell was discontented with the task assigned him, and made use of irregular methods of influencing the War Department to increase the importance of his command. The great end aimed at by Halleck was beyond all controversy the right one, *i. e.*, to attack and rout the Confederate Army under Beauregard; and he had united the forces of Grant's and Buell's departments for this purpose. Whether Halleck was as swift and vigorous in the execution of his plan as he should have been, is aside from the present inquiry. To have broken up his army into smaller columns would have violated every military rule, and it was perfectly right to keep Mitchell north of the Tennessee River and west of Stevenson till the principal object of the campaign should be achieved. For the subordinate part of the plan allotted to Mitchell, his forces were enough. But he wanted a larger field. The reason he gave for communicating directly with the War Department was not quite ingenuous. The telegraphic communication with Buell was not broken, and it was the easiest thing in the world to ask over the line whether his despatches were received. But his situation did not call for new instructions; those contained in Buell's letter of March 27 covered the ground, and that letter referred to conversational explanations already given.

This, however, is not the worst. The despatch to Chase of April 21 distinctly says he had "spared the Tennessee bridges near Stevenson" with the hope of a forward movement. This was misleading. He had himself burned a bridge beyond Stevenson more than a week before, and though it was not over the Tennessee, it had been burned to make his position defensively safe, and without orders from any one. To destroy the Bridgeport bridge, or one span of it, was only to accomplish this end a little more thoroughly. He had himself indicated that his own wish up to this time was to approach and coöperate with Halleck's army, and not to move in the opposite direction. It was not candid, therefore, to say to the Government, through channels aside from the military ones, that he did not understand the order as to the bridges, or to intimate that he had reason to fear a purpose to abandon that line of railroad. Had he told the Secretary of War in full what was the part of the general plan assigned to him, the matter would have been clear enough; but instead of doing this, he sent through Mr. Chase insinuations that there was no plan, or worse.

Mitchell's biographer thinks that in saying he was ordered to burn the bridges, he intended to include the great bridge at Decatur, the west end of the section of railroad which he held. If this were so, it would gravely add to his fault. Buell's letter was dated April 19, and contained the direction to destroy the Tennessee bridge east of Stevenson, "and also the Decatur bridge as soon as you should leave it." Mitchell could not have misapprehended the condition attached to this order. The correspondence makes it perfectly clear that one of the contingencies to be considered was that the enemy might drive him back upon Nashville, and in that event the Decatur bridge was to be burned. We should prefer not to believe that he could represent this as a peremptory order to burn that bridge.

Buell's order was explicit as to a bridge beyond Stevenson, and Mitchell had himself anticipated and justified it by burning one, though not the one which Buell indicated; that one the enemy burned a little later. But the Decatur bridge was a very important structure in the line leading directly towards Halleck's army where Buell was. To preserve this till he should be driven away from that part of the country was the plain dictate of common sense. Mitchell had urged Buell to have Tuscumbia occupied in force. This point was on the same railroad, and was reached from Huntsville by crossing the river at Decatur and running west, on the south side, some thirty or forty miles. Buell was under Halleck's orders, who thought Mitchell could hold it with an outpost. This irritated the latter, and was the occasion not only of his despatch to Chase, but of his writing to Buell a few days later, "As you attach little impor-

tance to the occupying of Tuscumbia and the south side of the river beyond Decatur, I have decided quietly to withdraw my troops to the north side of the river, and will then destroy the bridge." It were an easy thing (he did it in other cases) to have fortified the bridge-head on the south side. He was not driven away from it. No demonstration was made by the enemy at that point that was in the slightest degree formidable. He remained in possession of the road as far as Decatur (excepting the bridge) till Buell joined him in person after the occupation of Corinth. Yet by his correspondence with Mr. Chase and Mr. Stanton over the heads of his superiors, he impressed them with the belief that he was an able and vigorous general who was ordered to destroy the bridge by incompetent commanders. Halleck characterized it as a foolish act, and the official records do not sustain the biographer in the effort to shift the responsibility to Buell. The incontestable fact was, that Mitchell had not destroyed the Bridgeport bridge which Buell had directed to be burned, but had destroyed that at Decatur, which was only to be burned when he should leave the country which he did not leave.

Corinth having been taken, Grant was left there while Buell was ordered back into Tennessee. Halleck was soon promoted to be General-in-Chief at Washington. Buell was ordered to repair the Memphis Railroad to Mitchell's position and then to advance upon Chattanooga. Mitchell meanwhile kept up his direct correspondence both with Stanton and with Chase. On the 5th of June, in a letter which would seem to be in answer to one from Mitchell urging his transfer to some other field, Chase wrote, "You have done so much, you ought to be permitted to do more. If I could decide the question, you would come here at once, and be put where you could *do most*." The last words, underscored in the original, plainly point to the command of the Army of the Potomac. On June 21 Mitchell himself says to the Secretary of War by telegraph, "I respectfully solicit more active duty." Stanton replied that "the President regards the advance on east Tennessee as only second in importance to Richmond, and that you cannot be safely withdrawn from that field ; so that the Department cannot gratify your wishes."

Buell joined Mitchell at Huntsville on the 29th of June, and it is very difficult to separate the correspondence just referred to from Mitchell's tender of his resignation three or four days later. The situation was fully discussed between them, and Buell treated him with entire respect and regard, but did not give orders for an immediate movement in accordance with Mitchell's impetuous suggestions. Thereupon the latter telegraphed the Secretary of War as follows: "Finding it impossible to serve my country longer under my present commander, I have to-day forwarded, through him, my unconditional resignation, and respectfully solicit leave of absence for twenty days." The biographer tells us that Mitchell was ordered to report at Washington, whither he immediately went, but we are not informed whether he pressed the acceptance of his resignation ; at least it was not accepted. We are also told that the President intended for him the command of the Mississippi expedition which was given to McClernand, while Mr. Chase's memoirs show that he and Mr. Stanton urged Mitchell for the command in front of Washington, sending Pope to relieve McClellan on the James. It was at this point that Halleck was called to the capital, and Mitchell was not assigned to any command till September, when he was ordered to the Carolina coast. Just before this he had again thought of resigning, but wrote to a friend that it was opposed by so many high in power and influence that he deemed it his duty to refrain for the present.

It has now been definitely settled that Buell was rebuilding the Memphis Railroad by Halleck's orders, and Gen. Mitchell is himself witness to the fact that two months would be a small estimate for rebuilding the great bridge at Decatur which he had burned. Buell was, therefore, not responsible for this delay at the opening of the new campaign. He listened to Mitchell, but he did not explain to him what his own orders were ; he did not complain to his subordinate of Halleck, nor did he correspond with the Secretary of War directly or through Mr. Chase. Mitchell exploded in a resignation which was a damaging Parthian shot at his commander, and most damaging (it is due to truth to say it) because the former had a powerful influence gained and used by irregular means which the latter did not feel at liberty to use even in self-defence, for, in his justification to Halleck, he limited himself to asking that the President might be shown his despatch.

Buell's reticence was a marked characteristic of him as an officer, and he carried it to excess. In several points of his military career he suffered from it, because they with whom he was working adopted as a maxim that he who does not publish his plans has none. He said of himself in an early letter to McClellan: "I have not written you very frequently because I could not write definitely, and because such (perhaps exaggerated) importance do I attach to secrecy in these matters, that I have hesitated to put my own thoughts to paper." It would have been better if, in this case, he had been more communicative to Mitchell, however undeserving the latter. In judging of Mitchell's conduct, however, we must remember that he had in his hands the written evidence that Stanton, Chase, and other powerful men in the Government had almost unbounded confidence in his opinions, and that when he declared he could no longer serve his country under Buell, he was giving the latter as nearly a fatal blow as it is ever in the power of one man to give another. Nor did Mitchell stop here. When he reached Washington, he submitted to Mr. Stanton a plan of campaign understood to be that which he pressed upon Buell. It is now published by his biographer to show how superior it was to Buell's, though it is extremely open to criticism. Without discussing this, it is enough to say that it was intended to justify his unwillingness to remain with Buell, and therefore was condemnatory of the latter ; yet he did not feel called upon to supply Buell with a copy of it, or to give him any intimation that it had been written.

To the extent, therefore, that the President, the Secretary of War, and the Secretary of the Treasury had confidence in Mitchell, their minds were necessarily prejudiced against Buell without hearing him in his own defence. When Bragg moved from Chattanooga, this same influence had prepared the leading men of the Government to hold Buell responsible for the delay which was the result of Halleck's imperative orders. But, worst of all, when Buell had been relieved from command, the demand of Governor Morton that he should be sent before a military commission found these same great officers of the Government under this same prejudice thus created by his subordinate behind his back; and Halleck's real though timid and vacillating opposition to the demand, fell before it. It is, therefore, no injustice to Mitchell to say that he thus had, indirectly, a very large share in the Buell Commission, a proceeding which general public opinion is now rightly regarding as a disgraceful page in our military history.

Yet Mitchell did not profit by the injury he did another. The curious conjuncture of circumstances by which Mr. Lincoln was induced to make Halleck General-in-Chief, put the principal power of assigning officers to duty in the hands of one who looked upon Mitchell as insubordinate, over-ambitious, and intriguing. Besides this, Mitchell was made himself to feel the sting of having his conduct and his motives misconstrued. His whole life is guaranty enough for his personal honesty, yet he weakly allowed himself to assume a line of conduct in regard to the cotton trade which might easily be misinterpreted, and his habit of neglecting his military superiors in reporting, left him without the defence this would have given him. His morality was above reproach, yet some of his detachments were accused of outrages upon persons and property, which were made use of to damage his reputation for military discipline and for humanity. These things, combined with Halleck's evident distrust of him, turned the balance when it was a question of assigning him again to an important command, and he died a bitterly disappointed man.

It is rather late to draw a moral from the use of irregular and doubtful methods of influence in military matters during the war. Historical retrospect, however, is full of morals, and can hardly avoid pointing such lessons. The military rule that official communications must pass through the hands of immediate superiors has its best justification in such incidents as Mitchell's career discloses. The history also shows how likely great officers of the Administration are to do injustice when they encourage direct correspondence of subordinate military men with themselves. Mr. Chase was beyond question a patriotic man and an able Secretary of the Treasury; but through the whole war he cultivated the habit of corresponding with military officers and drawing from them criticisms of the military situation. He was a sort of godfather to a considerable number of generals, and reminded them of their obligations to him for appointment or promotion. Among his correspondents at different times were McDowell, McClellan, Rosecrans, Mitchell, Nelson, Rousseau, and Garfield; and this by no means exhausts the list. He was a powerful friend, and pushed the interests of his protégés, though his sense of public duty made him drop them if they failed of success in important commands. His error was that he based his judgment of their military ability too much upon their trenchant criticisms of others, or their suggestions of paper campaigns, rather than on their own performance. He befriended some able men, but he also did much injury to others by giving powerful effect to hostile suggestions of which the victims were ignorant.

It is almost demonstrably clear that this was the case as between Mitchell and Buell. Give to Mitchell every credit which can be claimed for his march to Huntsville, and the fact remains that he was a general who never saw a battle nor any considerable combat in the field. The opinion of Chase and of Stanton of his military capacity was chiefly based upon his letters of criticism and his ardently expressed desire for vigorous action. Yet these statesmen, on such evidence, did not hesitate to declare strongly their wish to intrust him with the command of the most important army, overlooking Grant, who had made a more daring march and had captured Fort Donelson with nearly twenty thousand prisoners; over-

looking Buell, who had led the Army of the Cumberland into the second day's fight at Shiloh with splendid ability; overlooking Thomas, who had gained the brilliant victory at Mill Springs. Robert Anderson, Sherman, and Buell in succession found their relations to the War Department made intolerable, and in each case it is now plain that Mitchell's correspondence and complaints had much to do with their embarrassments. When we add to this the fact that such criticism, made in ignorance of the other's real purposes, and listened to without hearing the other side, was sometimes sufficient for the condemnation of a commander in the field, we shall begin to suspect that the ultimate judgment of history will be that the blunders of the war were not confined to the generals.

The Health of Nations. A review of the works of Edwin Chadwick. By Benjamin Ward Richardson. 2 vols., 8vo. Longmans, Green & Co. 1887.

If the noblest study of mankind is man, one of the most fascinating branches of it is the effect on man of his environment, and one of the most beneficent forms of good works is to prepare and make straight those paths that lead to health, to wealth, and to happiness. Bred to the law, but scarcely to be called a practitioner of it, Mr. Edwin Chadwick, now eighty-eight years old, for more than sixty years has been a public economist of the most advanced and practical type. As a member of boards and commissions, and as an independent essayist, he has traversed nearly the entire social field, and his researches and conclusions on life insurance, on the relation of sickness to mortality, on general vital statistics, intemperance, education (especially as to methods and limitations among young children), upon roadways, sewerage, sanitary dwellings, epidemics, the prevention of crime, and, in fact, upon almost the whole round of civilized life, are of very great and lasting value. Although primarily prepared for English use, many of the facts and all of the reasoning so fairly meet the requirements of other countries that Dr. Richardson, himself an eminent sanitarian, is fully justified in entitling his review 'The Health of Nations.'

Into these two volumes the editor has compressed numerous and important papers with such condensation and critical comment that no further abstract within our limits is possible. The work has been well done, and, in the words of the preface, "the reader of the present day will be able to form an idea, not only of the changes which have taken place for good, but of those which still remain to be effected before the realization of the aspirations of our author have been fulfilled." But even as they stand, they form a wonderful record of the progress that has been made within the life of one man, largely due to that man.

The Ignoramuses. By Mrs. Schuyler Crowninshield. Boston: D. Lothrop Co.

The author of 'Among the Lighthouses' now offers a book which will be liked by readers young, but not too young, whose taste has not been spoiled by exciting literature. It tells a story of travel and sight-seeing in Germany and Switzerland. The subjects chosen are, as a rule, less hackneyed than usual; there is sufficient variety of incident and adventure, and very little wearisomeness of description. The narrative impresses one as if it were really true —the different characters standing out distinctly, and not seeming mere puppets set up to render instruction a shade less dry. Thus, while a good many desirable bits of information are gleaned as the story goes on, the interest is fairly divided between the scenes described and the persons supposed to be viewing them. One of the best-drawn characters is that of a perverse and conceited boy of sixteen, whose sayings and doings should be profitable reading to not a few young people who stand higher in their own esteem than in other people's. In brief, this one is a great improvement on most of the books of travel which have lately been written for youth. The engravings are not of even excellence, some being very effective, others very poor.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Deane, W. J. Abraham: his Life and Times. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $1.
Farrar, Canon F. W. Solomon: his Life and Times. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $1.
Galdós, B. P. Leon Roch: a Romance. From the Spanish by Clara Bell. In 2 vols. W. S. Gottsberger.
Life and Work of J. R. W. Sloane, D. D. Edited by his Son. A. C. Armstrong & Son.
New York Society-List and Club Register for the Season of 1887–8. 6 Wall St. $3.
Rawlinson, Prof. G. Moses: his Life and Times. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $1.
Say, Léon. Turgot. [Les Grands Ecrivains Français.] Paris: Hachette; Boston: Schoenhof.
Schauffler, W. G. Autobiography. Edited by his sons. Introduction by Prof. E. A. Park. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $1.25.
Schönbach, A. E. Ueber Lesen und Bildung. Graz: Leuschner & Lubensky; New York: Westermann.
Schuchardt, H. Auf Anlass des Volapük. Berlin: Robert Oppenheim.
Scott, Lucy A. Boys, and Other Boys. Chicago: Woman's Temperance Publication Association. 25 cents.
Scott, Sir W. Tales of Chivalry. Edited by W. J. Rolfe. Illustrated. Harper & Bros.
Scribner's Magazine. Vol. II. July–December, 1887. Charles Scribner's Sons.
Sievers, Prof. E. An Old English Grammar. Translated and edited by Prof. Alfred S. Cook (Jena). 2d ed. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.12.
Smiles, S. Character. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
Smiles, S. Life and Labor; or, Characteristics of Men of Industry, Culture, and Genius. Harper & Bros.
Smiles, S. Thrift. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
Snell, F. J. Lysias. Epitaphios. Part 1. Macmillan & Co. 50 cents.
Socin, A. Schriftsprache und Dialekte im Deutschen. Heilbronn: Gebr. Henninger.
Starrett, Helen Ekin. Letters to Elder Daughters, Married and Unmarried. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. 75 cents.
Stevenson, R. L. Memoir of Fleeming Jenkin. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.
Sweet, H. A Second Anglo-Saxon Reader. Archaic and Dialectical. Macmillan & Co. $1.10.
Talbert, Ferdinand. De la Prononciation en France au xvie siècle. Première partie: les Voyelles. Paris: Thorin; Boston: Schoenhof.
Theuriet, André. Les Œillets de Kerlaz. Paris: A. Lemerre; New York: Christern.
Trollope, T. A. What I Remember. Harper & Bros.
Trowbridge, J. T. Peter Budstone, the Boy that was Hazed. Illustrated. Boston: Lee & Shepard.
Van Bibber, T. E. The Holy Child; or, Flight into Egypt. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.
Verne, Jules. Le Chemin de France. Paris: Hetzel; New York: Christern; Boston: Schoenhof.
Vianna de Lima, A. L'Homme selon le Transformisme. Paris: Félix Alcan.
Villers de l'Isle Adam. Tribulat Bonhomet. Paris; Tresse & Stock; Boston: Schoenhof.
Wandel der Zeiten: Vier Erzählungen. Wiesbaden: J. F. Bergmann; New York: Westermann.
Washburne, D. C. Songs from the Seasons, and Other Verses. 2d ed. St. Johnsbury: Charles T. Walter.
Watson, B. A. The Sportsman's Paradise; or, the Lakelands of Canada. Illustrated. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $3.50.
Ways for Boys to Make and Do Things. Illustrated. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. 60 cents.

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NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 2, 1888.

The Week.

THE serious proposition which is made in the Chicago *Tribune* for such a modification of Mr. Blaine's tariff views, as embodied in his celebrated "Paris message," as will permit revenue-reform Republicans to rally again to his support, merits serious consideration. The propounder of the proposition leaves no doubt as to what he means. He puts it rather cautiously at first by saying that, with "one change, Mr. Blaine's plan would meet fully the present emergency." Then he advances a little, and suggests that, "on mature consideration, he (Blaine) would hardly include the repeal of the tobacco tax in his plan of tariff revision and reduction." This is coming close to the point, and, after a few more sentences of explanation and elucidation, the reader's mind is presumed to have been prepared to receive the full revelation without a shock, and out it comes, as follows: "Doubtless, on careful consideration, Mr. Blaine would strike out the words 'tobacco tax' and insert 'sugar tariff.'" Having once reached the point, the editor's language grows bolder with every sentence: "Mr. Blaine's reference to tobacco as a 'necessity of life,' the tax on which should be repealed, must have been a *lapsus linguæ*. The removal of the tobacco tax would not fit in nor harmonize with his general plan. *The sugar tariff must be what he meant.*" When he had reached this point, the editor's feelings were visibly much lighter. He went ahead with great ease and swiftness to show that, with the repeal of the sugar tax and an enlargement of the free list and a lowering of war duties, which are too high, a tariff reduction would be accomplished in accordance with the Republican national platform of 1884. Mr. Blaine was a candidate on that platform, and why should he not be a candidate again on a similar platform this year? asks the editor, and then answers his own question triumphantly as follows: "Mr. Blaine need only propose the repeal of the sugar instead of the tobacco tax, and he will have a method of tariff reduction to command the hearty approval of revenue-reform Republicans."

After this modification of the Paris message has been accomplished, there will be little difficulty with the other portions. The Chicago reviser points to the fact that Mr. Blaine declared, in one portion of his interview, that what he had said did not imply that there should be no reduction of the national revenue, but the "reverse," and claims that that is sufficient evidence that he is in favor of the reduction demanded by the revenue-reform Republicans. The remark, however, precedes in the message the response which he made when he was asked: "But what about the existing surplus?" That was: "The abstract of the President's message I have seen contains no reference to that point. I therefore make no comment further than to endorse Mr. Fred Grant's remark, that a surplus is always easier to handle than a deficit."

The conservative policy of the Ways and Means Committee in dealing with the tariff is shown in the reported reduction of the duty on copper from four cents per pound merely to two cents. The imposition of any duty whatever on an article of which we are large exporters to foreign countries is a swindle on its face. It serves simply to enable the producers to charge American consumers more than they charge foreign consumers for an American product. It is a fact well known to the trade that at one time the difference as against American consumers was so great that Calumet and Hecla copper was bought in London, imported to New York, and sold here in competition with Calumet and Hecla copper that had never crossed the ocean. The copper monopolists put a stop to this by buying up all of their own copper in foreign markets, and refusing to sell any except to foreign consumers. They had previously killed the copper-smelting works on the Atlantic seaboard by the shameful duty on copper ore, driving the laborers therein out of employment. There is or was an extensive copper-smelting establishment in the suburbs of Boston which was totally ruined by this villanous tariff on copper ore. It was treated by law as though it had been an establishment for the manufacture of counterfeit money. The making of copper in the United States by this process was simply prohibited. What made the matter peculiarly odious was that these seaboard smelting works used American ores in part, mixing them with foreign ores. When they were closed, the market for the American ores was gone, and a monopoly was thus given to those companies which, like the Calumet and Hecla, already had a great natural advantage in the production of the metal. The same tariff had the effect to destroy the manufacture of sheathing metal for ships' bottoms. The sheathing-metal men went to Congress year after year asking for relief, but they got none. All this was done by Congress under the same kind of a threat that the wool-growers are now mouthing—that if the duty on copper was not granted, the copper interest would join the free-traders and knock the whole tariff into flinders.

It is well known that there has been lately formed a "copper trust" on a world-wide scale in Paris. A few persons have combined to possess themselves of all the existing stocks of copper, and of a controlling interest in all the principal copper mines of Spain and Chili. The large American producers have been invited to "chip in," and have probably done so, although naturally they would not proclaim that fact on the housetops. The best evidence that they have taken a share in the French syndicate is found in the fact that the syndicate is able to carry its heavy load. It would not be able to do so if it were obliged to buy the output of the American mines at the advanced price, in addition to that of all the small mines and half-abandoned mines which are now becoming active under the new stimulus. This is certainly an appropriate occasion for reviving the copper-smelting industry that was so ruthlessly crushed in the year 1868. In any other country than ours, or in an earlier period of our country, the stoppage of copper-smelting by law would have been called a damage to American industry. Here it was called protection.

A contemptible piece of injustice to our importing merchants has been perpetrated in the Deficiency Bill. The common law, up to 1839, and the Federal statutes since 1845, have said that if a collector of customs exacts an illegal rate or amount of duty from an importer, the importer can bring a suit and have a judgment against the collector exacting it. The damages set forth in the verdict or judgment have ever been the same as in any other suit for "money had and received." Interest from the date of the illegal exaction has been computed at the rate in the State where the exaction was made, which in New York may be 7 or 6 per cent., and in California 10 or 8 per cent. Heretofore the Treasury has paid the judgment, including the interest computed by the jury or the court; but, on the advice of Secretary Fairchild, the Deficiency Bill, in appropriating money to pay these judgments, required the Treasury to separate, on judgments, principal from interest, and only pay 3 per cent. interest to an importer, although the legal rate might be twice as much, and the use of the money worth twice as much to the importer. And this, too, when the courts have said, and the Treasury agrees, that the collector was wrong in exacting the money. Mr. Evarts, Mr. Edmunds, and Mr. Sherman all denounced the legislation as indecent, unjust, and unconstitutional. Mr. Allison defended it chiefly because so many importers are aliens who only pay 2 per cent. interest on their manufacturing plant. (Where is that?) The vote on adopting the 3 per cent. clause was 25 yeas to 24 nays, 27 Senators being absent. An amendment was then adopted making it apply only to future cases.

The Senate the other day adopted a resolution referring the President's message on the Pacific railroads to a special committee instead of to the Judiciary Committee. The action was proper enough in itself, but there is food for thought in the following clear statement, by the Washington correspondent of the Springfield *Republican*, of certain considerations which entered into the decision: "It came out in the discussion in the Senate that some of the members of the Judiciary Committee wanted to get rid of the matter because they receive valuable fees from the Pacific roads as attorneys; and, while they are not willing

to renounce the fees, they apparently think it will appear a little more decent to have the matter go to another committee, and then quietly vote the right way when it comes before the Senate. Mr. Edmunds was one of those who strenuously urged that the subject be referred to a special committee."

The weakness of the whole plea for the passage of the Blair bill was clearly exposed by a question which Senator Dawes of Massachusetts put to its author during the latter's speech on Thursday. Mr. Blair had read a letter from somebody in Georgia complaining that the State did not appropriate money enough to provide sufficient schools, when Mr. Dawes asked, "Why does not the State pay more? It is a rich State." Mr. Blair could make no reply to this pointed question, and his inability to make a reply is the strongest argument which could be brought against his bill. As has heretofore been shown by us, the School Commissioner of Georgia demonstrated more than five years ago that an increase of the State tax, which could even then be made "without unduly burdening the people," would keep the schools open six months a year; and the only reason why this additional State tax has not been levied is because the people have been hoping to get the money from Washington. It is no wonder that candid people who formerly supported the scheme, have been persuaded to change their ground by such proofs of the way in which the bill promotes mendicancy. This change is coming to be reflected in the Senate, where Mr. Kenna of West Virginia, a Southern Democrat who voted for the bill before, now announces his intention to vote against it. Northern Republicans who are inclined to make a similar change need feel no doubt that public sentiment will sustain them, when they find a journal once so earnest in supporting the bill as the *Christian Union* now opposing it.

The Public Printing-Office has long been what the Bureau of Engraving used to be, a place in which Congressmen could conveniently quarter their dependents on the public treasury. The last Republican incumbent, Rounds, was kept in office two years under the present Administration, and then dismissed, and he has since died. His Democratic successor, Benedict, has begun very slowly to reduce his force, and has been dismissing a number of Republicans, which is, of course, causing much irritation among their "influences" in Congress, and they called on him for an explanation, and they did not like his explanation, and demanded that he be investigated. The investigation has been ordered, but has been made to cover Rounds's administration also, which has increased Republican irritation. But this irritation, though natural, is unreasonable. Nothing but good can come of an investigation of the manner in which the office has been managed by both parties. The investigation of the Bureau of Engraving did a world of good, and the report was one of the best civil-service-reform documents ever published. It showed that the office was so packed with supernumeraries forced in by Congressmen, that shelves had actually to be put up on which they could loaf, and doze, and be out of the way, during office hours. Doubtless there is a somewhat similar state of things in the Public Printing-Office.

The *Herald's* reporter in the Lehigh mining region supplies some facts regarding the condition of the strikers, who have now been "out" nearly five months. The picture is a deplorable one, but it might be worse. It would be worse, for example, if these men were in a place where good wages and plenty of work could not be had. But seeing that $2.62 per day average has been and is now offered to them, and that their rejection of it is quite voluntary, the sympathies of the humane are not likely to be greatly enlisted in their behalf, although we cannot fail to pity their children. A physician at Ashton is quoted as saying that the little ones "were in rags, and had neither shoes nor stockings. The wind drove snow through wide cracks in the poor shanties, which were not fit for human beings to live in. The children were not white-faced; it had passed beyond that point. They were blue-faced. There is terrible suffering among the miners now. They and their children are just beginning to feel the pangs of hunger. Very few of the little ones get enough to eat. If these strikes last much longer, death will come to the coal regions in a terrible form." Notwithstanding these self-inflicted sufferings, the reporter says that the miners are perfectly peaceable. They have committed no act of violence. They have not thought of destroying the company's property — blowing up the mines or anything of that sort. Noble forbearance, indeed, seeing that their interest in the property when they choose to work is by much the largest interest of all, and that if it were destroyed they would be out of a job not for five months only, but for all time. "They will see their wives and children die before their eyes," continues this sympathizing writer, "rather than give up what they regard as a struggle for manhood." This must be regarded as a slight exaggeration, judging from the great strike of 1877. Miners are not so greatly different from other people that they will see their wives and children die while $2.62 per day is dangling before their eyes; but they will come pretty near that condition. They cannot be far from it now, if this is a true picture.

Ex-Senator Warner Miller has, according to the Philadelphia *Press*, been making in an interview "a clear statement of the tariff issue, and a logical refutation of the fallacies put forth by the free-trade champions," filling a column and a half. What is new in it is an admission that our industries are no "longer infant industries," and that "only free-traders who desire to ridicule and break down our tariff system talk about our infant industries. The fact is, that the value of our manufactures is greater than that of England or any other country." He also added, when questioned about "free raw materials," that neither they nor anything else of the kind would do the American manufacturer any good as long as he had to pay such high wages as at present. All that was wanted to make this explanation complete was the amount of the high wages which the manufacturer gets back from the workingman in the sale of his goods under the high tariff. This should always accompany a statement of the rate of wages paid in this country, in order to reduce the free-traders to real confusion.

The nomination of Warmoth for Governor of Louisiana by the Republicans of that State indicates that the Republican party of the South has learned nothing in the past twenty years. Warmoth was elected to the Governorship in 1868, and his administration was one of the most disgraceful seen anywhere in the South during the whole reconstruction period. For the Republicans of Louisiana to renominate Warmoth in 1888 is the same thing as it would be for the Democrats of New York to propose Tweed's restoration to power if he were still alive. Northern people who wonder at the weakness of the Republican party in the South ought to have their eyes opened by such incidents as this.

One gets occasionally curious glimpses of the working of the Southern mind in the accounts of the "affrays" in that part of the country. Knoxville, Tenn., is a flourishing community, with all the outward appearance of high civilization, and yet here is what happened there on Sunday morning: The City Council elects the City Physician, but there is an ordinance which provides that he must be a graduate of a medical college; and in order to appoint a certain "Dr." West, who was not a graduate, the Council repealed this ordinance. The Knoxville *Journal* thereupon denounced the transaction in fitting terms through an article written by a local physician. West's son thereupon seems to have concluded, not that he must sue the editor, a Mr. Rule, but that he must shoot him with a pistol and stab him with a penknife. He went to his house to find him on Sunday morning, but, hearing he had gone to church, followed him to St. John's Episcopal Church, and called him back as he was entering the door with his wife. West and his brother and a friend of theirs then set upon Rule, knocked him down, one of them trying to shoot him in the head, and another operating on his back with a penknife. Most Christians here probably would suppose that when Mr. Rule went to church with his wife, he left his revolver at home. Not a bit of it. He had it quite handy in his pocket, and was expert with it, for he shot John West through the body, and Goodman, the friend, through the shoulder, and then William West ran away. The report concludes, grotesquely, with the remark: "The organ drowned the noise of the pistol shots."

Of all Sunday-school entertainments of which we have ever heard, the oddest was one given in the Warren Street Methodist Episcopal Church (Brooklyn) on Monday week, in the shape of a mock trial in a suit of breach of promise of marriage, brought by "Anatomy Comstock" against "Baby Brownspotter." "The young people who got up the exercise," we are told, "were evidently close observers of the recent Campbell-Arbuckle suit, or, as it is better known, the 'Baby Bunting' and 'Bunnie' trial. The large Sunday-school room was filled by an audience which included small children and the aged, and many came from other churches to see the novel entertainment." The pastor's daughter, "pretty Miss Florence Yarrow," was the leading witness, and "the plaintiff's counsel, wearing a full-dress suit and a gay boutonnière," "danced about the altar as he interposed objections." "Dancing about the altar" is good. Several of the witnesses were in fantastic costumes, and the court officer appeared with a blackened face, and "lambasted" the male witnesses with a stuffed club. The affair, however, was kept "within the limits of propriety," which means that its vulgarity was free from positive indecency. It would probably have been impossible to explain to the audience the unfitness of the whole thing. One of the advantages of being chromo-civilized is, that you can have lots of "innocent amusement" out of things which fill other people with disgust. These same believers, however, are probably very particular about making presents to the Pope.

Dr. Titus Munson Coan delivered a lecture on health at the Cooper Institute on Saturday, in which he warned people against going without overcoats in winter "like the Anglo-maniacs"; but he ought to have added that the Anglo-maniacs are not such fools as they seem, for their coatless condition in the street is apt to be a bit of imposture. They wear substitutes for overcoats underneath in the shape of waistcoats of some kind, which will not injure their figure. The Doctor also, in denouncing water as a frequent cause of disease, departed from that middle path in which, as the Latin poet says, true safety lies, because he laid it down that impure water slew more people than "rum or whiskey." This comparison was particularly odious and entirely unnecessary, because to tens of thousands it will operate as an argument, not for making sure that the water they drink is pure, but for taking rum and whiskey instead of water. All lecturers and authors who compare alcohol as either food or drink with other things, ought to keep in mind the tremendous bias of human nature in favor of rum or whiskey in these latitudes, and temper their arguments accordingly. The danger of impure water can be thoroughly exposed without tacitly recommending another dangerous drink as less dangerous, when it is generally easy to get pure water. Distilled water can be had in this city by any one who is afraid of the Croton, for five cents a gallon, delivered at his house, or he can distil it himself on his own fire for probably far less. Most people, especially the fat, would do well to reduce their consumption of fluids by at least two-thirds.

The prospect now is, that the new High-License Law in Pennsylvania will reduce the number of saloons in Philadelphia alone from 6,000 to less than 3,000. Applications for licenses for this year must all be filed before February 12, and up to the present time only a few more than 1,000 have been filed. The court clerks anticipate a much larger number during the few weeks remaining, but no estimate places the probable total higher than 3,000, and the most competent authorities say it will not go above 2,800. This would give the city a revenue of about $1,000,000. The greatest obstacle which the new law presents to the liquor-dealers is the requirement that each applicant shall have as bondsmen "two reputable freeholders of the ward or township," each of whom "must own unencumbered real estate worth over $2,000, and must not be engaged in the manufacture of liquor." No bondsman is allowed to sign more than one application. This requirement prevents the brewers from taking out licenses in the names of liquor-dealers, and is doing much more than the $500 license fee to reduce the number of saloons.

A recent statement in the Providence *Journal* shows the complete defiance of the prohibitory liquor law which is displayed by the saloon-keepers in the largest city of Rhode Island. Accurate statistics are given, by which it appears that there are 125 more places in the city where liquor is sold than there were under the former license law. There is no longer any pretence of secrecy made about the traffic. The saloons, which under the license law were always closed at midnight and were never open on Sundays, are now nearly all open twenty-four hours a day during a seven days' week, and many of them do their heaviest business on Sundays. There is apparently no effort whatever made to enforce the law, and there are no signs of a public protest against its nullification. The *Journal* also publishes information about the condition of affairs in some of the larger villages and towns of the State, showing that the law is no better enforced there. "Reference to the prohibitory law," says the *Journal*, "is treated in the same manner as the quoting of a popular slang phrase is, and mere allusion to the probability of any effort being made to enforce it is laughed at as something absurd." Rhode Island is, in short, having an experience with the free and untaxed sale of liquor.

One of the most curious phases of the transformation which the Republican party has been undergoing for some time past, is the difficulty which many of the organs find in adjusting themselves to the new relations which sprang up in 1884 between the organization and the "slums." The campaign of 1884 changed all that. For the first time in its history the Republican party then presented a candidate who repelled the support of those districts in the great cities most famous for the intelligence of the population. The Twenty-first Assembly District of New York is known as the Murray Hill district, and always used to be depended upon for a large Republican majority. In 1880 it gave Garfield 4,642 votes and Hancock only 3,533—a Republican plurality of 1,109; but in 1884 it gave Blaine only 4,080 votes to 4,641 for Cleveland—a Democratic plurality of 561. The First Ward of Brooklyn, which includes the Heights, represents the same sort of population and had a similar political record. In 1880 it gave Garfield 2,272 votes and Hancock only 1,725—a Republican plurality of 547; but in 1884 it gave Blaine only 1,736 votes and Cleveland 2,234—a Democratic plurality of 498. Wards 9, 10, and 11 of Boston include the Beacon Hill and Back Bay districts, and had always been "Republican strongholds." In 1880 they gave an aggregate of 4,072 votes for Garfield and only 1,805 for Hancock, the Republican vote being more than double the Democratic; in 1884 they gave Blaine only 2,918 votes and Cleveland 3,153, transforming the Republican plurality of 2,267 in 1880 into a Democratic plurality of 235 in 1884.

It is a well-known fact that when, on the evening of the last Presidential election, the returns came into the newspaper offices from such parts of New York as Murray Hill, and of Brooklyn as the Heights, it was conceded by all intelligent judges, who reasoned upon the basis of previous contests between the parties, that Cleveland must have carried New York State by a large plurality. When the Twenty-first Assembly District of New York reported that Cleveland had secured 561 plurality where Hancock was beaten by 1,109, and the First Ward of Brooklyn that Cleveland had 498 plurality where Hancock was beaten by 547, it was taken for granted that Blaine must be overwhelmingly beaten. But the Blaine men would not concede this. "Wait till you hear from the slums," they said, "and you will find that the Republican candidate has made great gains." It turned out as they had predicted. The First Ward of New York had given Garfield only 1,885 votes; it gave Blaine 2,275. The Fourth Ward had given Garfield only 1,543; it gave Blaine 2,390. The Second Ward had given Garfield only 1,146; it gave Blaine 2,130, or almost twice as many. It was the same way in Brooklyn, the Twelfth Ward, for instance, perhaps the "slum" ward *par excellence*, giving Garfield only 686 votes and Blaine 928. Moreover, it has always been claimed by the Blaine men that they lost many thousands of votes in the "slums" of New York and Brooklyn, which would otherwise have gone to their congenial candidate, through Mr. Burchard's famous remark. All this should teach Republican organs that the time has gone by for contemptuous references to the "slums," such as we find in an editorial article in the Cleveland *Leader*. The truth is, that the Republican editor who now talks in the old-fashioned strain of the "slums," is but little better than a Burchard himself.

AN IMPOSSIBLE CANDIDATE.

THE temporary recognition of Gov. Hill as a Presidential possibility is due to two causes: the first is his own pertinacity in thrusting himself forward as a candidate at every opportunity, and the second is the present dearth of topics to write about in the newspaper offices. Of actual standing as a candidate, the Governor has never had less than he has to-day. If he were to stop wire-pulling and intriguing, what is called his boom would disappear instantly. He has never had any following as a Presidential candidate outside New York State, and his following here is made up entirely of men who are dissatisfied with the President because he is too much of a reformer. This following is too weak to make a showing at the polls, or in any other way in which the popular voice gains expression; but every now and then it comes to the front in some kind of a committee contest. As the President refuses to meddle in such contests, the Governor, having no such scruples, has matters largely his own way, and he is usually able to make a sufficient show of strength to claim that if he is not stronger than the President in his own State, he is at least a rival.

Whenever he makes a demonstration of this kind, as he did last week, when he was able, after months of underground political manœuvring, to tie the Democratic State Committee upon the question of electing a member of the National Committee, the Blaine Republican press become fairly hilarious, and really outdo the late Butler organ, the *Sun*, in their eagerness to make the Governor the next Democratic nominee for the Presidency. At the same time the Governor himself hastens to assure everybody that there is no rivalry between himself and the President, that the best of feeling exists between them, and that these little contests are not any of his doings, but are the outcome of the irrepressible zeal of his enthusiastic followers. We presume that if the real truth were to come out about the Governor's scheming, it would be seen that he has little expectation of making himself a Presidential candidate in the near future, and is, in fact, only seeking to make his renomination for Governor sure.

It requires little acuteness of observation to see why the Blaine people are eager for Hill's Presidential candidacy. He represents in politics precisely the opposite of all that gives the President his great strength. The latter stands as the representative of courage, convictions, and high purposes in public life. The former is the best type now remaining of the Machine politician who utterly despises principle in politics, and trusts all to intrigue. It is impossible to imagine Gov. Hill vetoing the pension grab or issuing the tariff-reform message. He showed his contempt for such appeals to the intelligence and conscience of the people when he hastened to confer office upon Sterling, the liquor-dealer, whom the President caused to be kept out of a place in the Custom-house. Nobody knows better than the Blaine advocates what the effect of Hill's nomination would be upon the political standard of the next national campaign. It would lower the whole contest at once to the Blaine level of morality. It would produce precisely the situation which they desire, that is, a "choice of evils." There is no situation which they would prefer to that. They could then nominate their man with a hope of electing him, for they could say to the thousands of Republicans who now are prepared to vote for Cleveland in preference to Blaine: "Admitting that there are some things about our candidate which are objectionable, you cannot deny that he is a better man than Hill." Then, too, with Hill and Blaine in the field, the Independents and Mugwumps would "be out in the cold," for they would either have to "vote in the air" or not vote at all, and that, we need not say, is a contingency for which every good Blaine man is longing.

But there was never so little chance of its arriving as there is to-day. The country is not going to move backward in its political sentiment. Mr. Cleveland was nominated for the Presidency in 1884 because he had given promise of those higher qualities in public office of which he has since furnished most conclusive proof. The sentiment which forced his nomination then, and forced it upon an unwilling party, is not only a thousand times stronger to-day, but it has the willing support of an overwhelming majority of the Democratic party. No competent political observer can question these facts. There is not a State in the Union which shows the slightest disposition to send anything else than a Cleveland delegation to the next National Convention. If by indefatigable wire-pulling Gov. Hill were able to get control of the delegation from New York, it would do him no good. The voice of the rest of the country would overwhelm its vote and nominate Cleveland by acclamation.

A significant sign of this irresistible tendency of the party was furnished by the action of the Democratic State Committee of Massachusetts on Saturday last. It was only last September that the Democratic Convention of that State ventured to oppose the President's policy in their platform and candidate. The crushing defeat which they met at the polls in November showed them their error, and on Saturday they declared that the Democrats of the State were a "unit in their support of President Cleveland in the policy recommended by him in his last annual message to Congress"; that they "believe it to be the duty of Democrats throughout the United States to advocate, support, and insist upon the adoption of the principles enunciated therein as the great issue upon which the Democratic party, with its candidates in the approaching Presidential election, can achieve an overwhelming victory at the polls." That is a revelation of the new spirit which is behind the President in his own party. His course has given them what they have not had until now, enthusiasm for him as their leader, and they are not only willing, but eager, to renominate him.

"ROYALTY" COPYRIGHT AGAIN.

As stated in a prefatory note by the editor of the *North American Review*, it was Mr. Gladstone's suggestion that the English discussions of Mr. R. Pearsall Smith's copyright scheme should be followed by an expression of opinion from American authors. Accordingly we have, in the January number of the above journal, a restatement of the "royalty" proposal in an article entitled "Anglo-American Copyright," to which comments are appended. Mr. Smith's second paper, though said to contain his "most matured views" on this subject, seems to be but a rehash of his former contributions, with nothing new added either by way of argument or illustration, unless we dignify as such the figures at the foot of page 71—said to be from a "responsible printer's estimates," but which do not even satisfy the demands of correct addition—and the rough woodcut on page 76, which, we presume, is offered as a facsimile of the proposed authors' stamps. The figures referred to are intended to demonstrate that when the selling price of a book is increased beyond 20 cents, a disproportionate per cent. of the profit goes to the publisher. But, in the first place, it is a mere assumption that the 20-cent issue will number 20,000 copies; and if the edition is less than this, the cost of production per copy is at once increased. Doubtless a considerable number of reprints of popular novels may reach a sale of this or even a greater number of copies, but it is unsafe to assume that a book will sell in such large numbers because its price is put at 20 cents. Mr. Smith is himself authority for the statement that the publishers of the "Franklin Square Library" have not found that publication profitable, which would go to prove that the sale of a large proportion of the books in that popular series has been less than 20,000 copies.

In the second place, Mr. Smith's readers should have been told that for the 20-cent book 2 cents remains to be added by the purchaser to secure to the author his royalty, while in the case of the $1 and $1.50 books, these being the present usual prices (copyright money included) for popular copyrighted works, 15 per cent., in the case of popular authors, or 15 cents and 22½ cents, respectively, are to be deducted from the profits set out in the table as going to the publisher, these sums being paid out of said profits to the author. Furthermore, one important item in the publisher's account has been overlooked entirely, viz., the cost of carrying on the business of selling the author's productions. This represents, upon good authority, not less than 15 per cent. upon the retail price of each book ventured upon, or 22½ cents in the case which Mr. Smith instances as showing the most disproportionate profit to the publisher. Subtracting these two fixed expenditures from the 58 cents profit estimated in his tables, the publisher's net profit is reduced to 13 cents, or 9½ cents *less* upon each copy than is paid to the author.

We have taken Mr. Smith's figures as they

stand, but before any inferences can safely be drawn from the prices given by the "responsible printer" as to the cost of producing the various parts of a book, one would need to know the kind and quality of book-work he is accustomed to do, for there is often a striking difference in the material and make-up of different books, a difference which frequently means a considerable expenditure both of thought and money. As to the retailer's profit of 60 cents, every book-buyer knows that the book whose nominal price is $1.50 is really sold for $1.25 or $1.20, so that while each author secures at least 15 cents, and the popular author 22½ cents, profit on every copy sold, the combined profit of publisher and retailer is but from 43 to 55½ cents. Mr. Smith ought, therefore, in fairness to refrain from the reiteration of his favorite but unjust statement that seven-eighths of the profits on a book goes to the venders and only one-eighth to the author.

In the introductory note by Mr. Rice a telegram from Mr. Gladstone is printed, in which he repeats the hope expressed by him in the *Nineteenth Century* magazine for an international copyright between England and the United States. He thinks that it should be copyright by royalty, and expresses the belief that the method of it cannot be too difficult for practical men to adjust. Aside from Mr. Gladstone's assent, of the fourteen letters appended to Mr. Smith's article, only two—by Mr. Moncure D. Conway and Mr. Robert Ellis Thompson—are for, while eight are decidedly against the proposal. The remaining four are non-committal. Of these the first is by Dr. Oliver Wendell Holmes, who looks upon the proposal as a special issue over which the general question of international copyright may be fought as well as on any other ground. "A wrong remains to be righted, and any step tending towards that result is better than leaving it undisturbed." Mr. Whittier does not think it a complete solution of a difficult question "involving moral as well as financial considerations," but he believes it worthy of attention. No plan is too radical for Mr. W. D. Howells, who is in favor of "any and every scheme to do justice to foreign authors." He admits his inability to judge the practical workings of the stamp notion, but nothing seems to him so unpractical in the long run as the "present system of pillage." Mr. Julian Hawthorne says that he can advocate the royalty proposal only when it results in raising the price of reprints to equal the cost of native American works; but as it is avowedly urged in order to secure the direct opposite, namely, the lowest possible price for the foreign work, Mr. Hawthorne's letter must be ruled out as irrelevant.

The two advocates of the system offer very little in the way of argument. Mr. Conway is satisfied with rather inconsequent fault-finding, and the efforts of the Authors' Copyright League to secure an equitable law are characterized as a "platonic dispute about the ideal copyright," which is obstructing the saving of "millions" to literary men by means of "an emergency measure which, besides its practical advantages, establishes the principle of property in brain-product as a foundation for future enactments." And Mr. Thompson, although expressing himself as "keenly alive to the injustice done to foreign, and still more, to American authors by the absence of any law to prevent the pirating of English books," curiously enough finds in a plan which legalizes this very "pirating," a solution of the copyright problem "which secures all interests at once." In what respect he supposes the status of native authors will be improved it is difficult to imagine; but he apparently does not really mean *all* interests, for he seems to realize that "manufacturers of books" will not consider theirs secured by the scheme, and announces that they will oppose it "on both sides of the ocean."

The reasons urged by the American opponents of Mr. Smith's plan may be briefly digested. The Hon. John Bigelow not only thinks it unsound in principle and mischievous, if not disastrous, in practical operation, but, further, unconstitutional, in that it contemplates the practical confiscation of a portion, at least, of every author's property in his books to private use without compensation. As American publishers have pronounced the scheme impracticable, according to Dr. Edward Eggleston, and as it is held in detestation by authors, it cannot be adopted; and he contends that, *if* adopted, it certainly would lead to efforts being made to abolish domestic copyright for the purpose of cheapening books, thus imperilling the very existence of American literature. Mr. Lloyd S. Brice is also strongly impressed with the danger threatening our native literature, and is therefore prepared heartily to endorse any plan which would foster it by offering protection to American authors. President Gilman considers that there is the same objection to the measure that there is to every form of compromise, and concludes that the only lasting remedy is a "thorough protection of an author's property by a just plan of international copyright." Mr. G. P. Lathrop criticises various details of the plan, pointing out the practical difficulty and expense the English author would be put to in attempting to keep a supply of stamps suitable for use for the various editions arbitrarily priced by each new reprinter, and the utter impossibility of any one in England keeping track of the multifarious reprinters in this country; and he considers Mr. Smith's statement that "the more publishers compete, the better it is for the authors," to be delusive.

Mr. C. D. Warner's reply is exceedingly sharp. He considers that Mr. Smith's argument against international copyright is an argument against all copyright, and pronounces his plan impracticable and not worth discussion. He claims for the author his right to control his literary property, subject to local laws and regulations, exactly as he now controls any other kind of property he may possess. Mr. Warner does Mr. Smith injustice, however, in supposing that the latter has any connection with the protectionist opponents of copyright. Mr. Smith's plan is, so far as any one in the United States is concerned, original with himself. Mr. R. W. Gilder speaks as well for the Copyright League as for himself, in opposition to a plan which he considers objectionable on account of its impracticability, and also on account of its being false and dangerous in principle; and he deprecates the *quasi* support of it by English authors as likely to hinder the realization of the present fair prospects for equitable international copyright legislation. The reply of Mr. C. E. Norton is good enough and short enough to be quoted entire: "Neither the plan nor the mode in which it is presented meets my approval. I am unable to understand how any honest man can approve a plan which, by its inventor's own admission, is not based upon the rights of the question."

The unexpected opposition exhibited towards his scheme in America has induced Mr. Smith to announce publicly that he will not press it upon the notice of Congress, but leave the field free for the combined efforts of the Authors' and Publishers' Copyright Leagues and the friends of unrestricted copyright legislation. This last is something very different from his proposed law entitling the alien owner of literary property to a totally different kind of legal protection from that already accorded to the native author—a state of things which could result only in great confusion and ultimate injustice and wrong. Mr. Smith admits that his method can only apply to the comparatively few most popular works, and if he will carefully scrutinize the list of these, he may perhaps convince himself that they are not the very best books to cheapen in price for the sake of securing their greatest possible distribution among the masses. It is a laudable desire to wish to educate the poorest of our people by bringing *good* books within their reach at the cheapest possible *honest* price, but a little reflection should convince Mr. Smith that that is something entirely aside from the subject of copyright, international or domestic. He has himself instanced France as a country where new books are issued in cheap form (and we may add in good form), and sell in such large numbers as to pay both authors and publishers a handsome return; and yet this is done under what Mr. Smith would call a "monopoly" copyright law. There is a field for his intelligent activity in trying to bring about a similar state of things in this country, and in the meantime he should find consolation in the fact that he has the whole volume of English literature from Chaucer to Tennyson to draw upon for his cheap reprints for educational purposes, and that he can use this vast material with the least possible injustice to any one.

"*BOOKS THAT HAVE HELPED ME.*"

During the past year or two an enormous amount of attention has been given both here and in England to the business of advising people what to read. It began in England with a piece of newspaper enterprise, which consisted in getting men of distinction in politics or literature to make out lists of "one hundred books" which should form the library of a man who, for any reason, was obliged to confine himself to this number. It then took the form of ac-

counts from various people, some distinguished and some not, of "books that have helped me," and in this form it bids fair to last indefinitely. Nearly everybody who can read can make out a short catalogue, if not exactly of books that have helped him, of books which he thinks, or would like other people to think, have helped him.

The number of those who wish to tell the world about these helping books, too, seems to be practically unlimited, so strong and widely diffused is the desire to let other people into one's personal experience on almost any subject. It has been said that every man, and for that matter every woman, can furnish the plot of one novel constructed out of the principal events of his own life; and there is one story which even the most uneducated body who can talk freely, loves to tell, namely, the story of his own doings, what he has seen, or suffered, or accomplished, and especially the victories he has achieved in argument. There is, in fact, nothing more enjoyable in the narratives of unlettered people than their accounts of contentions they have had, in which the adversary was reduced to hopeless absurdity and shut up by a few pregnant remarks.

When one gets up among the literates, one finds a corresponding readiness to let the public into the secret of their intellectual growth. Hardly any one who has risen in the smallest degree into public notice is above the harmless vanity of telling the utterly obscure man how fame is achieved, or the foundation stones of even moderate greatness laid. The millionaire recalls his diligence as a boy in sweeping out the store on cold winter mornings, the lawyer his wonderful assiduity in copying papers and reading very early editions of law-books by the firelight, and the literary man the toil expended on his first verses, and his secret joy at seeing them in the "poet's corner" of the country newspaper. There is nothing sweeter than the reflection that one's own career is a standing encouragement to the young and friendless to be up and doing, with a heart for every fate.

There is probably, however, no more melancholy fact in human affairs than the infrequency with which any individual man's experience is of use to anybody else. If we profit by experience at all, it seems to be mainly by the experience of the human race, or of our particular nation, rather than by that of any individual friend, or relative, or preceptor. No matter how much we may respect or admire Brown or Jones, or even father or uncle, we generally take care not to follow his advice in the management of our own lives. Everybody who has had much experience as a counsellor knows well that people usually seek advice in order to get encouragement in pursuing a course on which they have already determined. In truth, it may be said that most of us are constitutionally incapable of doing well what other people think best, unless we also ourselves think it best. To follow successfully a plan traced for us by somebody else, it has generally to be a plan which does not concern us except as another man's agent or servant, and has his satisfaction for its supreme object.

Much the same thing may be said about "the books that have helped me." All the articles which have been written about them tacitly assume that what helps me will help you, or that Brown, on learning where Jones got his mental provender, will order home a supply of the same, and live on it. Nothing can well be further from the truth. Wherever these articles do not gratify a harmless vanity, they are interesting simply as the literary experience of one more or less respectable human being, and nothing more. Every man who loves books and reads them, and makes any good use of them, reads in the line of his own tastes and temperament and pursuits. He is not, and for the most part cannot be, helped by another man's books, supposing books to be anything more than repertories of facts. All must, of course, go to the same sources of information, or, in other words, must consult the same books of reference, but every man who reads for culture, or for encouragement, or inspiration, or power, must choose his own books. Books that have helped Brown may be interesting to Jones because he loves Brown and likes to watch the working of his mind; but they will not necessarily help Jones. In fact, the time he spent on them might be time utterly wasted, unless there existed the closest similarity in pursuits and in character between the readers.

We wish most sincerely that the subject were of more importance than it is, because we fear that although the reading of books grows, the search for books that will help one does not greatly increase. By far the larger portion of the increased sale of books is due to the demand for books that will amuse or kill time. By far the greater portion of whatever love of reading exists in the world, is gratified by newspapers and periodicals. It was when books were scarce and little known that readers hesitated and sought counsel in choosing them. The general testimony of publishers is that the books which really help people are not sought after by any means in proportion to the growth of population and the spread of the reading art.

THE TRANSCASPIAN RAILROAD.

SEVEN years ago Mr. O'Donovan made his celebrated journey to the Merv Oasis—a district up to that time practically untrodden by civilized men, and separated from the Caspian Sea by stretches of half-desert country inhabited only by robber tribes. To-day the region from the Caspian to Merv, and beyond it as far as the Oxus, is traversed by a well-built railroad, with over 600 miles of line already open for traffic, and 1,500 cars in actual use; with a large station in each oasis, and with smaller ones scattered along the route. A journey which seven years ago could not have been made by any traveller under any conditions is now regularly accomplished in twenty-eight hours. The Oxus—but yesterday a practically unknown river—is now crossed by a twelve-span railroad bridge which is fast approaching completion. The year 1888 will see the ancient Tartar cities of Bokhara and Samarcand brought within three days' journey from the Black Sea, or within a week from St.-Petersburg. American enterprise has done wonders in the way of building railroads in advance of civilization, but it has done nothing like this.

The district east of the Caspian Sea—bounded by Siberia on the north, by Persia and Afghanistan on the south, and reaching eastward as far as the somewhat vaguely defined line of the Chinese Empire—is still marked on most of our maps by the general name of Independent Tartary, though the greater part of it now belongs to Russia. It is, roughly speaking, 600 miles from north to south, and 1,200 from east to west; its area is therefore about one-quarter that of the United States. It has formed a most important neutral ground between the British and Russian possessions in Asia; for though it barely touches the northern extremity of India itself, and that at a point secure from attack, it has been the chief protection of Afghanistan from Russian invasion.

In the northwestern part of this district lies the land-locked Sea of Aral, into which the Amu or Oxus—the two names are used indiscriminately—flows from the southeast. The region to the north and east of the Oxus is comparatively fertile and not altogether uncivilized. It contains at least two cities of some importance — Bokhara and Samarcand. But western and southern Tartary is a desert — not even a region of steppes, like other parts of central and northern Asia, but a sand desert without vegetation, except in a few oases like those of Gök-Tepe and Merv in the south.

It is the custom of English writers to represent Russia's vigorous policy in this region as being due to a desire to attack India. What may be the motives which actuate Russian diplomacy at present, it is impossible to say; but there is no trace of any such premeditated plan in the early steps by which Russia was led into her present position. Making all due allowance for the partisanship of Russian reports, there is every reason to believe that she was forced to advance in this direction by the impossibility of maintaining either a peaceful or a purely defensive attitude towards the Turkomans of this region. The Turkomans would come out and plunder the Russian settlements at the north of the Caspian Sea. On the approach of regular troops they would run away. There was no way to chastise them except to follow them into their homes, where they would be forced to fight. This was what led Russia into this region. The first expeditions of this kind were in 1871 and 1872; they were apparently not ill-managed, but the forces were too small to accomplish the object in view. A larger expedition, in 1877, was discreditably beaten. The Russian Government was now aroused to the fact that it had an enemy of some power to contend with, and, as soon as the Turkish war was over, Gen. Skobeleff was sent to bring the matter to a conclusion. Against such an officer the Turkomans had no chance. He forced his way to the strong-

hold of Gök-Tepe, and destroyed the fighting power of the tribes of southwestern Tartary by what was little short of a wholesale massacre.

It was in this campaign of 1879, and at Skobeleff's demand, that the Transcaspian Railroad was first begun. He felt that he needed it in a campaign in the desert as a means of transporting supplies. But there seems to be no evidence that he regarded it as other than temporary in its purpose, or that he expected it to be continued further than the very short distance which had been necessary for the immediate objects of the campaign. At any rate nothing was done for five years, and the Russians seemed to have abandoned any idea which they might have had of a systematic eastward movement at this point. They were actually disbanding some of their auxiliary forces in this region, when the action of the Merv Turkomans, in putting themselves under the protection of Russia, roused them to new activity in this direction.

The extension of Russian authority over Merv gave rise to much controversy and some warlike talk. But, while both parties were talking, Russia was acting, and was acting in the most efficient way by extending her railroad to Merv and beyond it. Work was begun in May, 1885, under the direction of Gen. Annenkoff, one of the ablest Russian engineer officers, who was already familiar with the country, having been with Skobeleff in the campaign of 1879. Operations were pushed with the utmost rapidity. The Russians are said to have pressed no less than 30,000 Turkomans into the work of railroad building; and, what is still more remarkable, these Turkomans seem to have worked efficiently. The location was easy; the only difficulty in construction was due to the looseness of the sand, and this they succeeded in consolidating by a plaster made of loam and Caspian Sea water. The tracklayers were accommodated in movable cars, which furnished both kitchen and barracks, and which were pushed out into the desert as fast as the line was completed. The petroleum wells of Baku, on the Caspian, furnished a cheap and effective fuel. The road is already open for traffic for two-thirds of the distance to Samarcand. Next summer will probably witness its completion.

The line starts from the harbor of Uzun Ada, on the east shore of the Caspian, in latitude 39° 35′ (the name is not marked on any of the ordinary maps). It at first runs E. S. E. for over 300 miles, passing through Gök-Tepe and Askabad, and finally reaching Dushakh, situated in long. 60°, lat. 37° 20′. Here it comes so near the Afghan frontier that it can no longer continue its southward progress, and turns a trifle north of east, to Merv, a hundred miles further. Thence it runs northeast more than 200 miles to Bokhara, crossing the Oxus at Tcharjui. Its further course to Samarcand is almost due east. For military purposes the location could hardly be improved. It is not aggressively hostile to any one; it runs parallel to the Afghan frontier; but this parallelism is really precisely what is wanted, for it will enable Russia to choose her point of attack. A branch from Dushakh towards Herat—the two places are little more than 200 miles apart—and another up the Oxus, from Tcharjui to Tashkurghan, would each give Russia a line of attack. More than this, if the two existed side by side, she would be able so to mask her movements as to leave an enemy in doubt as to the position of her main force until the blows were actually struck.

What will be the effect of all this upon the relations of England and Russia in Asia, it is hard to say. For the moment it gives Russia a dominant influence on the Afghan frontier. But if it causes the English authorities to discard once for all the idea of checking Russia on the northern frontier of Afghanistan, it will be a gain to England in the end. In the first place, England will see that the only defence on which she can really rely, is her own defence of her own frontier in India. And, further than this, should it really come to a war between the two Powers, the one that fights with Afghanistan at its back will be weaker instead of stronger on that account. More will be lost by distance from home than would be gained by any support which the Afghans can give. If England will look these facts squarely in the face, and make up her mind to protect herself against Afghanistan, rather than Afghanistan against Russia, it will be best for all parties concerned.

THE ITALIANS AT MASSOWAH.

The Italians were induced in 1885, probably under the influence of the tradition left by the interference of the Piedmontese in the Crimean war, to take a hand in the struggle of the British with the Sudanese, by sending 800 men to occupy Assab, on the Red Sea. For one reason or another the expedition stopped at Massowah, which may be called the port of Abyssinia, at which many of the great routes from the interior concentrate. By the time it had got fairly settled, however, the British had retreated from the Sudan, and the Italians were left to work out their own salvation in their own way. So they determined to form a colony, which should do something to counterbalance the seizure of Tunis by the French, and form a centre of Italian influence in eastern Africa. Their arrival was viewed with some suspicion by the Abyssinians, but they made, by sending presents and negotiators, strong efforts to establish good relations with the King, or Negus, as he is called, but without much success. So they went on during the year 1886 improving and fortifying Massowah, and establishing posts in the interior on the great roads, forty or fifty miles out, without any other disturbance than raids from small bands of marauders.

But early in 1887 the Negus got out of patience, and called on the Italian general in command, Gen. Gene, to evacuate these posts, and, on meeting with a refusal, despatched his head man, Ras Alula, with 6,000 men, to clear the Italians out of one of them called Saati. Ras Alula was, however, driven off after a three hours' fight, in which he lost heavily and the Italians had only four killed. He took his revenge the following day by falling with 20,000 men on a detachment of 500 Italians which was marching to reinforce Saati. The Italian square was broken by the Abyssinian charge, very much as the British were by the Zulu charge at Isandhlana, and came near being once or twice in the Sudan, and the force was massacred to a man, after eight hours' fighting. This misfortune led to the withdrawal of most of the advanced posts, which, however, got back safely to Monkulla, a fortified suburb of Massowah.

With this warning as to the serious character of the undertaking, the Italian Government continued through the remainder of the year 1887 to send out reinforcements, until it had accumulated at Massowah and the environs a force of 25,000 men, with fifty guns, commanded by Gen. di San Marzano. An attempt of the British to mediate, through a consul who visited the Negus for the purpose, has ignominiously failed, the mediators barely escaping with their lives, and both sides are now preparing for the conflict which seems inevitable. The Italians are in hopes that Ras Alula will gather up the Abyssinian army and come down to the coast to attack them. If he does this, they expect to be able with their advantages of armament and discipline to make short work of him. But if he refuses, and hangs back, and confines himself to cutting off intercourse with the interior, and attacking outposts and convoys, and shutting up the Italians in Massowah, which an Arab proverb compares to "hell" for heat and unhealthiness, then indeed the situation will for Italy become very grave.

As yet Ras Alula has shown no disposition to accommodate the Italians by fighting on the coast. If this state of things should be prolonged, they would have to organize an expedition to reach the high plateau on which the kingdom of Abyssinia lies, through the mountain gorges by which it is on all sides surrounded. What the Abyssinian forces amount to can of course only be guessed at in a vague way. They are supposed to have about 15,000 Remington rifles which Ras Alula has taken from the Egyptians in various encounters, and to have bought as many more. Then they took 500 of the new Weteli rifles from the Italians whom they massacred at Dogali; so that if they can get ammunition, it may be said that they will have about 25,000 well-armed troops. A writer in the London *Daily News*, who accompanied the British expedition under Lord Napier to Magdala in 1868, says that if the Negus could turn out all his fighting men, he would probably muster 100,000 men. But he is not likely to do anything near this. Theodore never was able to get together more than 8,000 to oppose Lord Napier, but it is true that a great many of the local chiefs were hostile to him, and aided the invader with provisions and transport. The best calculations that can be made do not put the force which would oppose the Italian advance, day in and day out, at over 20,000 men. Any reinforcements it might receive would be peasantry armed with spear and shield only. To get to the Abyssinian plateau, which is cool, exceedingly healthy, and well watered, the Italians

would have a march of about one hundred miles, mostly through mountain passes, in which they could be annoyed a good deal, but not seriously impeded. Once on the plateau, they would have only the difficulty of supplies to contend with, but this, it is supposed, would be very serious if the natives were unfriendly. Lord Napier had the good will of the tribes, who were mostly in revolt against Theodore, and were assured that the British would withdraw as soon as the King had been chastised, and he thus had a market in his camp every evening.

The Italians, on the contrary, are believed to have come to stay, and how this would affect their fortunes remains to be seen. They have all the latest "wrinkles" in logistics, their engineers have always been famous, and the troops are excellent. But these Abyssinian tribes have an objection to being conquered or annexed which no invader has ever yet been able to overcome, and it is universally recognized that an attempt to subjugate them and colonize their territory will be a military operation of extraordinary difficulty. The interest in the attempt is, of course, greatly heightened by the position which Italy occupies in the Triple Alliance. If it plainly appeared that the expedition to Abyssinia tied her hands in Europe at a great crisis, the popular demand for its abandonment could hardly be resisted.

ASA GRAY.

THE great botanist whose death took place in Cambridge on Monday last, was born in Paris, Oneida County, N. Y., on November 18, 1810. He received the degree of M.D. at the College of Physicians and Surgeons for the Western District, at Fairfield, in 1831, but he never practised medicine. During, and for a short time after, his medical course, he gave instruction in chemistry and certain branches of natural history in a private school at Utica, most of his attention being devoted to botany and mineralogy.

Correspondence with Dr. John Torrey, then professor of chemistry in New York city, but more widely known as a learned botanist, led him to accept, in 1833, the position of assistant in his chemical laboratory, and, a little later, that of curator in the Lyceum of Natural History. By Dr. Torrey's side, he began a career of ceaseless botanical activity, and while he ever kept up a general interest in the advancement made in the sciences which, before that time, he had been obliged to teach, he was never for a moment diverted from his main purpose by their attractions. His first botanical writings appear to have been (1) a description of certain sedges, and (2) an account of new and interesting plants from the northern and western portions of the State of New York. This was followed in 1835 by the distribution of sets of 'North American Grasses and Sedges,' each set containing one hundred species. Of this work only two volumes were issued. In the following year he published for the use of students 'Elements of Botany,' a work which indicated clearly the range of his acquirements, his maturity of thought, and the peculiar literary excellences of his style. It gave a succinct account of all that was well established at that time in regard to the principles of morphology, histology, and vegetable physiology, as well as of the department in which he always took the greatest interest, botanical classification. But it was far more than a mere digest, such as any good scholar might prepare from the materials accessible in 1835-6. In many instances the young author had ventured to differ from accepted authorities, and he stated his dissenting views with decision and perspicuity. In after years he found that his expressions, uttered when a mere youth, needed comparatively little change, and he was fond of pointing out some of the advanced positions in botany which he had dared to take at that period. The method of the 'Elements' is essentially the same as that adopted in the well-known 'Botanical Text-Book,' published in 1842, and on the same lines have been laid down the larger volumes which form subsequent editions of that work.

About 1836 Dr. Gray began to contribute with regularity to the *American Journal of Science and Arts*, and continued his communications down to the present year. Of this periodical he became assistant editor in 1853, and associate editor in 1871. For half a century he reviewed in the *Journal* every important botanical publication which came into his hands, and put its readers in possession of nearly all the permanent additions made to botany during that time. His critical notices, always discriminating, were of a judicial character, and were felt to be so by those on trial; hence, in case of adverse judgment, those criticised did not cherish resentment. In the pages of the *Journal* appeared annually biographical notices of the botanists who had passed away within the previous year. All these sketches are filled with evidences of the kindest heart. Of these brief biographies of his contemporaries can be said what Darwin said of Asa Gray's letters: "There is always something in them that shows that he is a very lovable man."

In 1835 or 1836, Dr. Gray received the appointment of botanist to the Wilkes exploring expedition, which was supposed to be nearly ready for the South seas. Delay after delay, joined to certain unfortunate changes in the plan of the expedition, rendered the appointment undesirable, and he resigned before the expedition sailed. It would be interesting to speculate as to the result which would have followed the carrying out of his original intention. He would then, as a young man, have been brought face to face with problems which he afterwards did so much to solve when the materials were brought to him by others. While he was waiting for the expedition to sail, he gave all his time to the preparation of a part of the first volume of Torrey and Gray's 'Flora of North America.' About this date he was invited to accept the chair of botany in the University of Michigan. He accepted the appointment as one of its very earliest professors, with the proviso that he might be given a year in Europe for botanical study. This was granted him, and he carried to England a commission from the University to select the nucleus of its library—a duty which was so well discharged that the institution now looks with great pride upon the collection thus made by him. Although he never entered on the office of instruction in the University of Michigan, he always expressed the warmest interest in its welfare. Last summer, at its semi-centennial celebration, the University honored itself by conferring on him its doctorate of laws.

The year in Europe was filled to the full with scientific work in all the larger herbaria. He made at this time the personal acquaintance of the leading botanists of England and the Continent. In any extended notice of Gray's life, the remarkable results of this visit to European herbaria and botanists would necessarily be examined in detail, but it must suffice at this time to say that he returned thoroughly equipped for the task to which he had devoted his life, namely, the examination of the North American flora. He had made himself as familiar as it was possible to do with the type specimens in the older herbaria, brought from the earlier expeditions to America. Work upon the 'Flora' was resumed upon his return. The first volume was completed in 1840, the second in February, 1843.

In 1842 he accepted the newly established Fisher Professorship of Natural History in Harvard University. The late George B. Emerson, during his frequent visits to the Botanic Garden, near the close of his life, was fond of recalling his share in securing the appointment for Dr. Gray. He had himself been offered the chair, but he told the Corporation that "if they wanted the right man, they must look to a young botanist of extraordinary activity in New York; and I have always been prouder of this my choice than of anything else in my life." The position was not particularly attractive. Its occupant would be obliged to take in hand a good amount of teaching, while the appliances for this purpose were very slender. The Botanic Garden was insufficiently supplied with funds, and was a hindrance rather than a help in such work as that with which Dr. Gray was then occupied in New York. Moreover, there was absolutely no herbarium. But Dr. Gray entered on all the duties with zeal, directed the affairs of the Garden, conducted the stated instruction in the most lucid and winning manner, freely offered the hospitality of his study to such students as were anxious to learn more about botany than they could acquire in the formal course of lectures, gathered a vast herbarium, carried on an enormous correspondence with promptness, answered all social demands with unfailing courtesy, and, with all this, found time for three different classes of work. These are: (1) the elaboration of the North American flora, (2) the preparation of a series of educational treatises, (3) popular exposition of scientific questions. To these diverse occupations ought to be added one in which he found a sort of relaxation, but which must have made a serious draft upon his time: first as Secretary and afterwards as President of the American Academy, an institution in which he maintained the sincerest interest to the very last of his life. All these diverse occupations were carried on in the midst of administrative and tutorial cares until 1872, when he was relieved from the duty of teaching and the charge of the Garden. A few years before this he had been so fortunate as to attract to the Herbarium its present Curator, Dr. Sereno Watson, to whose hands can be intrusted safely the completion of the unfinished 'Flora.'

A mere enumeration of the memoirs and other contributions, most of which have been made, of course, tributary to the 'Flora,' need not now be given. The more extensive of these are accounts of the collections of plants made by Fendler, Wright, Thurber, and Lindheimer, part of the botany of various Government surveys, and a portion of the 'Botany of California.' The 'Botany of the Wilkes Expedition' was published in 1854. Five years later Dr. Gray published what he regarded as his most important minor work, 'Relations of the Japanese Flora to those of North America.' In this contribution, based upon studies of plants collected by Wright, he explains the similarity of the floras of eastern North America and Japan, by indicating that they had a common origin at the far north in tertiary times. He was accustomed to say that he believed that that paper had made him better known in the Old World than any other single piece of work. The views expressed in that communication

were then novel; they are now accepted by all naturalists.

The great 'Synoptical Flora,' the work of his life, is more than a revised edition of the Torrey and Gray 'Flora' of forty years ago. As far as published in its proper form, it consists of the Gamopetalous Orders, making a volume of 974 pages. Parts of the rest have already been given to the press in other forms, chiefly in contributions to the Proceedings of the American Academy.

The educational series comprises a long list, which may be roughly classified as follows: First, works for teaching the principles of botany in schools and colleges, such as 'How Plants Grow' (1858), 'How Plants Behave' (1875), 'The Botanical Text-book,' always a favorite work in England; the 'Lessons' (1857), and the new 'Elements' (1887). The first 'Elements,' published in 1836, was the forerunner of the 'Text-Book'; the last, issued during the past year, is a much revised edition of the 'Lessons,' and was designed to accompany local floras. The second class of educational works contains the 'Manual of the Botany of the Northern United States' (1848), of which there have been five editions, and of the latter edition many revised issues; also the 'Field, Forest, and Garden Botany' (1868), a useful flora for schools. Of the influence of the 'Manual' it is unnecessary to speak; it has been the *vade mecum* of all American botanists since its publication. To the third class may be referred an unfinished work, entitled 'The Genera of North America' (1848), in two volumes, illustrated from drawings by Isaac Sprague, whose sketches are found throughout Dr. Gray's works. These volumes, even in their unfinished condition, have been of great use to botanical teachers.

Dr. Gray's expositions of Darwinism and allied philosophical questions are characterized by lucidity and a singular felicity in the choice of words. If his sentences are carefully examined, it will be generally found that it is difficult to replace any important single word by a better one. Many of these papers have been published in the *Nation*, a few in the *Atlantic Monthly*, others in the *American Journal of Science and Arts*, already noticed. Some of these contributions have been republished in a collected form, under the title 'Darwiniana' (1876). For an account of Dr. Gray's relations to Darwin, beginning in 1855, we must turn to the recently published 'Life and Letters of Charles Darwin.' In those pages is portrayed the deep and tender friendship between two of the greatest naturalists of any age. The appreciation felt by Darwin for Asa Gray's criticism is expressed in many of the letters addressed to Sir Joseph Hooker and to Sir Charles Lyell. Only one citation need now be given: "No one, I think, understands the whole case better than Asa Gray" (letter to Lyell in 1860). The important part played by a letter of inquiry addressed by Darwin to Asa Gray in 1857 is familiar to all readers of Darwin's 'Life,' a long and admirable review of which work was Dr. Gray's last contribution to the *Nation*, as a review of the 'Variation of Animals and Plants under Domestication' was his first. Dr. Gray's relations to Darwinism itself are best given in his own words: "I am scientifically, and in my own fashion, a Darwinian, philosophically a convinced theist, and religiously an accepter of the 'creed commonly known as the Nicene,' as the exponent of the Christian faith." His reasons for this position were fully given in a short course of lectures before the Theological School of Yale (1880).

Two years ago, a surprise was planned for Dr. Gray's seventy-fifth birthday. It had been agreed that on that morning he should receive notes of congratulation from every American botanist, old and young. The notes were accompanied by a vase of silver, on which were embossed figures of the plants more particularly identified with his name or studies. It was delightful to witness his childlike pleasure as he received the gift. Among the letters were some from others than botanists. The following lines came from Mr. Lowell:

> "Just fate, prolong his life, well spent,
> Whose indefatigable hours
> Have been as gayly innocent
> And fragrant as his flowers."

Dr. Gray's last year had been one of peculiar happiness. Early in the spring he made a voyage to Europe, and, in company with Mrs. Gray, made a round of visits upon old and new friends. His activity is described as marvellous. On his return in October there were no marked indications that his useful and beautiful life was drawing to its close. He maintained his interest in recent questions, and engaged at once in the work of the 'Flora.' Even to the last month he carried with him the cheery manner and the winning smile which made him a welcome guest everywhere, and at all times. He continued to answer every demand upon his energies. His answers to the younger botanists were as patient as ever, and all looked for a few years more of his wise counsel. It was hoped that his journey, which had been crowned by the highest scientific honors and gladdened by the renewal of old friendships, might have strengthened him for a few years more of work. On his desk there remains the nearly completed revision of the 'Vitaceæ, or Grapevines, of North America.' On his writing-table there is left the unfinished necrology of the past year, which must now be closed by another hand; but no touch delineating character and scientific achievement can be as tender or as true as that of the master who has gone to his well-earned rest.

THE OPENING YEAR IN IRELAND.

DUBLIN, January 14, 1888.

WILFRID S. BLUNT is an English gentleman of wealth, culture, and high character, whose devoted wife, Lady Anne Blunt, is granddaughter of Lord Byron. He first came prominently before the public a few years ago as the defender of Arabi Pasha after the bombardment of Alexandria. But for his exertions, the disgrace of the Egyptian patriot's execution would now rest upon the United Kingdom. Belonging to the class least sympathetic with Ireland, that is, the aristocratic English Catholics, he was yet impelled by his strong love of freedom and justice to consider her condition. He travelled over the country, and has latterly become a warm advocate of home rule and a bitter opponent of the Government policy. He is now, as a common malefactor in prison dress, picking oakum in Galway jail. The circumstances attending his conviction are so illustrative of the methods of the Irish administration that I may be pardoned for stating them at some length.

The baronies in Clare and Galway, surrounding Loughrea, Portumna, and Woodford, and stretching west from the shores of Lough Derg, have long been the most disturbed districts in Ireland. There have occurred the worst instances of landlord exaction. It was so nine years ago, at the inception of the agitation, when, according to a classic Land League ditty, known all the world over in Irish circles, Murty Hynes "lived in ould Loughrea." It is so to-day, when, according to Mr. Shaw Lefevre, nearly every peasant met in the district had been in prison, was going to prison, or had relations in prison. The worst rack-renter has been the Marquis of Clanricarde, a heartless usurer, who has not visited his estates for some twenty years (not even coming over to the funeral of his own mother), who has refused all concessions, and who upon a late occasion dismissed an agent primarily for forwarding to him a respectful memorial from his tenants. His conduct even an Irish judge of one of the superior courts the other day declared had "aroused the indignation of the empire." Upon the side of this man all the authority of the Crown is at present ranged; against him all the spirit of the country. To silence those who went down to stand by the people, the League and its meetings have been suppressed in the district. Upon the 16th of October Mr. O'Brien and others eluded the vigilance of the police, the telegraphic wires were cut, and they held by torchlight a midnight meeting at Woodford, at which the Lord Lieutenant's proclamation was burned and very strong language used. The half-dozen policemen in the town were powerless to interfere, and were preserved from any molestation by some of the chief actors. Mr. O'Brien vigorously denounced crime ("Let there be no crime and no surrender"), and the most perfect order prevailed. Mr. Blunt spoke at this meeting. Every one present laid himself open to six months' imprisonment with hard labor; but when a few weeks passed and no prosecutions ensued, it was believed that the Government saw the impracticability of imprisoning all the inhabitants of Woodford.

But if the National League was proclaimed, others felt they were free to express their opinions. The English Home-Rule Union has been in existence for some years. It advocates home rule for Ireland; and while occasionally taking upon itself to advise the Irish people, it studiously holds aloof from countenancing the plan of campaign and other methods of the Nationalists. In autumn, several members of this Union were in Ireland, and they advertised a meeting at Woodford on Sunday, October 23, at which there were to be none but English speakers. This meeting was proclaimed by the Castle, although, as Divisional Magistrate Byrne, who suppressed it, afterwards declared in evidence, "I have no reason to doubt they would have counselled the people to patience and endurance"; adding, somewhat inconsistently, "I believe that though the speeches of those English gentlemen were to counsel the people to abstain from all crime and outrage and violence, the effect of the meeting would be to induce violence." Mr. Blunt and his English friends determined to protest, and informed the police of their intention. They ascended the platform, which had been erected before it was known that the meeting would be proclaimed. The police swept them off. Mr. Blunt resisted and was arrested. At Woodford on the 27th of October, for this offence he was sentenced by the police magistrate to two months' imprisonment. He appealed to the next Quarter Sessions, and it was widely believed the appeal would be successful, that the English Home-Rule Union had as much right to meet at Woodford as in Surrey, that all liberty of speech was at an end if the Castle of its own motion, without reference to magistrates (even police magistrates), could suppress the meeting of any association in any part of the country. The Crown refused to produce the depositions of the magistrates, if any, and the Divisional Magistrate admitted: "I want to explain that I never was left discretionary powers with regard either to preventing a meeting or dispersing a meeting." Mr. Blunt was convicted sole-

ly and altogether because of his action at this meeting of October 23.

The appeal could not be heard for more than two months. Some six or seven weeks after the midnight meeting of October 16, and when it was supposed to have been passed over (retribution by the Government being usually prompt), the public was surprised at a number of persons being arrested for participation on that occasion. They appeared taken somewhat at haphazard. Among others, a Mr. John Roche, who was chiefly instrumental in preserving good order, was tried, convicted, and sent to jail for some weeks. "He behaved well, and made way for the police through the crowd," said one of the police witnesses. Mr. Blunt's appeal came on for hearing at Portumna last week, before County Court Judge Henn, who, it is said, for the past twenty years in his rounds has been the guest of Lord Clanricarde's representatives at one of his residences in the neighborhood. A strong bar was engaged on both sides, numerous English visitors (Shaw Lefevre, and others) were present, and the deepest interest was shown in the proceedings. How could the Government, in the face of British public opinion, sustain such a case? They proved themselves equal to the emergency.

> "For ways that are dark,
> And for tricks that are vain,
> The heathen Chinee is peculiar."

The moment the Crown case opened, the reasons of the unexpected prosecutions for the midnight meeting were evident. They were to be used against Mr. Blunt. The depositions at Mr. Blunt's trial were not even put forward, and, after some becoming hesitation and against the indignant protestations of his counsel, the Judge admitted as evidence in the case the proceedings at the midnight meeting of the 16th and the consequent convictions. The rest was easy for the Crown. Judge Henn confirmed the sentence. The animus shown in his judgment was so extraordinary that no wonder "murmurs of astonishment were heard through the court when the Judge had concluded," or that the *Daily News* should write:

"Immediately Mr. Henn remarked that when Mr. O'Brien said, 'Commit no crime,' he meant 'Commit crime,' that putting a match to a document from Dublin Castle was 'an act of insurrection,' and that Mr. Blunt in not protesting against Mr. O'Brien's speech was guilty of having uttered it. We need not waste words over such trash, repugnant alike to law, to equity, and to common sense. Mr. Blunt has been condemned on testimony which the members of a drumhead court-martial who respected themselves, would have repudiated with scorn. The Coercion Act gives the Lord Lieutenant no more power to interfere with public meetings not being meetings of the League in districts where the League has been suppressed, than he had before. It was as legitimate and peaceful an assembly of law-abiding citizens as has ever been held in any country."

An English member of Parliament who was present told me he was much struck by an incident illustrative of the Crown tactics which was not reported. Before Mr. Blunt's appeal came on, the Crown lawyers endeavored to introduce out of rotation several cases of resistance to eviction among Lord Clanricarde's tenantry, so as to influence the mind of the Judge regarding the condition of the district. Foiled in this, they managed before Mr. Henn considered his judgment to mention the particulars of these cases in considering the arrangement of the future business before the sessions. Mr. Blunt is in Galway jail picking oakum. A public subscription is being forwarded to carry the case by means of civil action against the police who obstructed his meeting.

This and other instances constantly occurring here show the necessity a government is under—once having entered upon despotic action—of sacrificing all liberty. Effective discrimination seems nearly impossible, as it became in the United States in the effort to restrain slavery before the war. Nor is it possible for the Government to consistently administer the law all round, which would appear to be the only true policy under such circumstances. The law is strained one way against the people, in the other in favor of (or set aside as regarding) officials. There were most disgraceful instances of this tendency during Earl Spencer's Government. There is a fatality in a coercive régime that carries with it disgrace to the purest-minded administrators.

Mr. Balfour's contention before English audiences, that the police magistrates, by whom alone cases under the Coercion Act can be tried, stand indifferent between the people and the Executive, is belied by every-day facts. These magistrates are appointed to hold office at the discretion of the Castle. They constantly come up for consultation with the head officials. If they get into any legal difficulty, they are defended by an array of Crown lawyers. Last Thursday the Court of Appeal presented the spectacle of Lord Ashbourne (as Lord Chancellor) sitting in judgment on a case arising out of the prosecution of a news-vender under the Coercion Act, he being one of the chief advisers and pillars of the present Government in Ireland. Beside him sat Mr. Justice Fitzgibbon, with whom Mr. Balfour spent his Christmas holidays.

Two recent cases strikingly illustrate all this. Informations at the suit of some little girls for criminal assault were, about ten days ago, sworn before the Mayor of Cork against a high official, an ex-military officer; but the police have as yet declined to act upon them. Again, after an execution last Tuesday the coroner's jury exercised their statutable right of demanding the presence of the executioner. He had been spirited away by the detectives, and no effort has been made to execute the Coroner's warrant for his appearance. The Coroner declined to give an order for the burial of the remains until the executioner was produced; the Crown evaded the difficulty by procuring a special permit for interment from the Lord Lieutenant. The true policy of the Government would appear to take every opportunity of conciliation within the law, but the contrary policy (one of unnecessary exasperation) seems to be deliberately adopted by Mr. Balfour. The Lord Mayor of Dublin was ordered by his judge to be imprisoned as a "first-class misdemeanant." He is at once hurried privately, one cold winter's morning, from Dublin to Tullamore, so as to be out of the reach of the visits of his family and friends. Mr. Sheehy, M.P., has been confined as a common malefactor. While yet some weeks of his sentence are unexpired, he is brought up on another charge under the Crimes Act, before another judge, who, shocked at his appearance and what he had gone through, in sentencing him to a further term, directed he should be treated as a "first-class misdemeanant," involving the right to see his friends, supply his own clothes and diet. The Government persist in considering him in the overlapping time as a malefactor, the only change hitherto in his treatment being the substitution of a chair for a three-legged stool in his cell.

Extraordinary convictions are taking place—shopkeepers for refusing to supply goods, even in cases where it was proved that the parties denied were not ordinary customers; smiths for refusing to shoe horses under similar circumstances; news-venders for selling newspapers. Mr. Corcoran, foreman printer of the Cork *Examiner*, has been sentenced to two months' imprisonment (a month each for two publications, so as to prevent the right of appeal which one conviction for two months would involve), because the Cork *Examiner* published reports of proceedings of suppressed branches of the League; and this although Mr. Crosbie, son of the editor, who is himself abroad in poor health, assumed the full onus, and declared that Mr. Corcoran was in no way responsible for the contents of the paper. Then we have the case of Mr. T. Harrington. He is Secretary of the National League and one of Mr. Balfour's most formidable opponents. He has been sentenced to six weeks' imprisonment, on the technical plea that he is registered as joint owner with his brother Edward, also an M.P., who has just undergone several weeks' imprisonment for publishing in his paper, the *Kerry Sentinel*, reports of suppressed branches of the League; and this notwithstanding proof that Mr. T. Harrington has had nothing to do with the paper for years, that his partnership in it was long ago dissolved, and that his conviction rests solely upon the mistake of a clerk in filling up the registration certificate required from newspaper proprietors by the Post-office.

With all these doings the ascendency class are more than ever gratified and satisfied. "Stick to it, stick to it, stick to it, my lad," 's the Christmas card of the Dublin *Union* newspaper to Mr. Balfour, and at several meetings of the Landlord party the warmest approval is expressed of his action. The *Reflector*, a new "Unionist" organ, commences a leader to-day with: "The Chief Secretary to the Lord Lieutenant of Ireland is probably, with one exception, the most popular English politician now living." Yet signs are not wanting that numbers of the middle and upper classes, whose interests are not directly bound up with land, are awaking to the gravity of the situation and the necessity of terminating this ruinous and demoralizing policy of brute force as against public opinion. The approaching visit of Lord Ripon and Mr. Morley will afford an opportunity for the expression of these convictions. I am myself surprised at the number of men of character and position who, hitherto holding themselves entirely aloof from politics, and consequently having hitherto been counted among "Unionists," entering their names on the "Reception Committee," as I am surprised also at the number of those who, holding the strongest views in opposition to the Administration, still feel justified, from selfish motives, in withholding all public expression of their opinions. Some of the present transition, especially among lawyers, is doubtless due to ulterior personal considerations, but it is not less striking on that account.

If anything were wanting to justify in the main the Parnell movement, it would be the long list of reductions of rents confirmed on appeal which have lately been given to the public, generally averaging about 33 per cent. Such reductions may tend to mollify the tenantry, but they are not very likely to detach them from the leaders through whose exertions and sufferings alone such substantial concessions have been obtained.

But for the length to which this letter has already run, I should like to refer in detail to the late charge of Judge Waters to the Grand Jury of Waterford, in which he comments upon the general absence of crime in the county as well before as since the passage of the Crimes Bill, the favorable comparison of Irish with English criminal statistics, and the average inclination of Irish juries upon proper evidence to agree to verdicts.

D. B.

Correspondence.

THE SALOON IN KANSAS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your paper of January 12 you refer to Kansas in your article on "Successful Anti-Liquor Laws" as no more successful than Iowa and Vermont "in keeping saloons closed." If by saloons you mean the usual open saloon where liquor is sold, you are mistaken as to Kansas in general. There may be on the frontier, in new and lawless neighborhoods, and in one or two of the largest places in the State—like Wichita or Leavenworth, places of 30,000 and 25,000 respectively—and possibly in Kansas City, Kansas, open saloons; but not elsewhere in the State, or my information and observation are at fault. Indeed, I think the success here in closing the saloons is wonderful, and it is owing, it seems to me, to several causes—not the least of which, probably, is the fact that there is no city of more than 30,000 population, and only three of more than 15,000. Then the foreign-born population is small, and the people are agricultural, and the mining population is small, only a few hundred in any locality.

This does not mean that liquor is not to be had by those seeking it; the fact is, that one can probably purchase it in nearly every place in the State of any size, and it is constantly shipped into the State by the dealers in Kansas City and St. Joseph, and many drug stores supply it. But the use of it has greatly fallen off, and public sentiment has grown more and more favorable to prohibition, or at least to having saloons closed.

I am not a prohibitionist in the ordinary sense, though a temperance man, and I was not in favor of the experiment in Kansas; nor would I favor the same experiment in any State upon the basis of merely a majority of the votes in favor of it. But I think the prohibitionist may properly claim the movement in Kansas as thus far a great success. This fact, as I think it is, does not militate against the soundness of your reasoning in your article referred to. With a few cities of 50,000 or more in our midst, the situation in Kansas would be, probably, very decidedly changed.

Edward Russell.

Lawrence, Kas., January 20, 1888.

THE OTHER SIDE OF HIGH LICENSE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your article on high license in No. 1176, by giving only one side of the matter, gives too favorable a view. There is another side of a very different sort, and it is one that gives very serious concern to many even of those who think that the general results of high license, in great cities and some States, are better than prohibition has thus far secured on the same ground. The principal sources of evil are two:

(1.) There are some villages, and even large towns and counties, in which prohibition is perfectly feasible, and has been successfully worked in the past, but in which the greed for large license fees, with the resulting reduction of taxation, has broken down the majority for exclusion and caused the licensing of a saloon or two or more. But saloons are peculiarly mischievous when first opened in a place in which the young have not grown up face to face with their evils; during the time that is necessary to educate and array public sentiment against them, they do a deadly work.

(2.) In many places the sudden discovery of the possibilities of revenue from high license has produced a craze for the reduction of taxation in this way. Hence has arisen the desire to license as many saloons as possible, that the annual question, "What is the tax rate this year?" may be answered in a gratifying manner. But there is a limit to the profits even of the liquor business, especially when the first act of the year is the payment of $500 or $1,000 into the city treasury, and the second is the payment of a heavy Government tax. There has been under high license very generally a falling off in the number of applications for license in the second and even in the third year, the old set being slow to give up. But fewer licenses means more taxation or a stopping of the public improvements that the flood of license-money permitted. Out of this state of things naturally grows a disposition to give the saloon-keeper more range, more sources and opportunities of trade, than the law allows; that is, to wink at the sale of liquor to minors and habitual drunkards, to try not to see the people sneaking in at the back door at midnight or on Sunday, to tolerate gambling in or in connection with saloons, and even to refuse point-blank to take away the licenses of those who have been convicted in the courts of violating the restrictions of the license. In some towns, and in all towns by some people, it is freely said that "the fine is punishment enough," and that "we must not be too strict with them or they will throw up their license." The goose lays a golden egg, and must under no provocation be killed.

How great the demoralization is that is thus produced, only those can realize who have tried, while participating in government, to persuade their fellow-officials to be strict. Perhaps the evil will grow less with time; that is what we are waiting to find out. Until things begin to better and have bettered very much, we cannot share very heartily the satisfaction that you feel. The thing that grows upon us is the conviction that the saloon is an intolerable pest.

H. M. Whitney.

Beloit, Wis., January 24, 1888.

THE TOBACCO TAX.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I am glad to see journals like the *Nation* advocating a repeal of the revenue taxes on tobacco. The question must now be respected by all fair-minded men, and the Congressman who shall become the champion of a measure for the repeal of these taxes will earn the lasting gratitude of the people of this country from one end to the other. The amount of money actually collected by the Government as taxes on tobacco, though objectionable, is less ruinous than the iron-clad regulations necessarily thrown around the tobacco business. The complications of the law are so mazy, the bonds required are so heavy, and the penalties for violation of the law so severe—ranging in fines of from $100 to $20,000, and always accompanied with imprisonment for from six months to five years—that both the production and manufacture have been driven into comparatively few hands. The few manufacturers, especially, who have thus been placed in the position of monopolists have almost all grown immensely rich, and will now fight to have the law retained, not for the pleasure of paying the taxes, but for the advantage of the monopoly which it guarantees them. There are thus no licensed dealers in the small towns, and the farmer must raise sufficient to make up the regulation case or hogshead, so as not to be classed as a retail dealer, and ship a long distance to the city. Here only the large producers stand any show at all, the small shipments being little better than confiscated.

Thus, as above stated, all but comparatively few producers have been driven from the field, and the area of production is greatly restricted geographically. In the meantime, consumption has not materially decreased, and the erstwhile producer is still a consumer; and not only he, but all those whom his surplus crop would naturally have supplied, must buy from the aforesaid monopolists.

The law has fallen with peculiar hardship upon a very numerous class of small farmers, who are the most helpless of any class of men in the world under such circumstances. Not only do they submit, but their voices seem never or but feebly to be heard. A farm which will not support a family by raising grain once maintained them in comfort and gave honest employment to all its members by raising tobacco. Their old barns may be seen abandoned and rotting down in some parts of the country to-day. Land which would be valuable is worthless. Homes which might be united and happy are early scattered in poverty and ignorance. Thus have I myself seen prosperity depart from a community, and I have only sacrificed details to brevity in this letter.

Perhaps tobacco is a luxury. Anything better than corn-bread and bacon would be considered as such by many of these farmers. But what a delightful luxury must be the piling up of millions of dollars through the advantages of a close monopoly, even though we know that those who have a natural right to share in those millions are shivering and hungry in another part of the country.

W. M. H.

St. Louis, January 18, 1888.

COEDUCATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Everybody knows that extraordinary conclusions can be deduced from statistics if one sets about it with that intent, but your correspondent on the subject of coeducation has certainly surpassed all former records in that line. Let us examine his argument. He concludes:

(1.) *That women prefer colleges open only to women.* The New England colleges open to both sexes, from which this conclusion is drawn, are Bates, Boston, Colby, and Wesleyan. They are all either very small, or very denominational, or both. That they have fewer women students than the colleges open to women only may be accounted for by the fact that women prefer the best and most richly endowed of the colleges that are accessible to them. It is impossible to find out what Eastern women think about coeducation until the great Eastern colleges are open to them on the same terms as to men.

(2.) *That the necessity does not exist of admitting female students to colleges heretofore reserved for men.* What *necessity* ever existed for admitting women to any colleges? It was not pretended that they would commit harakiri if they continued to be denied the higher education, but it was maintained that it would be wholly to the advantage both of the whole race and of their half of it if they were to be made free of the best education attainable. So long as Harvard and the Johns Hopkins University offer better facilities for getting at the heights and depths of learning than the smaller colleges do, women cannot give themselves up to the contented enjoyment of what they have

got, although they like what they have got very much better than nothing at all.

(3.) *That in the eastern section of the country collegiate coeducation will not be extended.* It is impossible to see what ground your correspondent's figures give for this conclusion. The data are not sufficient to enable one to lay down the curve of rapidity of extension, and to show that it has already reached its asymptotic form; they have, in fact, no bearing whatever upon the question.

(4.) *That colleges limited to one sex enjoy a remarkable degree of prosperity.* This conclusion is the most interesting of all, and I have therefore reserved it for the last. Its ground is, that the five large New England colleges have not yet admitted women, and that they have not on that account *been reduced to small colleges.* The aggregate number of students at Yale, Amherst, Harvard, Williams, and Dartmouth for 1874 and 1884 were 2,418 and 2,948 respectively—that is, they showed an increase of 22 per cent. At the four small colleges named above which admit women, the increase was from 343 to 621, or 81 per cent.—that is, nearly four times as much. These figures would show, if they showed anything, that to admit women is to cause a *nearly four-fold more rapid increase in the number of students of a college than would otherwise take place*—a very satisfactory result for the friends of coeducation. That the women's colleges have been prosperous does not show, as we have pointed out before, that separateness is a cause of prosperity, for there are no mixed colleges of the same rank and character with which to compare them. In spite of that fact, however, the rate of increase of women at mixed colleges has been 221 per cent., and at separate colleges only 296 per cent.

The colleges of the West, your correspondent states, are overwhelmingly coeducational, and he says that it is hard to draw conclusions from them. It is true that it would be a little harder to draw from them the *same* conclusions which he draws from the statistics of Eastern colleges, but *some* conclusions it would not be difficult to draw, and, in fact, President Angell of Michigan University draws some highly interesting ones on the very next page of the *Nation* to that on which your correspondent's letter occurs.

We proceed to show that these same tables of statistics, if skilfully handled, may be made to yield another conclusion, more interesting and quite as sound as those to which your correspondent has been led. Counting Vassar as a New England college (this is necessary, because otherwise no comparison is possible, and it is admissible on account of the large number of non-New England men who go to the great New England colleges), the rate of increase in the women's colleges per decade has been 296 per cent., and in the men's colleges, taking the five great ones as a standard, it has been 22 per cent. If this state of things continues ("And how," said a workingman to me the other day, "do you judge of the future, if not by the past?"), then in another decade the large colleges will contain more women than men, and in another twenty years there will be, roughly speaking, four times as many New England women as men who are receiving a college education. This conclusion, reckless as it is, need not appear so very startling, for there are already, in the whole country, four times as many girls as boys who finish the high-school course.

CHRISTINE LADD FRANKLIN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Being "interested in the progress of coeducation"—at least in all advanced post-graduate lines of work and study—I have followed the advice given by Mr. William A. Merrill of College Hill, Ohio, in his letter to the *Nation*, in its issue of January 19, and have examined the tables referred to "from the reports of the Commissioner of Education for 1874 and 1884-'85," and also the last published report of the Education Bureau, that of 1885-'86.

Without intending to accuse Mr. Merrill of special pleading, it seems to me that some of his "conclusions," as summarized in the letter, are hardly supported by the more detailed tables from which he made up his abridged ones, or by the statistics of "secondary education," to which educational strata, by the by, many of the institutions entered under the head of "Universities and Colleges" really belong. Personally, my prejudices are opposed to coeducation except in kindergartens and universities; but the people of the United States seem inclined to steadily extend its field in spite of such prejudices.

In an article on "Secondary Instruction" (page 359, Report of Commissioner of Education, 1885-'86), the Commissioner says:

"In eighteen States and three Territories reported in 1884-'85, coeducation was a feature of three-quarters or more of the schools under consideration; in nine States and four Territories it was a feature of one-half the schools, or less than one-half; and in eleven States the coeducation schools numbered between one-half and three-quarters of the whole. It is therefore evident that there is no settled prejudice against coeducation among those classes in the United States who are able and willing to prolong the education of their children beyond the elementary stage."

In 1876, of the 356 institutions classed as "Universities and Colleges," 140 report women students; in 1885-'86, of the 346 reporting under this head, 190 admitted women. Of the 26 new institutions of this character established in the 10 years between 1876 and 1886, 19 were coeducational. In 1876, about 6,000 women were "reported" as attending coeducational "colleges and universities"; in 1886 this number had increased to nearly 8,000, and is really considerably greater, as a number of institutions which had reported their male and female students separately in 1876, in 1886 merely reported the total number.

The tables and reports are all imperfect, one college leaving this question unanswered, another that; but the general trend of their evidence leads me to somewhat different conclusions from those suggested by your correspondent.

(I.) That *all* colleges, either limited to one sex or coeducational, where well-equipped and well-officered, "show a remarkable degree of prosperity," and that this increase is not *proportionately* greater in "colleges limited to one sex," for "a consideration of the several classes under which colleges and universities of the United States may be presented will, it is hoped, suffice to show that superior instruction in this country is rapidly assuming definite character as regards both its instruments and its purposes. As the process goes on, pretentious institutions are naturally overborne and finally disappear, while those that 'have a name to endure' strike their roots deeper and deeper into the community" (see Report, 1885-'86, p. 461).

(II.) That women, like men, prefer those colleges which supply with least expense their special needs most agreeably. To thousands of women this is done acceptably by coeducational institutions. Others prefer colleges exclusively for women, and these latter seem to be patronized by two classes of students: (1.) the daughters of parents who prefer to send, during undergraduate years of study, young and inexperienced girls to colleges *under the direction of women;* (2) students who, being financially able to choose, pass by second-rate coeducational institutions for first-class women's colleges. The most thriving women's colleges are at the East, where coeducational ones equally good are rare.

In this connection, mention may be made of a recent statistical statement in a report to the Association of Collegiate Alumnæ, in regard to the occupations of women college graduates. Of the twelve colleges from which those so classified had graduated, nine were coeducational, and of these nine seven had admitted women since 1870.

(III.) That, throughout the country, the coeducational colleges under denominational control, such as Oberlin, Hillsdale, Milton, Leland University, etc., have steadily thriven, showing no change of opinion among a large body of conservative people in regard to coeducation.

(IV.) "That the necessity" *does* "exist of admitting female students to the higher institutions of learning heretofore reserved for men," because only in these universities can post-graduate, professional, or "special" female students secure the advantages they crave and are preparing for. Furthermore, that the growth of liberal opinion favors the extension of the advantages of our great universities to women, and that "in the eastern section of the country collegiate coeducation *will* be extended."

Mr. Merrill mentions Harvard Annex as though it were a protest against coeducation; it certainly cannot be so regarded—although it may be a foreshadowing of one of the forms which coeducation is to take. The Harvard Annex is not a college for women in the sense in which Wellesley and Bryn Mawr are women's colleges. "The original object was not to build up a college for women, . . . but . . . simply to repeat for women the collegiate instruction that was already provided for men by Harvard College. Its instruction is given exclusively by professors and other instructors of Harvard." (Report for 1887.) The steady increase in the number of its students (this year ninety) is the best reply to those who assert that it is "unnecessary" to offer women the advantages of our older universities. The very increase in the number of women collegiate students, and of "institutions for the higher instruction of women," is a reason for opening to women the best equipped and endowed universities, so that they may as women continue most advantageously the studies begun as girls in high schools and colleges, coeducational or otherwise, or under private tuition.

Within the past year, several cases have come to the writer's knowledge where young women of ability and professional position have been refused admission to special courses at Johns Hopkins, only because they were women. "We are very sorry, but the trustees have so voted." One of these applicants was a teacher who wished to increase her usefulness by attending Prof. Hall's lectures on Psychology, specially designed for teachers; another was a young physician, anxious to carry on her pathological studies under Prof. Welch. Such applications are only heard of accidentally, but there is a steadily increasing sympathy with them when known.

When Columbia College grudgingly offered fairly generous opportunities for study and a conservative "certificate" for women, the entering wedge was driven which assures for women finally university training. The change may come slowly, but figures (Columbia has

thirteen women students this year, and a much larger number in the School of Library Economy), reason, generosity, justice, all urge that women shall be permitted to train their minds under the same august supervision which polishes and moulds those of their fathers, husbands, brothers, and sons.

Public opinion in educational matters is shown most surely in private and individual action. Therefore it may fairly be assumed that as long as the number of students in the average coeducational high school and college steadily increases, so the pressure will increase against the doors of our highest institutions of learning, until they too are opened, under limitations if you please, to the female graduates of any school or college, coeducational or otherwise, which properly prepares them to enter the more learned precincts of Harvard, Yale, Columbia, Princeton, Johns Hopkins, etc.

C. B.

Baltimore, January 29, 1888.

CRIMINAL POSING AMONG THE GERMANS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your note in the last number of the *Nation* upon the career and trial of the thieving postman, Zalewski, which was related in the November number of *Nord und Süd*, you refer to the reason Mr. Gross assigns for the offence, *i. e.*, an ambition "to be the hero of what we call a 'dime novel.'" This assumption by Germans of a trite explanation of the most notorious and hideous criminal offences among their people is one singularly weak and unreasoning, it has struck me, and, moreover, reflective of an inherent, silly vanity and moral obtuseness which other nations, I feel sure, would hesitate to ascribe to them. And the desire "to be a hero," a hero in crime, seems to be the constantly recurring reason assigned by individuals of every class for most heinous offences.

A maid subserving in the household of the Prince of Lippe-Detmold threw herself into a mill-pond. I asked her friend Louisa, who waited upon me, the cause: "*Ach!* she would like to have people talk about her." A young man who regularly walked the opposite pavement, and smoked his after-breakfast pipe, disappeared. After a day or two, we heard he had made away with himself in Hanover, and willed his body to the dissectors. "He wanted people to talk him over," said the grandmother of one household; "and he had debts, too." In turning over an album I met the pictures of two fine-looking boys of about twelve and fourteen years of age. Their young lady cousin, a schoolmistress, explained that they were dead, having planned together an awful taking-off. After watching for weeks for an opportunity to accomplish their plan, they were left alone one summer night in a country-house. The older made away with the younger, and then with himself. When I asked the reason, there came the unfailing reply: "They would be heroes and have the world talk of them." A kinsman of a Westphalian went to Paris, hired a box at the opera, and in the midst of the gayest scene shot himself through the head. "But why?" I questioned. "*Ach!* he would be talked about," was the reply. In the autumn of 1882 a postman in Berlin murdered a man, and concealed his tracks with utmost cunning. "What was the cause of the act?" I asked a Berlin professor. "He wanted to be a hero," the professor answered; "he was thinking of the fellow (Kerl) down in Vienna who did the same thing last year for the same reason." I remember that certain Berlin papers assigned a like cause for the act.

Can this morbid desire of posing, ascribed by the Germans themselves in the instances above cited—this wish of being in the mouths of people—be at the root of many crimes in Germany? With the Germans, we sometimes attribute the tendency to suicide in their country to a selfish over-sentimentalism, a mania of egoism. Shall we also follow them in lightly reasoning that many other unexplained crimes against life and property in their country are to be referred to the same cause?—Respectfully, K. S.

Cambridge, Mass., January 23, 1888.

"GALEOTTO."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It is a very clear analysis and a very trenchant criticism which "B. P." gives of Echegaray's 'Galeotto.' Incontestably, whatever may be its other literary and dramatic merits, its epilogue is miserably lame and impotent—what is more, is as far from realism as idealism ever dare be. Why, then, are not common sense and artistic sense at once revolted? What is there in this passionate cry of the South to catch the cold, critical ear of the North? On what strong wings is the poet's fame uplifted in its flight "past the Pyrenean pines"?

Surely, the strength of the play must not be sought in the nerveless commonplace that it is very wicked to gossip; nor can it be found in the questionable doctrine that you can make white dark by calling it black. The one is true, but not new; the other new, but not true. But has not the poet after all "builded better than he knew"? Is not the intense human interest of the play, which alone can make it "strong" or popular with the cultured, in fact rooted in our irresistible sympathy with two lovers? Was not Galeotto, was not the "book," really right? Assuredly, in the old tales, the luckless pairs were all along the intensest lovers. Perfectly innocent, perfectly unconscious, they might have been, until the touch of a hand, the glance of an eye, closed the electric circuit, and their quivering natures leaped together in flame. The poet, strive as he may, cannot wrest man away from nature. Gossip, after all, was right. At least, the human heart supplies the defects of the poet's imagination, and rejoices all the more in the love of *Ernst* and *Julie* because the weight of nobility in their souls suppressed it into unconsciousness.

The ultimate motive of this tragedy is, then, it would seem, not different from that of the early Greek drama: it is the strife of man with destiny; or, rather, it is the battle in and around man of the powers above. Here it is the god of love quelled by the god of hospitality. Gossip is at best but an armor-bearer in the fray. William Benjamin Smith.

University of Missouri, January 22, 1888.

THE TRAINING OF THE HUMAN MIND.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Let us settle our facts first and draw our conclusions afterwards. My facts are, first, that Charles Darwin received a strict, rigid, or, if you please, narrow classical education extending through school and college; second, that his working mind evinced the keenest observation, the deepest reasoning, the most patient research, the most careful deduction. Who is the correspondent that will controvert either the one or the other of these facts? If any would, I respectfully tell him that the only effective way for him to overthrow my facts will be for him to produce a naturalist, philosopher, or scientist who, having been trained in early life by means of a scientific or optional system of education, developed in after life a better working mind than Mr. Darwin's. Who is that naturalist, philosopher, or scientist, and where was he educated?

Your correspondent "X." (*Nation*, January 26, 1888, p. 73) says, in substance, that nothing could have been worse for *his*, Mr. Darwin's, mind than this narrow classical education. I respectfully deny the asserted fact. We are now dealing with the reasoning and observing faculties of the human mind; and, in the endeavor to get at the *facts*, I call upon "X." to produce instances where the observing faculty of Darwin brought him false information, or where his reasoning power dwindled away in shallow inferences. In the law it is necessary to establish the *corpus delicti* first—to show that somebody was killed before you can try somebody else for killing him. For the same logical reason, I want it first established wherein the working mind of Darwin was defective—instances where his observation was not wide enough or close enough—instances where his reasoning was illogical or inconclusive—instances where another mind, educated in another way, has, under like conditions and dealing with like material, done better. When we have such facts before us, we can intelligently inquire as to their causes.

In the meantime, I shall reiterate that the evidence now before us indicates that a strict, rigid, or even narrow classical education furnishes the best possible training for the working mind of the future naturalist.—Respectfully, etc., etc., C. C. N.

Washington, January 27, 1888.

Notes.

'Uncle Sam at Home,' by an English resident in the United States, whose humorous views of our social, political, and financial being will be seasoned with pictorial illustrations, is shortly to be published by Henry Holt & Co.

Ticknor & Co., Boston, will make a volume of the Mendelssohn-Moscheles correspondence exemplified in the February *Scribner's*. They announce also 'The Ethics of Boxing and Manly Sport,' by John Boyle O'Reilly; and 'Harvard Reminiscences,' by the Rev. A. P. Peabody, with a portrait of the author.

Chas. Scribner's Sons have in press 'Society in Rome under the Cæsars,' by William Ralph Inge, M.A.

'American Fishes,' a popular treatise on the Game and Food Fishes of America, with special reference to habits and modes of capture, by Prof. C. Brown Goode, U. S. Commissioner of Fish and Fisheries, will be brought out in March as a subscription work by the Standard Book Co. of this city.

The next publication of the Dunlap Society—the second of the Society's second year—is a 'Life of Thomas A. Cooper,' by Mr. Joseph N. Ireland, now printing at the De Vinne Press. It will have for a frontispiece a reproduction of a rare portrait of the actor who stood at the head of the American stage for many years.

To the "Knickerbocker Nuggets" series (Putnams) have been added Lord Chesterfield's 'Letters, Sentences, and Maxims,' with Sainte-Beuve's critical essay on this writer prefixed in an English form; and 'The Adventures of Baron Munchausen,' compiled from the original English edition (taken over bodily), the near-

est German edition, and from the English sequel, and with a few illustrations interspersed.

Dr. Smiles's 'Life and Labor' (Harpers), like others of his well-known works, is a perfect repertory of anecdotes of noted men and women of all times. These are grouped under various headings, as "Great Young Men," "Great Old Men," "Evening of Life," with a running commentary which is usually apt and well put. There are also suggestive chapters on "Health-Hobbies" and "Over Brain-work," which it would be well for all men to read who are attempting "to get thirty shillings out of their pound." For desultory readers, and for speakers or writers who desire a telling illustration, this book will prove especially valuable, while to the young many of the facts related must act as a healthy stimulus. There is, we are glad to say, an excellent index.

Neither of the two American editions of Darwin's 'Voyage of the *Beagle*' is so attractively dressed as that just issued in London and New York by T. Nelson & Sons. There must be a renewed interest in this immortal work growing out of the Life of Darwin, which is now the delight of thousands of readers. The 'Journal of Researches' would stand in the forefront of works of travel even if the author had died on completing it; but, *pace* the Duke of Argyll, who recommends it because "we have Darwin here before he was a Darwinian," one can now see plainly in it what the readers of 1842 could not, the germs of the doctrine of Evolution which so many years of the most patient and candid reflection and observation were ultimately to fructify. A frontispiece view of an atoll, and a bit of Tahitian scenery as a title vignette, are the only illustrations of the present edition. Some day we may hope for a worthy treatment of the work in this respect, with the aid of the camera. Meanwhile, with Mr. Darwin's cordial approval, a compilation primarily for the use of children, but quite as enjoyable by adults, was made under the title 'What Mr. Darwin Saw in his Voyage round the World in the Ship *Beagle*,' and handsomely published a few years ago, with a large number of pertinent illustrations, by the Messrs. Harper.

We owe to the anti-saloon movement the 'White Ribbon Birthday Book,' edited by Anna Gordon, illustrated in color and otherwise by Mary A. Lathbury, and published at Chicago by the Women's Temperance Publication Association. The select passages in prose and verse are all from the writings of women, many eminent, yet not in a sufficient proportion to make the literary level a high one.

Prof. R. B. Anderson's popular 'Norse Mythology' has just appeared in a Danish version made by Dr. Fr. Winkel Horn from the fourth edition ('Nordisk Mythologi,' Christiania: Alb. Cammermeyer). Those who know Horn's rank as a translator of the Elder Edda, and an authority in what pertains to Northern antiquities, can appreciate the compliment thus paid to author and book. But there is an even greater distinction in the fact that, as we believe, no foreign work on the same subject has ever been translated into any Scandinavian tongue. Dr. Horn furnishes a biographical sketch of our minister at Copenhagen, and a capital likeness of him is prefixed to the handsome volume—a genuine "product of American industry" even if manufactured abroad and in a foreign tongue; and yet (we will put the barbarous fact on record), though bearing an inscription from the author to a countryman at home, it was admitted into the United States only on payment of a customs duty!

The two freshly bound volumes of *Harper's Magazine*, numbered 74 and 75, show that the editor is to be classed among those "whose hearts have a look southward." Mrs. Rebecca Harding Davis's "Here and There in the South," Mr. Charles Dudley Warner's "South Revisited" and "New Orleans," Mr. Gayarré's "Sugar Plantation of the Old Régime in Louisiana," Mr. Brown's "Kentucky Pioneers," Edmund Kirke's "Southern Gateway of the Alleghanies," and Mr. Coleman's "Recent Movement in Southern Literature," form the noticeably strong array of papers touching the southern half of this Union, still a land unknown and full of surprises for most of us. But also there are papers on Mexico, Costa Rica, and (especially valuable) on Chili and the Argentine Republic. Russia, on the other hand, is pretty well looked after in Lansdell's "Natives of Siberia," Meeker's "Through the Caucasus," Millet's "Campaigning with the Cossacks," and Heard's "Russia of To-day." Howells's "April Hopes" and Blackmore's "Springhaven" have led the serial fiction. A great many portraits adorn such collective articles as Coquelin's "Acting and Actors," Theo. Child's "Comédie-Française," "The New York Police Department," and "The Irish Party," but there is no *chef d'œuvre* in this line of engraving.

In *Harper's Weekly* for 1887 the South has the attention paid it of a regular Supplement, besides what it gets from the President's tour in the same quarter. Here there is no lack of portraits, that of Tolstoi and the engraving after St. Gaudens's Lincoln ranking easily first in interest. The pictorial epitome of the year embraces the anniversaries of Wilhelm I., Victoria, the Pope, Whittier, of the Constitutional Convention; the *Thistle-Volunteer* races, the trial of Jacob Sharp, the hanging of the Chicago Anarchists, the Grévy-Carnot succession. An illustrated University series distinguishes this thirty-first volume of the *Weekly*.

From the same publishers we have the twentieth volume of *Harper's Bazar*, and *Harper's Young People* for 1887, which it would be superfluous to characterize.

We are sorry to learn from the Providence *Book Notes* of the suspension of the *Rhode Island Historical Magazine*, published at Newport, and of the *Narragansett Historical Register*.

Two posthumous works of the late Charles Wesley Tuttle, 'Capt. Francis Champernowne' and 'The Dutch in Acadia,' are to be edited and published by Mr. Albert H. Hoyt. Mr. Tuttle died in the practice of the law after an astronomical career not a little remarkable, especially in its origin, as is related in the January number of the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register*, which also gives a portrait of him. In the same number are to be found Mr. Abner C. Goodell, jr.'s, remarks a year ago on Mr. Henry F. Waters's English researches, the speaker contrasting by the way Mr. Waters's method with the late Col. Chester's, which is set forth on p. 83 from the original prospectus. The "Gleanings" contributed by the former to the present number relate, among others, to William Mullins, a *Mayflower* passenger, and the father of that Priscilla whom Miles Standish courted and John Alden won; his will being given. The Sedgwick family of Charlestown is also illustrated by many documents, and Joyliffes, Greys, and Greenes come in for a share of attention. Of general interest is Mr. Benjamin Rand's extended account of the Rev. Aaron Cleveland, great-great-grandfather of the President, whose pedigree is as fully traced as may be. The clergyman in question was a graduate of Harvard in 1735. For a time he ministered in Halifax, and died at the house of Benjamin Franklin in Philadelphia on August 18, 1757. He was, said Franklin, "above every species of meanness and dissimulation." Mr. Richard H. Greene caps Judge Richardson's list of Harvard alumni who have held official position with a corresponding list for Yale. Ninety-two presidents of colleges are enumerated.

Mr. William Archer's papers on the "Anatomy of Acting," now appearing in *Longman's Magazine*, will be revised and enlarged into a little treatise on the histrionic art. Among the distinguished performers on this side of the Atlantic who have answered his circular of inquiry at length are Mr. Dion Boucicault and Mr. John Drew.

Dr. John Murray of the *Challenger* contributes to the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for January an instructive paper "On the Height of the Land and Depth of the Ocean." After a careful comparison of the most recent surveys, he concludes that the mean height of the land is 2,250 feet, or more than twice the height given by Humboldt in the beginning of the century. The latter's error probably consisted mainly in underestimating the height and extent of the great Central-Asian plateau, of which nearly a million square miles are at an elevation of over 12,000 feet, 7,800 miles being above 24,000 feet. The mean depth of the sea, on the other hand, is 12,480 feet, the deepest seas as well as the highest land being in the northern hemisphere. It is a curious fact that while 90 per cent. of the land is lower than 6,000 feet, only 17 per cent. of the sea-bed is shallower than this, so that if the surface of the whole solid land should "be reduced to one level under the ocean, then the surface of the earth would be covered by an ocean with a uniform depth of about two miles." An excellent map accompanies the paper, which is followed by a discussion of the vexed question as to the course of the African river, Welle, the writer advocating the theory that it is the upper waters of the Itimbiri, a branch of the Congo.

The principal paper in the January Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society is by Mr. D. D. Daly, who gives an account of his recent explorations in British North Borneo. The most interesting part relates to the collection of edible bird's nests. He visited some limestone caves in the eastern part of the island a considerable distance from the coast, in which they were to be found in incredible quantities. One of these caves was 900 feet high, and was inhabited by such myriad swarms of swifts that "a steady column of these birds has been timed by watch to fly for three-quarters of an hour from one of the apertures." Little control is exercised over the collection of the nests, they being taken in some places six times in the year, while in Annam only three harvests are allowed. A favorable report of the prospects of the colony was given, the imports having increased within six years five-fold, and the exports nearly as much. Head-hunting is nearly exterminated. The Rev. A. Hetherwick gives a description of a journey last year in the region to the southeast of Lake Nyassa. Both papers are accompanied by maps.

At the last meeting of the French Geographical Society, M. Aristide Dumont advocated the construction of a railway from the mouth of the Orontes to the Persian Gulf. He estimates the cost of construction, which would present no peculiar difficulties, at $50,000,000, affirming that if "only a quarter of the passengers who now go by the canal should take the rail, the expense would be justified," without taking into account the local traffic. Not only would ten days' time be gained between Brindisi and

Bombay, but the building of the railway would naturally lead to extensive works for draining and irrigating the great plains of Mesopotamia, thereby restoring them to their former fertility and vastly increasing their population.

The condition of French Indo-China was the subject of an address before the Société de Géographie commerciale on December 21, 1887, by M. de Lanessan, deputy of the Seine, who has just returned from a Government mission to that country. He spoke very plainly, saying that, with the commercial system now in force there, "we shall never be able to draw any advantage from the countries of the protectorate." Again, referring to the severe restrictions upon all except French imports, and the multitude of custom-houses and officials, he says: "We are ruining Cochin-China. We have built there palaces and churches, but we have made neither roads nor canals, and are merely fattening a crowd of absolutely useless officials." While thinking that the French are deceived as to the value of Tonkin, he believes that in four years, with a wise, prudent, and economical government, it can be made self-supporting.

M. Paul Bert's brief administration of Tonkin was especially characterized by his great interest in providing means for the education of the people. From a report of the Director of Public Instruction, recently published at Hanoi, we learn that while on M. Bert's arrival there were only three schools in which French was taught, there are now a college for interpreters, primary schools for both boys and girls, a free school of design, and 140 "écoles libres de caractères latins." These are very numerously attended, chiefly by adults, the studies being the Chinese characters and the transcription of Annamite into Latin letters. In the college are taught French, Annamite, and diplomatic Chinese, which differs in many respects from the language either of the people or the literates.

The recent meeting of the Hygienic Congress at Vienna has done good service in calling attention to the subject of school hygiene, and especially to an evil more or less common in all German schools. In the discussions before the Congress the undoubted increase of nearsightedness among school-children was declared to be in no small degree due to the wretched typography of the text-books in use; the editions of the modern classics, in particular, being for the most part so poorly printed that their use must of necessity be extremely injurious to the eyesight of the pupils. The Austrian Minister of Public Instruction has, in consequence, issued a circular instructing the school authorities to exercise a strict supervision over the typography of the school-books, and to see that it is in conformity with hygienic principles. They are further instructed to discard at once from class use and from school libraries all books which do not fulfil this condition, and to replace them by such as can be used without risk to the eyes. Among the editions condemned by this decree are those published by P. Reclam of Leipzig, the series known as "Meyers Volksbücher," and the editions of modern classics issued in the "Collection Friedberg und Mode." It is to be hoped that the crusade against these abominably printed, almost illegible books may be vigorously carried on, not only in Austria, but throughout Germany, and that it may end in the general adoption of Roman type.

Mr. Townsend MacCoun, 150 Nassau Street, sends us the promised plan of the Athenian Acropolis drawn by Mr. S. B. P. Trowbridge of the American School, to show the results of the latest explorations of that classic site. The lithographed plate measures 22x15 inches, is lettered in English and in Greek, and marks by arrows the direction of monuments beyond its own scope. Its use in teaching is obvious. For private reference it would be well if it were sold mounted and folded.

The ancient Sanskrit writer Kalidasa's drama "Urvasi," in a free German translation by Lodedanz, with music by Grandaur, which had been performed in private before King Ludwig II. some two years ago, was publicly given for the first time in the Court Theatre, Munich, on December 19, 1887. The play was greeted by a full house, and, as a spectacular exhibition, is said to have been the finest ever seen on the Munich stage; the decorations, costumes, lighting, etc., calling forth enthusiastic applause. As a play, however, it is too barren of incident and sensation to satisfy the modern theatre-goer, according to the critic of the *Allgemeine Zeitung*.

The Italian poet Giosuè Carducci on January 8 delivered in Rome a lecture entitled 'L'Opera di Dante,' which has since been published at Bologna by Zanichelli.

Madam Mario, widow of the Italian patriot, Alberto Mario, has just presented to the city of Milan the secret proceedings and correspondence with the army and with Turin of the Provisional Government of Lombardy from March to August, 1848. They had been preserved by the late Dr. Agostino Bertani, and deposited with the Marios. Carlo Cattaneo made use of them in his *Archivio Triennale*, and Bertani obtained them from his effects.

The fifty-sixth annual report of the Trustees of the Perkins Institution for the Blind at South Boston, Mass., presents in great detail the case of a little blind deaf-mute whose instruction deserves to be recorded if not ranked with that of Laura Bridgman. Mr. Anagnos says of Helen Keller, the loss of whose faculties began at nineteen months, before she could talk, and whose enlightenment was undertaken by Miss Annie M. Sullivan six years afterwards, that "the total sum of the knowledge which she acquired in four months exceeds that which Laura Bridgman obtained in more than two years." Numerous facsimiles illustrate the interesting narrative. The first annual report of the Kindergarten for the Blind is added to the pamphlet.

The annual report of the President of Ohio State University shows that in 1886-'87 13.7 per cent. of the whole number of students were women. He expresses surprise that he has never received a single inquiry concerning instruction in household economy. The elective system has been tried and found satisfactory in the main: "genuine interest in study has been promoted." The demerit system has been abolished, even to dispensing with the record of absences at chapel. "The marking of rolls during the progress of religious exercises, or even at a meeting held for religious exercises, seems to be incongruous, not to say irreverent, and tends to counteract in many minds the salutary influence which the worship might otherwise have." The President would also be glad to make chapel attendance purely voluntary. The Harvard leaven is working.

—Letters, like books, have their fate. Little could Mendelssohn have imagined that the letters he wrote to his friend Moscheles would be printed for the first time half a century later in an English translation in an American magazine. The February *Scribner* contains a number of these letters, with comments by W. F. Apthorp, and the March number is to contain some more. They are from the MSS. in the possession of Felix Moscheles, and are accompanied by five fine portraits, a cast of Mendelssohn's hand, and other illustrations, some of which indicate that Mendelssohn, like Goethe, had some talent for sketching. The letters are of more than average interest, but their critical tone will surprise those who think of Mendelssohn's character as being as suave as his music. Wagner himself rarely made more caustic remarks about his contemporaries than Mendelssohn does about Liszt, Berlioz, Heller, Chopin, and others. Mr. Apthorp comments on this, that Mendelssohn must have instinctively felt and abhorred the powers that were destined to partially dethrone him in the concert hall. Prof. Shaler writes very fully of volcanoes, both descriptively and scientifically, and he endeavors to point out to us the great utility of these terrible vents which, of all natural objects, have been the most destructive of a belief in nature's beneficence, and, together with tornadoes, pestilence, and famine, have been devoted, from old time, to the ministry of heaven's most immitigable wrath. Prof. Shaler reckons that the Java group have ejected into the sea within a century twenty times as much matter as the Mississippi has carried down on its current, and thinks it not unlikely that the ocean obtains as much solid material from the volcanoes as from the rivers. In several other ways, also, he finds them a restorative agency. Mr. Joseph B. Bishop contributes an article upon the general subject of the means to be used to take the printing and distribution of the ballot out of the hands of the managers of the campaign funds, and discusses incidentally other ways of limiting the use of money in the electoral machinery. The paper is well informed and timely, in connection with the proposed statute in this State. Prof. William James writes, from a scientific point of view, upon the Will, and analyzes what goes on when an act of volition is performed, as a physiological psychologist sees such phenomena. Mr. Stimson's novel takes us to a pleasanter region than in its first chapters, and to more attractive characters, drawn without satire and touched by the fondness he has before shown for Berkshire; while Mr. Wendell's story, very carefully studied in its setting and movement, pushes audacity so far as to give us, as the children say, a "truly" ghost.

—The October-November number of the *Library Chronicle*, which has just come to hand, contains the interesting and important paper "On the Present Aspect of the Question, Who was the Inventor of Printing?" read by Wm. Blades before the British Library Association at the Birmingham meeting last September. Going back to 1870, when the Costerians, as he says, never were stronger—on their side being Bernard, Ottley, Holtrop, Campbell, Berjeau, Humphreys, and others, including Blades himself—he tells how the publication of Van der Linde's letters to the *Nederlandsche Spectator*, afterwards reprinted in book form, wrought such consternation in the ranks of the Costerians that they threw down their arms, and their rout was considered final, for even the Dutch bibliographers, with the exception of Van Meurs, seemed struck dumb with dismay. In 1871 Hessels translated Van der Linde's book into English, and so impressed was Blades with its importance that, at some expense, he printed it in order that English readers might keep abreast with the new learning, and it appeared under the title 'The Haarlem Legend of the Invention of Printing Critically Examined.' The conclusions of Van der Linde were adopted by De Vinne in his 'Invention of Printing' (1876), and the current of opinion ran strongly against the Costerians.

In 1878 Van der Linde published his 'Gutenberg: Geschichte und Erdichtung aus den Quellen nachgewiesen,' of which Blades justly says, "There is little that is new in this work except its increased bulk. The story of the legend is retold, and, if possible, with more bad taste than before. Great ability is shown in his treatment of the subject, and the author argues throughout like a clever barrister whose fame and future depended upon success." Hessels, undertaking to review this work, spent three years in the examination of sources and documents, and published in 1882 his 'Gutenberg: Was he the Inventor of Printing?' in which he gave a critical study of the whole question, denouncing Van der Linde as altogether untrustworthy, and declaring that he had not found anything which would enable him to answer the question, "Was Gutenberg the inventor of printing?" with either yes or no.

—In 1886 Van der Linde published at the expense of the German Government a large work in three folio volumes, entitled 'Geschichte der Erfindung der Buchdruckerkunst,' characterized by Blades as "a notable piece of bookmaking, sheet after sheet being occupied with mere padding. There is nothing except luxurious printing and a lot of unimportant plates to distinguish it from his former work, 'Gutenberg.'" The publication of this work called forth from Hessels a series of articles on "The History of the Invention of Printing," which appeared in the *Academy* (April to August, 1887), and have recently been revised and issued in book form under the title 'Haarlem the Birthplace of Printing, not Mentz.' Hessels here vigorously disputes Van der Linde's conclusions, denounces his blunders, exposes his pretensions to original research, and advances his own reasons for attributing to Haarlem the earliest attempts at types. After having given an outline of the course of the controversy, Blades briefly states the main facts adduced in support of Gutenberg's claim, and asks: "To what, then, does the evidence so far point? This—that Gutenberg was a famous printer, who was the first to bring his art to that perfection which we trace in the Mazarine Bible and in the beautiful Mayence Psalter, printed by his associates and successors, Fust and Schœffer." He next gives an outline of the evidence on the Costerian side, the narrative of Junius, the statement of the Cologne Chronicle, and the so-called 'Costeriana,' which Van der Linde places about 1474, while Hessels assigns them to the period 1446-74. But though Hessels believes that the Coster mentioned in the archives as living in Haarlem, 1436-83, was the inventor of types, Blades would like to wait for more evidence, and urges the thorough examination of the ancient bindings of incunabula in the great libraries of Europe, saying that "the more these are examined the longer will be the list of 'Costeriana,' and it is quite probable that somewhere will be discovered a date or a fact which will turn the probability that Holland was the birthplace of printing into an acknowledged historical fact." At present he admits that, however strong the circumstantial evidence in favor of Holland may be, the verdict cannot be given positively to either party, although he has little doubt as to which side all future evidence will tend towards. These expressions, coming as they do from an authority at once so competent and cautious, must carry great weight, and will incline many to falter in their allegiance to Gutenberg.

—The same number of the *Library Chronicle* contains the paper read at the Birmingham meeting by F. Madan of the Bodleian Library, entitled "What to Aim at in Local Bibliography," in the first part of which he gives some valuable suggestions, derived from his own personal experience, as to the method to be pursued. He recommends the formation of five lists, the first of which should be a list of printed books and pamphlets relating to the town or district; in this list he insists that the arrangement should be chronological, not alphabetical, nor according to subject, but provided with author and subject indexes. Next there should be a collection of slips containing references to MS. material for local history, and for this list he prefers a subject arrangement. The third list should be of plans, maps, and engravings, also arranged according to subject. The fourth list should be one of "fugitive pieces," including under this term, in general, pieces of less than five pages, such as fly-sheets, addresses, lists, and appeals. "Of these fly-sheets there should be a rough list on a chronological basis; not so detailed as to wear away one's life, but sufficient to distinguish each piece from every other." Lastly there should be a complete chronological list of all the books printed or published in the town or district, a history of the local press. In the second part of the paper he attempts to distinguish between sanity and insanity in the work—that is, between the limits of reasonable energy and of unreasonable or misdirected enthusiasm. The first principle he lays down is this: "If our locality be so small or unhistoric that there is very little to record, record the whole of it; if there be too large a literature for that, then *separate*, *criticise*, *decide*." A few examples of debatable ground are given; thus, in the matter of sermons, he would neglect all sermons which do not contain allusions to local history. The newspaper has superseded the necessity for collecting *everything*, but special attention should be paid to fugitive pieces relating to societies, clubs, etc., not likely to be preserved in the newspapers. Again, all books privately printed in a place should be procured, if possible, and entered in the list. The person who should do this work is the local librarian.

—It would seem as if all possible expedients for protecting the rights of authorship had been discussed of late; but here is one which has escaped general notice, despite its efficacy, which is beyond question. A work entitled 'Albertus Magnus: approved and verified, both sympathetic and natural Egyptian secrets, for man and beast' (we dare not tamper with the phraseology or punctuation), was published at Harrisburg, Pennsylvania, in the year 1875. It belongs to a class of "magic-books" which, in English or in German, have to this day some circulation among the Pennsylvania Dutch. The preface to the second volume closes as follows:

"Inasmuch as, at this juncture, all looks so gloomy in society, the writer of this expects that no pirate of books will wrongfully seize this work and reprint the same, if such an one does not wish to incur the eternal curse and even condemnation from such an act. While we recommend it to the protection of God and the Holy Trinity, that they may be watching the same, and set the angel Michael as watch and guard over the undertaking, so that no pirate may rob the real and legal owner of the means of deriving his daily bread from the sale of this publication, and cheat him of his property by the peril of losing his blessedness, such a being would never find rest nor quiet, by day or night, neither here below nor in the hereafter, by seeking to defraud the publisher of his own. This would God the Father, Son, and Holy Spirit grant. Mirathe saepy Satonich petanish pistau ytmye higarin,"

and four more lines of what we take to be a cabalistic anathema upon the aforesaid pirate. The proof of the pudding is in the eating. Here is a book which never was copyrighted, and which has yet defied piracy for upwards of twelve years. Success begets respect; and one turns with interest to the body of the book, which may be heartily commended to such as would know how "To Cause a Witch to die within one Minute."

—It sounds a little odd when the motive of a State historical document is confessed to be the fact that "New Englanders will occasionally assert that New York did very little to assist her sister colonies in the struggle for independence more than one hundred years ago." This avowal introduces the preface to vol. xv of 'Documents relating to the Colonial History of the State of New York,' edited by Berthold Fernow (State Archives, vol. i.—The Revolution). Upwards of 600 quarto pages embalm some 40,000 names of men who served in a military or naval capacity during the Revolution. This aggregate does not appear to be exhaustive, even disregarding the defects of the archives at Albany and at Washington, for "in giving the names of the officers and of a few men of the first and second 'Continental Establishments' [*i. e.*, first and second calls by the Provincial Congress in 1775, 1776], the Editor has tried to avoid repeating lists of names, etc., already published in the 'Calendar of Revolutionary Papers,' two volumes, published by authority of the State in 1868." He first prints pertinent extracts from the Proceedings of the Provincial Congress, the Committee of Safety, and the Convention of New York relating to Military Matters. These naturally contain the only readable portions of the volume, and a good deal may be found in them about "the people called *Green Mountain Boys*," living in "the several Townships on the New Hampshire Grants, West of the Range of the Green Mountains," their uniform when enrolled (a green color), "the disputes already subsisting among their chiefs, the principles whereof we are strangers to," etc. Capt. Alexander Hamilton is ordered to put a guard of his artillery company over the colony records, till relieved by Col. Lasher's Independents under an order of Gen. Putnam's. There are a number of communications from John Hancock. In a footnote to page 132 the editor gives an estimate of the population of the colonies in 1776, which foots up 3,680,000, or a million more than Prof. F. B. Dexter of Yale has recently allowed as the result of his investigations. There are very full indexes of names to this valuable work.

—The last *Revue Bleue* of 1887 is a memorial number, devoted to its founder and *directeur*, M. Eugène Yung, who died December 26 at the age of sixty years. Many, even among the constant readers of the *Revue* which he conducted, know little more than the mere name of this active and able literary worker, who from the beginning of his career did so much to encourage and bring forward, and even in a measure to form, young and unknown writers who later became authors of note. M. Jules Lemaitre, writing of him with affection and admiration in the *Journal des Débats* of December 27, expresses his own gratitude to him, relating how, when his first article fell under the observation of M. Yung, he inquired out the young author, who was as delighted as he was surprised to receive, in the little provincial town where he was professor, the letter in which it was proposed to him to write for the *Revue*. "My coming to Paris I owe to him: if I have worked well, to him I owe it." In another place he says, "There are many of us who owe much to Eugène Yung," and he explains how the young writers whose promise M. Yung had recognized put aside, under his guidance, their youthful affectation and bad taste, and ma-

tured and developed more quickly all they had in them that was good. The same thing is said, not only by other young writers whose early attempts in literature were made in the *Revue Bleue*, but by men of long-established reputation, his comrades of the *lycée* and the École Normale—Weiss, Sarcey, Dionys Ordinaire. The last of these, who is not only a member of the Chamber of Deputies and a journalist, but also one of the familiar writers of the *Revue Bleue*, speaking of their conversations about his articles, says, "We would dispute about a title, a phrase to be struck out, a word, a period, and it was always he in the end who proved to be right, for he was good sense embodied, and, besides, he possessed an exquisite literary delicacy and tact." M. Weiss calls him an "inventeur d'esprits"; M. Sarcey says of him, "He was a born *directeur de journal*, or, to use a broader expression, a born *impresario*," and then, in his usual lively manner, Sarcey shows him in the exercise of his functions as secretary to Buloz of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, a position he seems to have won by the striking ability displayed in his thesis for his doctor's degree, 'Henri IV. considéré comme écrivain,' which, singularly enough, is the only thing of all he has written which remains as a volume. Sarcey tells how Yung wrote to him, then an unknown professor in a provincial *lycée*, asking him for an article for the great *Revue*, of which he traced for him the general plan and arrangement, and indicated the length advisable. Sarcey refused, not suspecting then that he too was destined to become a writer. And he adds that this attempt was probably often made with others, for he was not among Yung's intimates at the École Normale, nor even in his class. He seems to have had an instinctive appreciation of promising literary talent; he sought it out and excited it.

—If it was not to Yung that Sarcey owed his entrance into literature, it was he who forced him, in spite of himself, into the *conférence*, in which he has since won some of his greatest successes. He had lectured only twice, and made such a complete failure that he had sworn never again to address an audience. With many entertaining details he relates how he was persuaded to break his vow by Eugène Yung, who had had a new hall placed gratuitously at his disposal for lectures, but who had neither lecturers nor a public. He found both. Without putting himself forward, with discretion and patience that never failed, "il sut mettre en branle toutes les cloches de la publicité." He had articles everywhere—articles inspired, almost dictated, by himself; not vulgar puffs, of which he had a horror, but interesting and solid and even learned articles, which were irresistibly attractive. It became the fashion to attend these lectures; ladies in full dress came to listen to them before going to a ball; the memory of their success has become a tradition among Parisians. For lecturers he had, of his comrades at the École Normale, Taine, Weiss, Deschanel, Sarcey. Yung himself never spoke, never appeared, although it was he who guided and moulded the whole. His personal withdrawal from publicity, his moderation, and his talent for organization won for him a great influence in the Paris of the last years of the Empire. In a charming and touching page at the beginning of this memorial number of the *Revue Bleue*, M. Weiss, one of the oldest of his friends, recalls the events of the life of Eugène Yung. They were in the same class in the Collège Louis-le-Grand as boys, and the École Normale as young men; they taught together in the same *lycée* at La Rochelle. When Yung became secretary of the *Revue des Deux Mondes* under Buloz, his first thought was to open its pages to his friend; when Weiss went to Paris to write editorially in the *Journal des Débats*, he induced the *directeur* to give Yung also a place on the paper. They were both Protestants, and both held similar liberal doctrines in politics and in literature, though Yung was less conservative, having been a republican from the days of 1848. He did not enter directly into politics, either personally or by his writings; but, by the various courses of lectures which he directed as well as by the *Revue* he founded, he influenced public opinion powerfully and durably during the period which prepared for the coming of the Third Republic, when in both fields the open discussion of political questions was impossible. The *Revue Bleue* had very modest beginnings. The first weekly number appeared in December, 1863. It was then called the *Revue des Cours Littéraires*, and was little beyond the reproduction of some of the most marked among the lectures and lessons of the Collège de France, the Sorbonne, and the higher schools. After the Franco-Prussian war, its title was changed to *Revue Politique et Littéraire*, and this in turn became familiarly the *Revue Bleue*, on account of the color of its cover—a title which a year or two ago was officially adopted. It is this weekly periodical, which has grown gradually into something quite singular of its kind, intermediate between the daily newspaper of the best class and the great *revues*, which Eugène Yung directed and managed for twenty-five years, and which remains his best monument and memorial.

GARIBALDI'S MEMOIRS.

Memorie di Giuseppe Garibaldi. Florence: Barbèra.

The enterprising firm of the Barbèra brothers announces "ready for publication, the Autobiography of General Garibaldi," and the announcement will be received with pleasurable surprise, because, at the time of the General's death, in 1882, it was affirmed that these Memoirs were not to appear for at least ten years. The single volume of less than five hundred pages of which we have been favored with the proof-sheets, is issued without any attempt at editorship, with no preface save the author's own. The work is divided into five parts. The first period commences with reminiscences of Garibaldi's childhood. An affectionate tribute is paid to his worthy father, his worshipped and really angelic mother. Then, after a description of his seafaring life, barely alluding to his share in young Italy's adventures, "an exile and condemned to death," he narrates with evident gusto every detail of his South American experiences, his meeting with Anita, the formation of the Italian Legion in Montevideo, its heroic combats, alternate defeats and successes, the crowning victory of S. Antonio, the refusal of himself and his legion to accept the land and rewards offered them; ending with slight biographical sketches of such dead and wounded as he remembers. The second period embraces the revolutionary year of 1848, the war against the Austrians, the defence of the Roman Republic, the disastrous retreat (ending with the death of Anita), his second exile, his sojourn in the United States, his return to political life, the Franco-Italian campaign against Austria in 1859, his sojourn in Central Italy. The third period is entirely devoted to his grand campaigns for the liberation of southern Italy, starting with the famous Thousand from Quarto in May to the last combat at Caserta Vecchia on the 2d of October and his return to Caprera. The fourth period embraces Aspromonte, in 1862, the campaign of the Tyrol in 1866, the attempt on Rome in 1867, ending with the disaster of Mentana on the 3d of November. The fifth and last period closes with the French campaign, and then, as "an Appendix to my Memoirs, Civitavecchia, July 15, 1875," we have a short but admirable criticism on the battle of Custoza.

We do not attempt here any critical review of this autobiography *sui generis*. As a general rule, criticism is only fair when the work itself is before the reading public, and a translation of these Memoirs for foreign readers would need a very careful preface or appendix in which the chief historical facts and dates of Italian revolutions should be given. From the testimony of Guerzoni, in his life of the hero, and from our own memory of chapters and paragraphs shown or read to us by the General himself, at different periods of our thirty years' intercourse, we see that he has purposely omitted from the "Memoirs to be published" a number of documents and facts that he had consigned to paper, just passing from one campaign to another without any connecting links or explanatory circumstances. A translator's preface would have to supply this deficiency, and also publish a number of admirable letters written by the General himself to the King, to Mazzini, to Cavour, and to other important personages with whom he was brought in contact by political affairs. As in life so in his records, he never understands or appreciates Mazzini, and, with the fullest intention of being just and generous, falls into numerous errors of fact. All these, we may be sure, will be rectified by Aurelio Saffi, Mazzini's fellow-triumvir, devoted disciple, and conscientious biographer.

Again, we regret that the General's letter to the Papal Nuncio in Montevideo, offering his services to Pio Nono in 1848, is omitted, as the letter and the offer would have sufficed alone to explain Garibaldi's constant attacks on priestcraft and priests, which will offend unnecessarily devoted Catholics and yet faithful subjects of the King of United Italy, honest citizens in every way. The fact that the papacy has been for centuries the obstacle to the formation of an Italian nation by summoning foreigners to Italian soil; Pio Nono's conduct in 1849, when he blessed the Croats as his beloved children, and withdrew his troops from Lombardy when, united with the Piedmontese and the volunteers, they might have expelled the Austrians from the Peninsula; the four foreign armies summoned to replace the Pope on his throne of "4,000 corpses"; the last final summons of the "marvellous chassepots" to drive out Garibaldi and his volunteers from the Roman Campagna after the victory of Monterotondo—filled the great patriot's heart with such grief and indignation that he feels himself compelled to vent it on every occasion and apropos of every event.

The Memoirs will be eagerly devoured by Italians, while foreigners will be especially pleased by its simple narratives and admirable military criticisms. Here Garibaldi is perfectly impartial; even while narrating the great field-battle of the Volturno, he dwells far more on the defects of his own military plans than on the almost miraculous feats performed by his handful of volunteers electrified by his voice and eye. Perhaps the following extracts from the tenth and eleventh chapters of the second period may serve to give an idea of the matter-of-fact way in which he accepts the ups and downs of life, attributing his hardships to circumstances rather than to men, feeling more surprise than anger when they are specially untoward, even as, when things went contrary, his

one remark ever was: "C'est un fait, c'est singulier!" At the time referred to in this extract, life looked gloomy to him in every sense. Rome had fallen. The French were entering Rome:

"Mr. Cass, the American Minister, knowing the state of affairs, sent word on the 2d of July, 1849, that he wished to speak to me. Going to his house, I met him in the street. He, in the kindest manner, placed an American man-of-war, lying off Civitavecchia, at my disposal, giving me leave to go on board with such of my comrades as might run risks by remaining. I thanked the generous representative of the great republic, telling him, however, that I meant to leave Rome with all those who chose to accompany me, and try yet to achieve something for our country, whose fortunes did not seem to me even then altogether desperate."

There follows the harrowing description of that attempt — France and Austria joining hands to seize the dreaded "red devil," and to disperse his followers, the Tuscans shutting their gates at his approach, the inhabitants of the Romagna turning a deaf ear to his appeal. He is heart-sick at the state of Anita, who, though already ill, had shorn her hair and dressed as a soldier to follow her beloved, and to all his remonstrances (she was on the eve of becoming a mother for the sixth time) making answer: "You wish to abandon me." His men desert, he reaches the republic of San Marino, where, he says: "On the steps of a church outside the city I wrote the following proclamation: 'Soldiers! I absolve you from your pledge to accompany me. Return to your homes, but remember that Italy ought not to be left to the shame of servitude.'" But for him and his few faithful ones surely Venice is left to die in? Not so. Just as he sights the lagoons, the Austrian men-of-war discover and attack his tiny fleet of fishing boats. Anita is dying, he carries her in his arms to a peasant's hut, receives her dying kiss, and, before the corpse lying in his arms is cold, he is compelled to abandon it: the Austrians are on his track. Another month of hiding, of danger, of hair-breadth escapes: every man's hand is against him whose hand is only raised against the foes of Italy. Finally, a fisherman volunteers to go for his boat and convey them in safety to the Ligurian shores, if meanwhile they can lie in hiding in the woods along the shore between the sea and the Maremma. They succeed, and the fisherman comes with his boat.

"There, in the harbor of S. Sterbino, the little craft awaited us, and we embarked, touched by the proofs of affection lavished on us by our generous liberators. . . . How proud I am to have been born in Italy, where, despite the rule of priests and thieves, our youths are growing up to despise dangers, torture, peril, and death, to march calmly to the fulfilment of their duty, the emancipation of their country from her chains.

"In the Genoese fishing boat we sailed for the isle of Elba, to take in provisions and fishing gear, and passed a night and part of a day at Porto Longone. Thence, coasting along the Tuscan shore without stopping at Leghorn, we continued our course westwards. I did not deceive myself as to the unfavorable reception which awaited me on the part of the Government in the Sardinian States, and I was half inclined to ask for a berth on board an English vessel anchored in the port of Leghorn; but the longing to see my children before leaving Italy, where I knew I should not be allowed to remain, prevailed.

"In September we landed safely at Porto Venere. There and at Chiavari nothing new; in this latter city I was received in the house of my cousin, Bartolomeo Pucci, of cherished memory, and we were welcomed by his kindly family, by the population of Chiavari, and by the numerous Lombards who had taken refuge there after the battle of Novara. But as soon as General La Marmora, then royal commissary at Genoa, learnt of my arrival, he gave orders that I should be transferred to that city, escorted by a captain of carabineers in plain clothes. General La Marmora's proceedings did not surprise me; he was but the willing instrument of the policy that then prevailed in our country, besides being on his own account a natural enemy to all who, like myself, were stained with the republican bar sinister. So I was shut up in a secret cell of the Ducal palace in Genoa, thence transported by night on board the war frigate *S. Michele*, treated, notwithstanding, with deference in Genoa by La Marmora and on board by the chivalrous commander, Persano. All I asked was for twenty-four hours to go to Nice and take leave of my children, promising to return to my temporary prison, and La Marmora gave me leave on parole. I don't know whether policemen in disguise were on board the *S. Michele*, but certainly news had been sent to Nice, and the carabineers were on the alert. As usual, the authorities detained me on board for several hours, so that I had barely time to reach Cavas, where my children were, pass the night there, and return at once.

"The sight of my children, whom I was obliged to abandon, grieved me deeply. It is true that they were left in friendly hands; the two boys (Menotti and Ricciotti) with my cousin Augustus Garibaldi, and my Teresita with Mr. and Mrs. Deideri, who were like parents to her. But I had to quit them for an indefinite space of time—this was made clear to me when I was summoned to choose my place of exile.

"And here I cannot pass over in silence the manly defence of my cause assumed by the liberal members of the Piedmontese Parliament, Baralis, Borella, Valerio, Brofferio, who made such a powerful appeal in my favor that if they did not succeed in getting the sentence of banishment revoked, assuredly they saved me from a still harsher fate. The insatiable bloodthirstiness of the Austro-clerical party, victorious throughout the peninsula, was rife even in Piedmont. The hopes I still cherished that brighter destinies were in store for my country suggested my choice of Tunis as a near abode in exile, especially as I knew I should find there Castelli of Nice, a friend of my childhood, and Pedriani, also a friend and fellow-exile of 1834. But, embarked for Tunis on board the war steamer *Tripoli*, I found that the Government, subservient to French orders, would none of me, so I was carried back and deposited on the island of La Maddalena, where I remained twenty days.

"There, ludicrous to relate, were not wanting those who insinuated in the ear of the Sardinian Government (or it may be that they feigned the belief) that I was bent on revolutionizing the islanders, half of whom in those days were pensioners or servants of the Crown. A kindly population they were, though, and they treated me right well! So from the island of La Maddalena I was escorted to Gibraltar by the war brig *Colomba*. The English Governor gave me six days to take myself off. The gratitude and affection which I have ever cherished for the generous English nation made this discourteous, futile, and unworthy proceeding doubly hard to bear. . . .

"Still clear out I must, even if nothing but jumping into the sea was left; and, following the advice of friends, I decided to cross the straits and seek a refuge in Africa, where G. B. Carpeneto, the Sardinian Consul at Tangiers, welcomed me to his house, and, with my two companions and officers, Leggioro and Coccelli, we were hospitably entertained for six months. At Modigliana I found a beneficent priest,* and at Tangiers an honest and generous royal consul, and to both I owe a debt of gratitude. True is the old proverb: 'The frock does not make the monk.' . . .

"At Tangiers, with my generous host Carpeneto, I passed my time as tranquilly and happily as an Italian exile far from his country and his dear ones could expect to do. At least twice a week we went shooting, and game was abundant. A friend lent me a little boat, so we made up fishing parties, and fish also was plentiful. The courteous hospitality with which Mr. Murray, the English Vice-Consul, welcomed me to his house, lured me at times from my solitary and rustic habits.

"Nor did *all* my Italian friends forget me in absence. Francesco Carpeneto, who had been most kind to me from the time of my return to Italy, in 1848, bethought himself of a plan to enable me to earn my living, and tried to collect sufficient money among his own friends and mine for the purchase of a vessel of which I was to have the command. This scheme pleased me; unable to do aught towards the fulfilment of my political mission, I caught at the chance of being able to work, hoping as a merchant-trader to become independent and no longer remain at the charge of my generous and hospitable friends. So I at once acceded to Francesco's plan, and made arrangements to start for the United States, where a vessel might be purchased. In June, 1850, I embarked for Gibraltar, thence for Liverpool and New York. Crossing the Atlantic, I was seized with rheumatic pains, and on landing was unable to stir, was set on shore like a bale of goods, on Staten Island, and, still suffering from my illness, passed a month, partly on that island and partly in the house of my dear and good friend, Michele Pastacaldi, where I enjoyed the friendly companionship of Foresti, one of the illustrious martyrs of the Spielberg. Carpeneto's plan came to nothing; he had only been able to place three shares of $2,000 each with the Camozzi brothers of Bergamo and one Piazzoni, and what vessel in America could be purchased for $6,000? A small coasting vessel, perhaps, but, not being an American subject, I should have been obliged to take an American captain, which would not have paid.

"But something I must do! A kind, sterling Florentine friend, Antonio Meucci, had decided on setting up a candle factory, and offered me work in his establishment. Said and done! Without capital I could not take shares in his speculation, as the $6,000, proving insufficient for the purchase of a vessel, remained in Italy; so I made up my mind to work on whatever conditions should be offered. And for several months I worked with Meucci, who did not treat me like a common workman, but with the utmost kindness as one of the family.

"One day, however, tired of tallow-boiling, and very likely impelled by my natural and habitual restlessness, I left the house, resolved to seek a different employment. I remembered my seafaring life, knew a little English, and so went down to the shore, where coasting vessels were loading and unloading their cargoes. I asked the first to take me as a sailor; those on board the vessel went on with their work, scarcely giving heed to my request. I tried the second, with the same result. Then I passed on to a third, asked some men who were unloading to let me help; the answer was that they wanted no help. But I persisted: 'I don't want pay; let me work to warm myself'—it was actually snowing; no answer whatever. I felt mortified. I lived again in memory the days when I was honored with the command of the fleet of Montevideo and her gallant and immortal army! What did all that avail? I was not wanted now! However, I swallowed my mortification and returned to my tallow-boiling. Most fortunate was it that I had not acquainted Meucci, excellent man, with my resolution; so the vexation, known only to myself, was lessened. And here let me state that nothing in the conduct of my kind master had prompted my untimely resolve; he and his wife, Mrs. Hester, were lavish in their benevolence and friendliness."

How strangely reads this episode now—with the hero of countless victories, the liberator of Italy, lying there on lone Caprera beneath the granite slab, while his countrymen erect monuments in every city to his memory, identifying his name with independence from the foreigner in the past, and hopes for freedom from moral thraldom in the future!

* Don Giovanni Veritas, a patriot priest who saved the fugitives after Anita's death.

McMASTER'S FRANKLIN.

Benjamin Franklin as a Man of Letters. [American Men of Letters.] By John Bach McMaster. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1887. ix., 293 pp. 16mo.

It is almost a century since Franklin died, yet during that time his reputation has had few hard shocks, and he is to-day, as he was when living, a very popular hero. Image-breakers have not of course wholly neglected him, but they have not shattered the aggregate of excellences which make up his fame. The hero of the Autobiography—or what has passed for it so many years—is still cherished, while the warnings of the historically cautious are not listened to. For one unhappy infant who is christened John Adams or Alex-

ander Hamilton, there are a hundred who press on to manhood under the burden of the name of Benjamin Franklin. But the ambition of parents has had in mind the statesman, the politician, the diligent printer, or the thrifty tradesman; probably Franklin the man of literature never had a namesake. It is with the clear advantage of a fresh topic that Professor McMaster approaches a subject about which no author until now has seriously troubled himself. To be sure, Franklin holds, by common consent, at home and abroad, a high position in American letters, which has been accorded him in a generous but uncritical and unconcerned spirit. Mr. McMaster's genius for making entertainment out of all he writes does not now desert him; he could, we think, if he would, make even the authenticity of Shakspere's works a readable matter, and he would have been forgiven had he swollen this one small volume into two. It is plain, however, that he has felt a restraint in passing from the life history of a nation to the closer consideration of one individuality. The unkindest thing one would wish to say of this book is that its author is too fond of a literary coach and six not to find a monograph somewhat slow-paced. The same modesty and the same freshness which were so charming in his larger 'History,' are both here to maintain a growing reputation already enviable.

In no marked degree do the documents lately acquired by the State Department seem to have aided in strengthening previous knowledge about Franklin, or in more sharply defining his place in literature. Valuable as it no doubt is, it appears to be admitted that the "Stevens Collection" is to be chiefly useful for purposes of correction or verification, and that Mr. Bigelow's new edition of Franklin's works, so far as it has been reinforced by these papers, is sufficiently exhaustive and definitive. Mr. McMaster has fallen back upon his usual method of throwing the most brilliant side-lights possible upon his subject. His facile skill in exploring old newspapers and other contemporary sources has enabled him profitably to use materials not commonly yielding rich results to investigators as painstaking though not as dexterous as he. The "accessories" in Professor McMaster's style are often so dramatic or lively as to lend a sort of fictitious interest even to the character of the practical and hard-headed author of the 'Poor Richard Maxims.'

Everything which Franklin wrote or did had some clear purpose in view. There was in his nature no waste of force, and, what is more, no inner life, no intellectual retreat where he should abide apart for a season. His were not the usual habits of literary men, and hence it is, in literary annals, that his cannot be said to be an especially attractive or picturesque figure. He knew little of the horror of garrets, of hunger, or the rebuffs of the powerful. After the first few boyish, though always clever, successes in his brother's paper and elsewhere, he soon grew to know his own powers, and his shrewdness told him when to spread his pinions and when not to attempt vain flights. Success came surely to him after he had outwitted Bradford in Philadelphia, and in his newspaper and his pamphlets and in the Junto he had readers and listeners with whom he could do as he pleased, and therein he had arrived at the Utopia of editors and publishers. The literary Franklin can only be known by close attention to the details of his busy life, and therefore Prof. McMaster has not erred in making a biographical study in which the writings come in for no more than their due and proportional recognition. So large a share of Franklin's literary remains consists of scientific papers of a long out-dated value and of correspondence of quite unequal interest, that nothing could be stupider than a critique of his works apart from a consideration of his vivid personality.

Franklin plainly revealed himself in all he wrote, and this has given an air of sincerity which has much to do with the unbounded admiration still held for him in America, and, it may almost be said, yet more firmly held in Europe. It is not at all to the purpose to ask what manner of man Franklin in reality was; this book, with the wonted courtesy of its author, waives the decision of that question. Franklin laid himself bare to the world almost as unreservedly as did Cellini or Rousseau, and the lesson of his life, down to the final date in the Autobiography, is explicit enough, nor is there the slightest reason to suppose that the Ethiopian afterwards changed his skin, or even wished to perform that miracle. A confession with Franklin was both repentance and absolution. Though not a few refuse homage to the personal character of this most brilliant man of affairs of American history, the evil that he did seems not to have lived after him, at least it is not commonly remembered against him. Nor was the good interred with his bones, for his memory to most people is still of sweet savor.

Prof. McMaster has not, then, set himself the ungracious task of undoing a reputation—such is not the cast of his disposition. He is, however, characteristically frank. To some extent he appears to share in the opinion, openly expressed to this day in Philadelphia, that Franklin was a consummate master of the art of success, financial and political. The subject is not altogether pleasant, yet if any one cares to see how Franklin stands in the eyes of many now living in the city of his adoption, let him turn to Mr. Horace W. Smith's 'Life and Correspondence of the Rev. William Smith, D.D.' (vol. i, pp. 344, 587, and elsewhere). It is noteworthy that in Massachusetts, where ethical judgments passed on public men are surely as severe as they are anywhere, Franklin's popular fame cannot be said to be tarnished. Had anything seriously affecting Franklin's reputation for better or worse turned up in the so-called "Stevens Collection," it is certain that it would have been made good use of in this book, but no such historical "find" has disclosed itself. The one literary performance which might tell us more of the hinted-at Gallic tendency of Franklin's later ethics, will, in all likelihood, never see the light in any common edition of his works, unless Mr. Bigelow decides or is permitted to print it. We do not forget that the late Henry Stevens once announced the publication of this bagatelle, but if it ever was printed, it is now rare with a rarity which that eminent bibliographer could so well effect.

The Franklin whom Mr. McMaster has constructed, of materials which he has been at much labor to collect, is very real, though perhaps there is not quite enough of him, for at times he becomes indistinct in the maze of contemporary life in the midst of which he moved—always the central figure. Vivid indeed are the pages given to the great election of 1764, when Franklin and Galloway ran for the Assembly—an event which is still a live topic in the city where it was held. A remarkable event it was, not only on account of the modernness of its conduct, but because it settled the reputation of Franklin among men of his day, and to some extent for all time. He was so much a man of the nineteenth century that his "methods" in business and politics were those of to-day; the quality of his wit, too, was essentially modern. He always knew a "good thing," and he never neglected the main chance. Now he was recasting and improving adages borrowed from almanacs forty years old when he was born, now making practical use of electrical theories which he found revolving in the mind of the more retiring Ebenezer Kinnersley. One sowed and another watered, his genius gave the increase; the world was the wiser for it, and Franklin waxed fat with success.

There is a fine opportunity, which Professor McMaster neglected to "improve," for moralizing on the impossibility of any man, however great, repeating the successes of Benjamin Franklin. It is simply out of the question that he could, in this age, have been preëminent in so many directions, great as his success might have been in one or a few. A money-making man of to-day, conducting a successful newspaper like the *Pennsylvania Gazette*, which had run off all competitors, and carrying on at the same time a lucrative retail business, could not afford to go into politics. Franklin went on his European errands because he was patriotic and ambitious as well to go, and because, too, he had made enough money to keep him comfortable in any event. Nowadays such a political mission would be ostentatiously made at a "great personal sacrifice." In literature, as in business and statecraft, it should always be remembered that he never had a rival worthy of the name. His mechanical genius was of a direct but not transcendent sort, so that, did he lay sticks for a fire, or hang a door, no one ever seems before to have done the thing at all well. How much of guile or sordidness there was in his nature is not to the point; he certainly was one of the few men of his time to discover that simplicity, like honesty, is a good policy. This unpretentiousness, assumed or not, of speech, garb, and literary style explains much of his success in France. While Lee chafed, and Adams was "respectable" and distant, Franklin was delighting everybody, from Court to populace, by eccentrically minding his own business, meanwhile in reality looking after the fate of a new nation, with his own *bonhomie*, of course. That he walked in the counsel of the ungodly is plainly shown in the flippant but clever pages of Bachaumont, but calumny did not seem to touch his skirts. There is reason to think that he held, as Disraeli did, later, that women's aid is an absolute necessity to political as well as social success. The French Court did not lack, at that time, those who were only too ready to be flattered into usefulness. To the last he was a French wit and man of the world, yet we choose to remember him as making pious and edifying suggestions, in his serene old age, before the Federal Convention, which we forget were dictated by policy as well as by conscience. Results achieved are what his countrymen have been wont to admire in Franklin. Their forbearance towards the manner of his successes and his moral insouciance has been of that easy, tolerant kind, of which Franklin so highly approved in several of his smaller writings.

What he wrote was after all but an outward expression of what he was. Even his *jeux d'esprit*, of which he was so vain, had practical ends. A perfect understanding of his whole life seems unavoidable if we would know his force as a man of letters. Such breadth of treatment may at times have lost sight of the primary object, but it shows a fairness due a great man by placing him on a large stage. More minuteness occasionally would not have injured the general plan. Considering the space given to the subject of piracy, which is suggested by Franklin's juvenile ballad-making on that always fascinating topic, it might be just to complain that further on Mr. McMaster has devoted too

little attention to the vastly more important political meetings. Of some of the most interesting of those papers which best illustrate Franklin's purely literary style, no account is taken, beyond a bare mention of their titles. Some attention certainly should have been paid to Franklin's theories of a revised orthography on a phonetic basis, and of his relations with Webster in this matter—a subject on which little of a satisfactory nature has as yet been written. The memorial to Congress from the Pennsylvania Society for the Abolition of Slavery is unhesitatingly ascribed to the pen of Franklin. This, we had supposed, was not a certainty, although he signed the document. On page 271 it is stated that "Mr. Parton and Mr. Bigelow alone have reprinted Polly Baker's speech." It is worthy of remark that it was reprinted in *Hall's Law Journal* in 1813; in connection with which fact, two interesting notes are to be seen in the *Nation* for November 7 and December 26, 1878 (vol. 27, pp. 285, 398), in the first of which is given a summary of the famous speech.

Professor McMaster calls for a better edition of selections from Franklin's best literary productions. No one could do this more skilfully than himself. It might make Franklin's writings better known than in fact they are. Even the immortal Autobiography is in danger of being more talked about than read. Mr. Bigelow has, it is a pleasure to see, put Franklin's conjectural contributions to the *Pennsylvania Gazette* into his latest edition; it now remains for some one to reprint the "Dogood" papers, Franklin's earliest efforts, to which Mr. Parton first called attention, and quotations from which Professor McMaster freely cites, having apparently no doubt as to the author. Mr. Bigelow thus far ignores these early attempts, although he prints Franklin's "Skeleton sketch of the topics for the Autobiography," in which he admits the authorship of them.

STEWART AND GEE'S PHYSICS.

Lessons in Elementary Practical Physics. By Balfour Stewart, M.A., etc., and W. W. Haldane Gee. Vol. I. General Physical Processes. 8vo, pp. xvi, 291. Vol. II. Electricity and Magnetism. 8vo, pp. xx, 497. Macmillan & Co. 1885, 1887.

In 1870 the late Prof. Stewart published an elementary treatise on physics (3d ed., 1886) to which he gave the title 'Lessons in Elementary Physics.' We cannot regard the title as well chosen. It is true the chapters were divided into "lessons," presumably to render the work more convenient for use as a text-book; but this fact did not render the word a fitting one to go upon the title-page. In that position, so far as it conveyed any impression at all, it was one which was misleading, and calculated to hide the real merits of the work. When we take up a book entitled 'Lessons' in any science, we can hardly avoid the impression that it is somewhat fragmentary and disconnected; that it treats of special points which the author considered interesting or important, but that it does not pretend to be a systematic text-book or treatise on the subject to which it relates. But Prof. Stewart's book was by no means one of this kind. It began at the beginning, covered the whole ground, and, so far as regards fundamental principles, was a well-digested, well-developed, and very complete work. It was, in fact, an elementary treatise on physics, designed for use as a text-book in schools and for private study, and this, or something equivalent to this, should have been its title.

The work before us is of an entirely different character. When completed by the publication of the third volume on 'Heat, Light, and Sound,' supposing that volume to be constructed on the same plan as those which have already appeared, and considering the size of the volumes, it will be at least four times as large as the elementary work to which we have referred. Its title differs from the title of that work only by the insertion of the word "practical." But the work is not practical as opposed to theoretical. A large portion of the experiments are inserted for the sole reason that they serve to illustrate physical theories and are the foundations on which those theories are based. Neither is the work practical in the sense that its main object is to teach the application of physics to the business affairs of life. Of course very much is contained in the volume on electricity and magnetism the knowledge of which is of the greatest utility, even indispensable, to the electrical engineer, to the manufacturers of electrical machines, to the managers of telegraphs and telephones, and various others; but the object of the book is not to teach these gentlemen their business. The telegraph and the telephone are treated not as a means—at which we have not yet ceased to wonder—of communication between widely separated persons, but as the means nearest at hand to illustrate and explain some of the most important phenomena of that mysterious agent which promises so much and of which we still know so little. The work is, in fact, a treatise on experimental physics, and is practical in the sense of giving minute directions for the actual performance of those experiments upon which the science is based.

In what sense it is called an elementary work it would be hard to say. It is true that it gives detailed directions for the performance of the simpler as well as the more complicated experiments—for those that require only such simple apparatus as most students can prepare for themselves, as well as those which require the intervention of complicated and costly machines. But no one should be misled by the use of the word elementary on the title-page into the supposition that the work is suited for beginners. A large portion of the work would be of little or no use to those who had not previously studied some elementary treatise on physics, and for this preparatory study the elementary treatise first mentioned will on the whole be found the best, especially because it was written by the best-known author of the present work. But, whatever introductory treatise may be used, we can safely say of the students in high schools and colleges, that the more they already know of the science of physics, and the more ample the means of performing experiments to which they have access, the more useful they will find this work.

A considerable knowledge of the science, or rather sciences, of physics, is not the only qualification which the authors of this work assume that the student possesses. The number of mathematical formulæ is very great. This was unavoidable. The mathematical method is the only clear and satisfactory method in which a large part of the science can be treated. The authors seem to have made special efforts to render everything as clear and simple as possible; but if any one will look at "Lesson xix. General Theory of the Balance" (vol. i, p. 63), or "Chapter v. The Tangent Galvanometer" (vol. ii, pp. 225–274), he will see that they will be of very little use to him unless he is "well up" in his algebra, geometry, and trigonometry, and that in the former an acquaintance with the principles of the lever is also necessary. The processes of the differential and integral calculus are sometimes introduced, for example, in the chapter on Elasticity (vol. i, ch. vi), but not to such an extent as to render an ignorance of that branch of mathematics a serious impediment to the use of the work.

The chapters into which the work is divided commence usually with a short general introduction, giving such definitions and explanations as are necessary to the understanding of the lessons which follow. This general introduction is, however, sometimes omitted, and, as in the first chapter of the volume on Electricity and Magnetism, we are immediately set to work. The lessons are constructed throughout on one invariable and consistent plan; the metrical system, in the form known as the C. G. S. (Centimètre, Gramme, Second) system of measurements being, in almost all places employed, though ample tables and directions for converting the metrical into English measures are given. The opening lesson of vol. ii, which plunges at once *in medias res*, will serve as a specimen of all. It is entitled "Electrification by Friction and Conduction." First we have a minute statement, under eleven distinct heads, of the necessary "Apparatus." In order to show the minuteness and detailed accuracy and clearness with which this statement is made out, we will quote some of the divisions; we have not room for the whole:

"(1.) Two pieces of glass tubing about 350 mm. long by 15 mm. in diameter. Each must be closed at one end by the blow-pipe. The tubes must be thoroughly clean and dry. The open end should be closed by a cork to keep out dust. (2.) Several ebonite penholders. . . . (6.) A piece of catskin or other fur. . . . (11.) Several mètres of silk thread."

Then follows: "Experiment I. Electrification by Friction." And first we have a clear and precise statement of what the experimenter must do, and lastly a statement of the results, the inferences to which they necessarily lead, and the principles they appear to establish. Next comes "Experiment II. Electrification by Conduction," on the same general plan. This experiment is followed by a table containing "a list of substances in their approximate order of conductivity." Finally, we have: "Experiment III. All substances of a different nature may be electrified by being rubbed together." With a model example of the course to be pursued in order to establish this principle, the lesson ends. Two engravings of parts of the apparatus employed in these experiments are inserted in the text. The whole work is abundantly supplied with engravings made from drawings or photographs taken directly from the apparatus itself.

In the preface to the first volume the authors express the hope that their work may prove of use to three classes of students: "in the first place, those who are attending an elementary course in a well-furnished laboratory; secondly, those who have access to a laboratory containing only a few instruments; and thirdly, those who are desirous of acquiring a knowledge of the processes of physics while they have not the opportunity of working in any laboratory. This last class will value the engravings we have given." To the first class of students this work will be simply invaluable. By keeping it near at hand when working in the laboratory, they will save a vast amount of time and trouble to themselves in asking, to their teachers in answering, a multitude of questions. To the second class, so far as the apparatus to which they have access extends, the same remarks will apply as to the first; so far as they are obliged to do without apparatus they belong to the third class. The third class, who depend upon books alone, will, for the most part, be made up of those who have previously studied some elementary text-book of

natural philosophy, and whose tastes lead them to desire a more extended acquaintance with the subject. Such persons will find in these volumes an elaborate description, accompanied with engravings, of the construction and manipulation of almost every instrument and machine that is found in the best furnished physical laboratories. By far the larger portion of the experiments will be perfectly intelligible to such readers. Precautions to be observed by the operator in order to avoid injury to himself or his instruments, and to secure a successful result to his experiments, directions for the care and preservation of apparatus when not in use, and other practical details, are given in their proper places throughout the work. We take it for granted that the concluding volume will contain an index to the whole work, though we cannot affirm that such an assumption is based upon the usual practice of the authors and publishers of English text-books.

We regret to say that since the above review was prepared, we have been obliged to insert the word "late" before the name of Prof. Stewart in its opening sentence; he died suddenly on the 21st of December last in the sixty-first year of his age. We are, however, glad to notice that the third and concluding volume of the joint work was left "in an advanced state of preparation," and its plan had been so clearly marked out in the two volumes already published that we do not doubt his collaborator, Mr. Gee, will be able to give it to the world in substantially the form it would have had had Prof. Stewart lived to see it through the press.

The Principles of the Art of Conversation. By J. P. Mahaffy. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1888.

Mr. Mahaffy likens conversation to rhetoric and logic, and attempts to state its principles, as if these were capable of being taught; and he really succeeds in making a little formal disquisition so ingeniously systematic as to impose on one for an analytical and expository treatise. But, as a matter of fact, he has written a much more engaging thing than a scientific inquiry into the first principles of a new art; he is interested in improving the natural social gifts of men and women, in getting them to talk together with more pleasure to one another, and in warning them of the shoals and reefs on which conversation is commonly wrecked in small and large companies. His suggestions are general, but instructive; his observations are entertaining, and this, if he is to be taken literally, is of much more importance. He adopts, without reservation, the view that social gatherings are for amusement; the chief end of man in company is to please, and the other purposes of his being, if he has any, must be swallowed up in this or be laid aside for the nonce. Conversation, under this rule, is a department of manners, and lives by the vigor of the one great social virtue, which is to please at all costs. If the lion tyrannizes, or the old raconteur drags, or the youth is aggressive, then failure begins to set in; the subject may be all important, the specialist still be instructive, and novel facts and apposite illustrations still be elicited, but if the company tires, socially speaking, there is an end of everything.

In the author's anxiety to protect us from being bored, he pushes his zeal for the cause of mere entertainment to all lengths. He has a few paragraphs on "stupid truthfulness" even, and shields himself behind Aristotle in declaring that a too great regard for veracity spoils conversation. He quotes with approval the wit who pronounced it the golden rule of talk "to know nothing accurately," and at last rises to the height of the occasion with the remark that "to ask, Is that really true? or to exclaim, Really, that is too much to expect us to believe! shows that the objector is a blockhead unfit for any amusing conversation." But not to commit those two unpardonable errors of dwelling too long upon a topic, or of taking an extreme statement too seriously, surely, although to please be one great end of conversation, as it is of life generally, nothing will be lost by taking care in regard to the means by which we please when that is a conscious aim. The man who is heightening and coloring what is on its face a description of facts, merely to make himself more amusing, is a poor spectacle, and no one respects him at the time when he is known to be playing the trick. The matter of openly doubting the veracity of any one who is speaking is another question, involving a different sort of propriety; but the practice of mixing truth and fiction according to the taste of the company is a most insidious habit, and opens the way to all kinds of that injustice to persons which ranges from humorous gossip to hateful scandal. Truth is a good enough friend to be borne with, even when "stupid."

Is it so very clear, after all, that to please is the chief end of social man? In a general way, of course, every one consents to the dictum as a truism; but Mr. Mahaffy is in search of a philosophy of the matter, and has, besides, a knack for ulterior analysis, and more exact ideas may be fairly required of him. He seems to us to save himself after the fashion of most stoics who divert themselves at odd moments with playing at being epicureans: he has a standard of pleasures, and into these a moral element enters with controlling force. The society which he has ideally in view is cultivated, intelligent, curious, alert, and as pure as could be expected; the subjects which interest it must have value of some sort in order to get discussed at all. The qualities which distinguish this society are enumerated as modesty, simplicity, unselfishness, sympathy, and tact; the shy man and the blunt man are ruled out as impracticable, and he who is silent because of his timid vanity is excommunicated without grace. Women especially are given an independent and respected position, gallantry towards them in the old style is declared to be vulgar now, and it is insisted on as a prime point that they should meet and be met with on the same mental plane as men. In short, here are the tastes, culture, knowledge, and manners of a high civilization, and to please such a society might well be made an aim of our conversation and of our life also, if we were only sure that society is practically such. Here and there in this text, however, are enough indications of the weaknesses of these cultivated groups; it is plain that one would find himself talking gossip and scandal, and permitting whatever has lost its grossness in the alembic of witty words, if he consents to take for his sole rule and guide the knowledge of what will most please. And what shall be said of a "principle" that cannot be applied to all places in which the "art" in question is practised? Where lower tastes prevail and coarser pleasures are most relished, the talk, governed by this criterion of "what pleases" merely, may be mean, cruel, or foul, or whatever of wickedness that unruly member, the tongue, can compass. "To please" is the end of every fine art, but much deeper probing is required to disclose their nature; and so it is with conversation.

Independently of these general questions, which must be touched on of necessity in a volume of first principles, Mr. Mahaffy's dissertation is a very practical and useful one. His treatment is light, but thorough, and he pursues his subject with unflagging spirit through all its compass. Host and guests may equally learn from him. The modifications of attitude and approach consequent on differences of years, station, or education, the availability of general and special knowledge, books, reminiscences, and *la chronique scandaleuse*, as topics, and all such matters, are examined with critical discrimination. Suggestions are cleverly and frankly made. The author fairly wins a hearing for himself. Yet, after all this laborious inquiry into the proper conversational behavior of a mature man or woman to a monarch or a tradesman, a cricketer or a débutante, a Nestor of the old régime or the last arrival from Bechuanaland, one feels that the discussion has gone on in a make-believe place, because of the variety of human character which limits the theorizing. The art, like that of politics, is in its practice too specific for any but the vaguest rules. It comes to little else than this, at the end of Mr. Mahaffy's interesting lecture, that an amiable man will endeavor to discover what freemasonry there is between himself and his chance acquaintance wherein they can meet equally, and will then engage the other's mind with what is welcome to it, and in his own turn will be willing to accept the same treatment, and all the while he will maintain the character habitual to him. The style in which he will do this depends on temperament, early training, and national usages rather than on book instruction; in this case, preëminently, the style is the man. But if Mr. Mahaffy leads his readers to expend a leisure hour of reflection on the use of the tongue, which is a subject not too much thought about, his somewhat worldly sermon will have gone to its work.

Story of the Old Willard House, of Deerfield, Mass. By Catharine B. Yale. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 4to. 1887.

One must read between the lines to gather from this paper, read a year ago before the Pocumtuck Valley Memorial Association, that Mrs. Yale is describing her present home. The old house has repaid the conscientious workmanship bespoken for it by its builder, resisting the assaults of time, remaining both habitable and attractive, and connecting itself in its continuous occupation with many notable New England families and events. The northeast wing antedates the Indian burning of the town in 1704, the then owner's wife and six children being carried off captive: "one child was killed, the rest were taken to Canada, one came back, two were known to have married Indians." The second owner's son, born in the house, was the father of Ethan Allen. The Manse was built by Joseph Barnard in 1768, after thirteen years had been spent in selecting the timber, and the head carpenter was probably the great-grandfather of Mr. D. R. Locke, better known as the cross-roads humorist, "Petroleum V. Nasby." Joseph's son, Samuel Barnard, graduated from Harvard in 1762, and was sent up to the General Court in 1773 by a town meeting which listened to a paper on the wickedness of the slave-trade — one of the forthcoming counts against George the Third in Thomas Jefferson's rough draft of the Declaration. He married Abigail Upham, doubtless of the Salem family, and their three oldest daughters were married on one day at the Manse in 1792. Two years later the house was sold to a great-grandson of the Rev. John Williams, the famous "Redeemed Captive" of Indian story. The purchaser was another Harvard graduate, and in 1807 leased the house to Hosea Hildreth, preceptor of the old Deerfield

Academy; and during his occupancy a third and yet more distinguished Harvard graduate was born to him there—Richard Hildreth, the historian of the United States. Mrs. Hildreth was the aunt of the late George Fuller, the artist, called by Mrs. Yale "Deerfield's most illustrious citizen." In 1811 the Manse passed into the hands of the Rev. Samuel Willard, who lived in it till 1859, with an interval of seven years. He was a nephew of Joseph Willard, President of Harvard, and graduated himself at that college in 1803. The conflict over his ordination in Deerfield "was really the beginning of the 'Unitarian movement in Western Massachusetts,' as this theological departure was called." Of this estimable man and his family Mrs. Yale is able to make a substantial presentation. Among their guests were the great lights of the denomination, radical and conservative—Channing, who was often there, Henry Ware, father and son, John Pierpont, Francis Parkman, father of the historian, Emerson—along with our friends the Lymans of Northampton. For the period following 1859 Mrs. Yale gives no precise dates. A temporary resident, at a time when the house seems to have been let to more than one family, was Jonathan A. Saxton, from Harvard again, a contributor to the *Dial*, and father of Gen. Saxton, military governor of Beaufort, S. C., in 1864—in contrast to another inmate, the Rev. Rodolphus Dickinson (Yale, 1805), who had been a pastor of John C. Calhoun at Greenville, S. C.

Mrs. Yale's well-written narrative is pleasantly tinged with sentiment and antiquarianism, and is illustrated by pen drawings of the Manse and its members. The typography is open and elegant, and the thin volume has an appropriate shape for the parlor table. Still, a better conception of the mode of publication would, in our view, have been a smaller volume, of a shape fit for the shelf, if not even for the pocket, with etchings or photogravures in place of the present designs.

La Noble Leçon. Texte original d'après le MS. de Cambridge, avec les variantes des MSS. de Genève et de Dublin. Publié par Édouard Montet. 4to. Paris. 1888.

Professor Montet of the University of Geneva has already earned the gratitude of all students of the religious development of Europe by his 'Histoire littéraire des Vaudois du Piémont,' in which he gave a careful analysis of the existing remains of Waldensian literature as preserved in the MSS. of Cambridge, Dublin, Geneva, Strassburg, and other libraries. That work was the most important contribution as yet made to the accurate knowledge of the gradual evolution of the Waldensian beliefs, and served to dispel many errors which had been commonly entertained on the subject. He has now placed scholars under renewed obligations by a critical edition of the most notable of Waldensian writings, founded on the oldest and best existing MS., with the variants of the others. This he accompanies with a current French translation, and with two versions executed by MM. Chabrand and Vilielm, in the modern patois of the valley of Quévas and the Val San Martino. These afford a valuable opportunity for philological comparison, and one can only hope that on some future occasion M. Montet may be induced to print the extended investigation of the various Waldensian dialects, and their variations from the earliest times, which he had prepared to accompany the present work.

The 'Noble Leçon' has been deservedly the object of much interest. In a poem of less than five hundred lines it embodies an abstract of God's dealings with man as revealed in Scripture, and presents the belief and moral teachings which were deemed essential by the Christians of the Waldensian valleys. Its noble simplicity and earnestness reflect the purity of faith and morals to which the persecuted saints so often sealed their devotion with their blood, and there are few remains of the Middle Ages which give to the inquirer a clearer insight into the thoughts and aspirations of the period. What that period was has been the subject of prolonged controversy. The one weakness of the Waldenses was the belief that their sect dated back to the times of Pope Silvester I., and that they could trace an unbroken descent from the purity of the primitive Church. There was thus a temptation to antedate all their monuments, and show that they had a well-defined faith before Peter Waldo, about 1170, commenced his missionary work. One MS. of the 'Noble Leçon' reads, in the seventh line, "Ben ha mil e cent ans cumpli entieràment," which was held to show that the poem was composed about the year 1100 A. D. Modern researches, however, have brought to light older MSS., in which the line reads "Ben ha mil e cccc. ans," and the best codex of all bears an erasure before the word "cent," in which the figure "4" had evidently existed originally, thus settling the date of production as in the neighborhood of the commencement of the fifteenth century—a conclusion harmonizing with the internal evidence of the poem and now generally accepted by scholars. M. Montet gives photographs of the passage in the four existing MSS., and his arguments to prove the correctness of this view will be generally received as final.

In an appendix he prints an abstract of a lately discovered Waldensian MS. now in the public library of Dijon, containing a number of tracts of much interest. The whole work is one which will be warmly welcomed by scholars as in every way worthy of his distinguished reputation.

Elizabeth Gilbert and her Work for the Blind. By Frances Martin, author of 'Angélique Arnauld,' etc., etc. Macmillan & Co.

This is another variation of a common theme—the development of faculty through limitation. Elizabeth Gilbert was born at Oxford, where her father was Principal of Brasenose College, in 1826. In her third year an attack of scarlet fever destroyed her sight, and bequeathed to her a general inheritance of ruined health. Throughout her childhood and her youth she was not unhappy, her misfortune attracting to her a great deal of sympathy and attention. It was when she came to the threshold of womanhood that the difference between her life and that of her several sisters came home to her with agonizing force. Then, in a happy hour, after a period of intense depression, threatening to shake her reason from its seat, she fell under the influence of Miss Bathurst, "one of the little band of so-called 'advanced' women who, about this time, 1850, were interested in every movement having for its object the development and intellectual culture of women, and the throwing open to them of some career other than matrimony," since that was evidently not possible or even desirable for all. Miss Bathurst's high enthusiasm was contagious, and communicated itself to her young relative and friend. Summoning to her aid an assistant teacher in the St. John's Wood School for the Blind, Miss Gilbert set up in a cellar in New Turnstile, Holborn, a shop for the sale of baskets made by blind persons, eight of whom had part in the original enterprise—one at the bleaching bin in the cellar, who in 1887 was still in the employ of the institution which engaged his services in 1854. Miss Gilbert had learned that it was not sufficient to give the blind a little education and a little skill in handicraft, and then turn them off upon the tender mercies of mankind. The most of them soon came to beggary when treated so. They must have shops of their own and special agencies for selling their goods. The cellar in Holborn was soon outgrown. An association was formed for carrying on the work. A letter from Miss Gilbert to the Queen brought £50, and set a good example. Miss Gilbert's father was now Bishop of Chichester, and had many influential friends, of whom Miss Gilbert availed herself with much discretion. So the good work went on. "Don't work yourself to death," a friend said to her one day. "I'm working myself to life," she answered with a laugh.

In 1866 the balance sheet of the association showed receipts amounting to £7,632. There were other signs of encouragement. The success of the London enterprise raised up a steadily increasing number of similar associations in Great Britain, and a report of the Pennsylvania Institution for the Instruction of the Blind brought to Miss Gilbert the assurance that her name was known and honored, and that her work was bearing fruit, on this side of the Atlantic. Before her death there were large and well-appointed workshops in almost every city of England, where blind men and women were employed, where tools had been invented or modified for them, and where agencies had been established for the sale of their work. Each success opened out into some new beginning, and she had just set her heart upon a scheme for the better education of the blind children of the poor, which no doubt her energy would have pushed to some successful issue, when her health, always miserable, showed signs of a complete collapse. Her years of painful invalidism were cheered by constant interest in a work so well established that it could go on without her guiding hand, and by the gratitude of many to whom she had been a priceless friend.

Miss Martin's book can hardly be considered an effective presentation of Miss Gilbert's life and work. It is much too long, and contains a good deal of matter that is not relevant and rather mars than helps the one impression it was most desirable to make. But in and between the lines we read the story of a life saved from misery and despair by its consecration to the welfare of other lives equally marred and less protected than Miss Gilbert's own. It will be strange if such a story does not rebuke the selfishness of some who are in full possession of their health, their senses, and their intellectual powers.

Ancient Nahuatl Poetry: Containing the Nahuatl text of xxvii ancient Mexican poems, with a translation, introduction, notes, and vocabulary. By David G. Brinton, M. D., Professor of American Linguistics and Archæology in the University of Pennsylvania. Philadelphia: D. G. Brinton. 1887.

This is the seventh volume of Brinton's "Library of Aboriginal American Literature." By publishing the Nahuatl text of these songs, Dr. Brinton has rendered a lasting service to American ethnology and linguistics. Similar native improvisations are found among many tribes, and even among such as stand on a much lower level of apparent culture than

did the Nahuatl-speaking Indians of Mexico, and it is to be hoped that students living among the Indians themselves will strive to follow the example set by Dr. Brinton in giving to the scientific world the original versions as far as possible. We may then also hope for an appreciation of native poetry according to its true value, for there is a wide difference between interpretations of it on the one hand from manuscripts, and on the other by one who has heard it from the natives themselves, and to whom they explained it according to their own conceptions and manner of thought. The Nahuatl Indian still improvises to-day in his native language. He will, also, while playing the guitar or the psalterio, fit in, so to say, "couplets" on the spur of the moment.

Although some doubts arise as to the antiquity of certain of the twenty-seven songs given by Dr. Brinton, there cannot be the slightest doubt as to their being *genuine Indian productions*, those attributed to Nezahualcoyotl perhaps excepted. In regard to these, objections occur which it is not the place here to consider. In this last volume, as well as in all of Dr. Brinton's previous works, it is much to be regretted that the learned author has not had an opportunity as yet of becoming intimately acquainted with the true nature of the American native through long personal contact. Such an amount of practical knowledge would greatly enhance the value of his meritorious efforts.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adventures of Baron Munchausen. Illustrated. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.75.
Alexander, Mrs. Mona's Choice. Henry Holt & Co. $1.25.
Amherst Alpha Delta Phi. 1837–1887. Flemming, Brewster & Alley.
Anderson, R. B. Nordisk Mythologi. Oversættelse ved Dr. Fr. Winkel Horn. Christiania: A. Cammermeyer.
Ballou, M. M. Under the Southern Cross; or, Travels in Australia, Tasmania, New Zealand, Samoa, and Other Pacific Islands. Boston: Ticknor & Co. $1.50.
Bannatyne, D. J. Handbook of Republican Institutions in the United States. Scribner & Welford.
Barnard, C. First Steps in Electricity. For the Instruction of Young People. Charles E. Merrill & Co. 75 cents.
Bellamy, E. Looking Backward. 2000–1887. Boston: Ticknor & Co. $1.50.
Binet and Féré. Animal Magnetism. D. Appleton & Co.
Bingham, Capt. D. The Bastille. Scribner & Welford. 2 vols.
Bolles, A. S. The National Bank Act and its Judicial Meaning. Homans Publishing Co. $3.
Brown, Dr. F. H. The Medical Register for New England. Boston: Cupples & Hurd.
Chesterfield, Lord. Letters, Sentences, and Maxims. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Colvin, S., and Ewing, J. A. Papers, Literary, Scientific, etc., by the late Fleeming Jenkin. Longmans, Green & Co. 2 vols. $10.50.
Comegys, B. B. An Order of Worship and Forms of Prayer for Divine Service. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Conant, F. O. History and Genealogy of the Conant Family in England and America. Portland, Me.
Darwin, C. Journal of Researches into the Natural History and Geology of the Countries Visited during the Voyage of H. M. S. *Beagle* Round the World. T. Nelson & Sons. $1.50.
Daudet, A. Trente ans de Paris. Paris: Marpon & Flammarion; Boston: Schoenhof.
Davies, Rev. D. S. Manual of Sonography. A New Joined-Vowel Script System of Shorthand. E. P. Dutton & Co.
Faguet, E. Notices littéraires sur les Auteurs français. Paris: Lecène & Oudin; Boston: Schoenhof.
Fairbank, H. W. The School Album: New Songs for Day Schools. Chicago: S. R. Winchell. 30 cents.
Fenn, G. M. The Story of Antony Grace. D. Appleton & Co. 50 cents.
Franzos, K. E. For the Right. Harper & Bros.
Froude, J. A. The English in the West Indies: or, the Bow of Ulysses. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.75.
Harper's Bazar. Vol. XX. 1887.
Harper's Monthly. Vols. LXXIV, LXXV. 1887.
Harper's Weekly. Vol. XXXI. 1887.
Harper's Young People. Vol. VIII. 1887.
Harris, Amanda B. American Authors for Young Folks. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.
Hastie, W. Outlines of the Science of Jurisprudence. Translated and Edited from the Juristic Cyclopædias of Puchta, Friedländer, Falck, and Ahrens. Scribner & Welford.
Hogan, Katherine E. A Popular Mineralogy and Geology. A. Lovell & Co. 50 cents.
Hosmer, H. L. Bacon and Shakespeare in the Sonnets. San Francisco: The Bancroft Co.
Howard, J. R. Patriotic Addresses in America and England, from 1850 to 1885, on Slavery, the Civil War, and the Development of Civil Liberty in the United States. By Henry Ward Beecher. Fords, Howard & Hulbert.
Howells, W. D. A Fearful Responsibility. Boston: Ticknor & Co. 50 cents.
Hugo, V. Dramatic Works. Hernani, The King's Diversion, Ruy Blas. Scribner & Welford.
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Linderfelt, K. A. Volapük: An Easy Method of Acquiring the Universal Language. Milwaukee: C. N. Caspar.
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Pearson, F. W. Miñon: A Tale of Love and Intrigue. The Welles Co. 50 cents.
Queen Money. By the Author of 'The Story of Margaret Kent.' Boston: Ticknor & Co. $1.50.
Riddell, Mrs. J. H. The Nun's Curse. D. Appleton & Co. 50 cents.
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Sargeant, Adeline. Roy's Repentance: A Novel. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 9, 1888.

The Week.

THE revision of the civil-service rules is generally recognized as marking another step forward in the march of reform. The only intelligent criticism which we find anywhere is that which is directed against the refusal by the President to endorse the rule recommended by two of the three Commissioners, that the appointing officer should be required to file a written statement of the cause of dismissal in every case. We are aware that not a few civil-service reformers have always favored a regulation of this sort, and there is something to be said in its favor, but the arguments on the other side appear to us much the stronger. It constantly happens in private business that an employer thinks it wise to discharge a man because he is not entirely satisfied with the manner in which he does his work, although it would often seem too harsh to charge the delinquent publicly with neglect of duty. The same thing is always liable to happen in a public office. The civil service cannot be conducted efficiently if there must be a public trial every time that the head of an office thinks it wise to dismiss a subordinate. The competitive system renders it impossible to smuggle a man into a vacancy, and thus removes the only really dangerous motive for making a vacancy. With admission to the service thus guarded, the length of retention may be left safely to the discretion of the appointing power.

Senator Kenna of West Virginia, in his speech on the tariff question last Thursday, opened a volume entitled 'Speeches and Reports on Finance and Taxation, by John Sherman, edited by himself,' and read a number of curious passages. In one of these the Ohio Senator said that it was absurd to use such general phrases as a protective tariff, a revenue tariff, a free-trade tariff, without defining them and telling what we mean by them, since any duties on imported goods were more or less in restraint of trade. "The expression a free-trade tariff involves an absurdity," he said. This being quite in harmony with President Cleveland's saying that "it is a condition, not a theory, that confronts us," and that "our progress towards a wise conclusion will not be improved by dwelling upon the theories of protection and free trade," we might infer that the President wrote his message immediately after a gratified perusal of Senator Sherman's speeches. Mr. Kenna, continuing his extracts from the volume, read another showing that it is "an absurdity to talk about a free-trade tariff and to talk about a protective tariff, because the wit of man could not possibly frame a tariff that would produce $140,000,000 gold without *amply* protecting American industry." The present tariff, Mr. Kenna said, was yielding $212,000,000. But no man could possibly cut it down to $140,000,000 without "amply" protecting American industry! But this was not all, nor the worst. Another paragraph from the book said:

> "If you reduce their productions [the manufacturers'] to a specie basis and put them on the same footing they were on before the war, *the present rates of duty would be too high.*"

The same or higher rates of duty are now existing that were in force when Mr. Sherman uttered this true saying, and, since specie payments have been long since restored, it follows that the present rates are too high and that President Cleveland is quite right.

Up to this point Mr. Kenna had done very well in exposing the shams of Mr. Sherman's recent speech on the tariff, but in an unguarded moment he dipped into another part of the Ohio Senator's record, showing how, at one time, the Senator advocated and actually carried through Congress a bill to promote the introduction of "contract labor" into this country. Mr. Sherman replied that he had no recollection of the bill or the speech. Mr. Kenna offered to show both to him. Mr. Sherman declined to look at them, but said he would look them up for himself. Mr. Kenna obligingly gave him the date, July, 1864. That furnished just the text that Mr. Sherman wanted. It was in the midst of the war that the bill to encourage contract labor was introduced. With 2,000,000 of our workingmen under arms down South, how could we get along without foreign labor? At that time he would have passed any law or done anything "to beat the Democratic party, because the success of that party was the dissolution of the Union." Having got on the war issue, Mr. Sherman began to grow strong, and after exciting the galleries with a pleasing picture of our brave Union soldiers cutting down the hosts of treason and rebellion in front, while foreign laborers were cutting down wheat, and corn, and oats in the rear, he manœuvred up to the tariff question in a broad way, avoiding any allusion to the sayings quoted by Mr. Kenna, and closed with general applause. Mr. Kenna's effort was a fresh illustration of the maxim that when you have fully made out your case, you had best stop.

The *Railroad Gazette* of Friday mentions the placing of an order for 30,000 tons of steel rails by the Pennsylvania Railway Company at $31.50 per ton, the order being divided between the Pennsylvania Steel Company, the Cambria Iron Company, and the Edgar Thompson Steel Works. So large an order as this necessarily establishes a price for a short time. There is reason to believe that the Committee of Ways and Means have fixed upon $11 per ton as the duty on steel rails in the new tariff bill, the present duty being $17. The latest London *Economist* received here quotes steel rails at £4 2s. 6d. to £4 5s. at Middlesborough. That is, the English price is about $20.50 per ton on the furnace bank. Add this price to the proposed duty of $11 per ton, and we have exactly the price at which the American steel-rail producers are voluntarily selling, no account being made of the freight from Middlesborough to Liverpool, from Liverpool to New York, and from New York to inland points. We trust that this coincidence between the price considered satisfactory by the steel-rail combination and the price at which rails could be got from abroad under a $11 duty if they could be transported by witchcraft, will save us from any great amount of wailing on this subject when the Tariff Bill comes up for debate, and spare all hands the necessity of showing that American labor is not ruined.

The customary plea against a repeal of the coal duty is that it would not do any good, because there is no foreign coal that could come in competition with American coal anyway. A morning contemporary publishes an interview with Mr. E. L. Morris, the agent of the West Virginia and Pittsburgh Railway Co., which owns and operates some bituminous mines on the other side of the Alleghanies. Mr. Morris says that in his opinion the repeal of the duty "would have no effect whatever." His reasons are, that "the Nova Scotia coal is of such inferior quality that a limited quantity would be used if it could be obtained without duty and without price; besides, some of the insurance companies (if not all of them) have refused to take risks on factories where this coal is now used in small quantities (in some parts of New England), and what is used is 'culm,' upon which the duty is only 30 cents a ton; the reason of this refusal is, the coal is liable to ignite by spontaneous combustion." Being asked how much of this Nova Scotia coal could be used in this country if there were no duties on it, he answered: "I do not think that an appreciable amount could be placed in the markets here, as it is not a suitable fuel for the manufacturers of this country." The conclusion would seem to be necessary and inevitable that the duty on coal is maintained *because it is of no use.* All the lobbying and wind work at Washington in favor of the coal tariff is kept up because there would be no coal imported even if it were admitted free. The duty was raised from 50 cents per ton to 75 cents a few years ago because no duty at all was necessary. We trust that Congressmen will not go crazy trying to understand this argument. We think that very little coal would be imported if the duty were repealed; but that little would be a help to New England manufacturers and smelters whose works are conveniently situated near the seacoast, and to whom a very little cheapening of fuel might be the difference between life and death to their industries. We agree with Mr. Morris that American coal-producers would suffer nothing.

What the outcome may be of the demand of the coal-miners in the Wyoming and Lackawanna districts for an advance of 15

per cent. in wages, it is very difficult to forecast. Probably the chief officers of the companies themselves do not know. It has been plain for some time that without a strike in these districts the Lehigh and Schuylkill strikers must fail. If Wyoming and Lackawanna could supply all the coal wanted by the public, it was simply a question of endurance in the other districts between the companies and the men, and of course the men must eventually yield, or see their places gradually filled by others who are willing to work for the wages offered. Rioting and Molly Maguireism may continue for a season, but the power of the law must overcome all resistance in the end, and it must be remembered, too, that Pennsylvania has a gallows in reserve for murderers. The demand of the Wyoming miners involves very weighty considerations. Can the country afford to pay 15 per cent. more for its fuel? Can anthracite coal compete with bituminous at such an advance, or at any advance, in those places where they come in competition with each other? Can the anthracite companies themselves compete with each other at an advanced price when it has been shown experimentally that one-half of them are able to supply the public demand for coal in the depth of winter, while the other half are idle? Upon the answers to these questions must depend the answers which the companies give to the demand for an advance. The questions are too complicated and far-reaching to be answered dogmatically. The only thing quite certain is that the law must be upheld at any cost. Whatever suffering may result, the right of laboring men to accept wages satisfactory to them and the right of the companies to hire men who are willing to work, must be maintained. It was maintained in the last great strike, and it will be so again. Perhaps the State of Pennsylvania will come to a decision upon this point all the sooner under the influence of a coal famine.

A pretty vigorous protest is coming up from the South against the "Adulterated Lard" Bill. The Mississippi Legislature has passed resolutions against it, and the Merchants' and Cotton Exchanges of New Orleans have sent protests against it to Congress. The New Orleans *Times-Democrat* calls it a bill "to reduce the value of cotton seed 50 per cent." It is very evident that the bill will not pass without a fight. Indeed, it is doubtful if it passes at all. If Congress is to undertake the regulation of all mixtures of food products, without reference to their character, deleterious or otherwise, it will not be able to abolish the internal-revenue system very soon. It is not pretended that mixing cotton-seed oil with lard injures the lard in any degree, but that it merely takes the place of a certain amount of lard in the market, and thus lowers the price just as oleomargarine lowered the price of butter. The bill is therefore a protective measure, and must be carried through on protective principles. We cannot see any difference between this bill and one which should seek to put a clog on new inventions. The discovery that butter can be made from the fat of a slaughtered ox as easily as from the cream of a living cow was a great boon to mankind, and one which cannot be suppressed, although it may be temporarily crippled by legislation. The discovery that the sun's light and heat work the same result in the production of edible fats in the seed of the cotton plant as in the fruit of the olive or in the bodies of swine is akin to it, and is likewise a benefit to the human race. Why should Congress undertake to prevent the diffusion of this blessing? If the proposed bill does not prevent it, the measure will be useless to those who now clamor for it.

Another "State-rights" decision has been rendered by the Republican Justices of the United States Supreme Court. The Alabama Legislature last year passed a law requiring locomotive engineers to have licenses. An engineer employed by the Mobile and Ohio Railroad Company, whose line extends beyond the State, neglected to get a license, and, upon being arrested for his neglect, sued out a writ of habeas corpus and got his case carried before the Supreme Court, his plea being that the act of the Legislature was in violation of that clause of the United States Constitution which confers upon Congress the power to regulate commerce among the States. The Court holds that, while it would be competent for Congress under this clause of the Federal Constitution to prescribe the qualifications of locomotive engineers for employment by carriers engaged in inter-State commerce, yet, as it had neglected to do so, the State of Alabama had the power to make such regulations as the one in question, and that the statute should stand, on the ground that "it is properly an act of legislation within the scope of the admitted power reserved to the State, to regulate the relative rights and duties of persons being and acting within its territorial jurisdiction, and intending to operate so as to secure for the public safety of person and property."

It is amusing to watch the applause with which the Blaine managers greet the campaign of the anti-Cleveland Democrats against the President. "Matt" Quay, the Republican boss of Pennsylvania, has taken the trouble to construct a table of delegates from the various States which foots up nearly enough anti-Cleveland men to prevent a two-thirds vote for the President, and he professes hope that the requisite number can be picked up from other States. The anti-Cleveland men in both parties are "banking" upon the two-thirds vote. The Republican Quays and the Democratic Hills alike admit that the President will have a large majority of the delegates, but they are trying desperately hard to figure out some way of preventing his getting two-thirds. This two-thirds rule is now more than half a century old, and it would seem as though it were about time to abolish it. Its first appearance was in the convention which renominated Jackson in 1832, when, pending the vote for a candidate for Vice-President, it was resolved "that two-thirds of the whole number of the votes in the convention shall be necessary to constitute a choice." During the ante-bellum period the slavery interest maintained this rule as an easy device for preventing the choice of a candidate objectionable to the South, but it has always been an undemocratic regulation, which survives only by force of inertia, and which ought to be done away with.

So far as the Democratic National Convention of 1888 is concerned, however, it is a matter of no consequence whether the two-thirds rule is abolished or not. The hopelessness of electing a third of the delegates against Cleveland is apparent at a glance when one examines the list which Boss Quay has made out. It is infinitely more likely that there will not be a vote against Cleveland in the Convention than that there will be a third of the delegates on that side. The only basis of an anti-Cleveland movement is the Hill outbreak in New York, and nobody familiar with the situation here believes that this State will send to the Convention a delegation opposed to the President's renomination. Outside of New York the Hill movement is almost invisible, and where it does attempt an appearance it is being quickly disposed of.

A stringent measure designed to prevent the use of money in nominating conventions and elections has been introduced in the Iowa Legislature. The bill provides that any person who votes fraudulently, or aids another to do so, either by threats or bribing or any other means, or who receives money or any other valuable thing, or the promise of it, for his vote, or even offers to vote in return for money or reward of any kind, or the promise of it, shall be guilty of a misdemeanor and liable to fine of not less than $200 and imprisonment of not less than thirty days; also, that any person who tries, either by the use of money or the promise of it, or by any kind of entertainment, to get support for himself for office, either in a primary, or convention, or election, shall be liable to the same punishment; all assessments for any except the legitimate expenses of election are forbidden, and any person soliciting from a candidate "money, property, drinks, cigars, or any valuable thing," for the purpose of obtaining the votes of others for such candidate, shall not only be liable to the same punishment, but shall be disqualified to vote in the election. Incorporated employers are forbidden to influence in any manner, either personally or through any one acting for them, the votes of their employees, either in primaries, conventions, or elections, under penalty of a fine not less than $1,000 nor more than $5,000.

Dr. McGlynn has at last admitted to his followers that he has no expectation of being restored to his old pastorate, or in fact to any other pastorate in the Catholic Church. He declared on Sunday night that he could not get back if he would, and he would not if he could. He would have been much

more frank and truthful had he made this statement months ago. Instead of doing so, he repeatedly assured his benighted followers that there was not only a chance but a strong probability that he would be restored. He went so far on the eve of election, in November last, to declare in the Academy of Music, that he had received private and trustworthy information that his case had been reconsidered at Rome, and that he was likely to be reinstated. There was not a word of truth in this, as any rational mind would have seen without the official contradiction which was immediately made, for the Catholic Church is not in the habit of "reinstating" its excommunicated priests who go about publicly after their excommunication shaking their fists at the Pope and all other of its authorities, and denouncing them as an "ecclesiastical machine." Henceforth McGlynn will devote himself to denunciations of the Pope, and possibly to "revelations" about other Church authorities,

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It appears to be generally believed on the Continent that the Pope has consented to mediate in Irish affairs, on which he now considers himself sufficiently well informed through the reports of Mgr. Persico. The Liberal Unionists have been flattering themselves for some time that such a gentlemanly, conservative man as the Pope is must be disgusted with the conduct of the Irish, and that the mission of the Duke of Norfolk, and the Queen's handsome present on his jubilee, must have confirmed him in his hostility to home rule, and made probable an early reprimand to the Irish clergy for meddling in politics. The latest reports are, however, that he is prepared to meddle in the matter only to the extent of recommending a partial adoption of Mr. Gladstone's scheme—that is, the concession to the Irish of a local legislature with more limited powers than Mr. Gladstone's was to have, and the retention of the Irish in an imperial Parliament in London.

The reception given in Dublin to Lord Ripon and Mr. Morley, besides being a welcome to them, has been a sort of counter demonstration, intended to neutralize the effects of that given some weeks ago to Lord Hartington and Mr. Goschen. This last was in no sense popular, and the recipients had to be carefully guarded by policemen during their stay. Any weight it had it derived from the number of professional men and landlords and bankers who took part in it, and the numbers of these classes were set out in the Conservative newspapers with amusing particularity. Mr. Goschen, in fact, went so far as to say in his speech that "wealth and intelligence" were everything in such matters, and numbers of no consequence. The Ripon-Morley demonstration, however, makes a very good comparative show in the matter both of wealth and intelligence. It has produced a remarkable list of professional men, merchants, and clergymen of all denominations also, and of course in numbers and enthusiasm it has outdone anything seen either in England or in Ireland for many years. The effect of this on the Tory press in London seems to have been somewhat stunning, mainly owing to the somewhat amusing theory which the editors have long been preaching, that the great bulk of the people of Ireland are hostile to the present agitation, but are terrorized into acquiescence by the National League, and have been made to elect the Parnellite members of Parliament by a system of intimidation. This is simply an expansion of Mr. Forster's notion that the troubles with which he had to contend were caused by a small class of "village ruffians," or petty local bullies, whose arrest and imprisonment would restore order and deliver the people from a cruel oppression. The most remarkable incident in the Ripon-Morley demonstration was, however, Lord Ripon's confession that he who, while belonging to to Mr. Gladstone's Government, had favored coercion, was now convinced that he was wrong. Lord Spencer, who had administered the Forster Coercion Act as Lord Lieutenant, made the same confession at Manchester on the same day. Of course the testimony of a man like Lord Spencer is worth more than that a mile of protests from the Hartingtons, Goschens, and those who have had no experience of Irish affairs.

The truth is, that the mere fact that the Government has to permit such a demonstration in the capital of the island makes its coercion policy ridiculous on its face. There is something farcical in trying to suppress an agitation supported by such manifestations as these, by inflicting sentences of one or two months' imprisonment on orators in other parts of the country, and locking up boys for kindling bonfires and news-venders for selling newspapers. To make such attempts as Mr. Balfour is engaged in successful, military force, used remorselessly and universally, is absolutely necessary. Men have to be shot by court-martial, and crowds dispersed by grape, and *all* newspapers suppressed or rigidly censured, and *all* orators silenced, and houses searched for papers at the discretion of the police. This is the way the Russians do it and the Turks do it and the Austrians used to do it, and the only way in which it was ever successfully done anywhere. The wonder is that Ruskin and Froude and other pessimistic politicians, who are mourning over the degeneracy of England, are not more saddened by the spectacle of nursery coercion which Mr. Balfour is affording them. It would make old Radetsky's sides ache with laughter if he were living.

English letters, no less than English and legal history and philosophy, have sustained a serious loss in the death of Sir Henry Maine. No man has in this century done so much to stimulate the study of the history of legal ideas, or has thrown so much light on the origin of political institutions. Much of his success was due to the charm of his style, which was remarkable for its lucidity, and he had in almost as great a degree as Tocqueville the gift of fascinating generalization. This led him in his last work on 'Popular Government,' when the conservative fibre in him had been hardened by years and infirmity, to make excursions into the region of contemporary politics, in which he did not always sustain his earlier fame for philosophic calm and breadth of judgment. But this book was so plainly a party pamphlet (it was, in fact, made up of contributions to a political magazine) that it did not lessen in any degree the weight of his authority in the fields which he had been the first to open, and his labors in which must keep his memory in undying honor.

The Paris *Temps* says that "people who ought to know" in France say that a remission of the duty of 30 per cent. now levied by us on imported foreign pictures would be injurious to French artists, because it would lead to the flooding of the American market with counterfeits, which would have a wide sale, because Americans know no better than to buy them, and because the American law offers no hindrance to their sale. The result would be after a while that French art would be utterly discredited in the eyes of connoisseurs, and the demand for French pictures would wholly cease. They suggest, as a remedy for this, that if the duty be abolished, the American Custom-house should require consular certificates of genuineness for all imported pictures. We fear, however, that before procuring this legislation, these anxious Frenchmen would have to convince a good many Congressmen that a forged picture is not just as good as a genuine one, and is not better if it be cheaper.

The story about the intention of the Mexican Government to place an export duty on ores has been as persistent in turning up in different and contradictory shapes, and has been as inherently improbable, as many another yarn telegraphed from that land where the imagination works so freely. First it was said to be a part of an English plot to interfere with American trade. This was soon denied, authoritatively, but was speedily followed by the assertion, which is the latest we have seen, that the duty was to be levied, and that it was at the instance of American capitalists who were to be benefited by it in some unknown way. As we say, the story is improbable on its face. Reference can only be to the ores of the precious metals, since Mexico produces an inappreciable quantity of any other kind. For the year 1885-86 her exports of metals other than gold and silver had a value of only $28,977. In the same year she sent out of the country gold and silver, in various forms, to the amount of $29,878,000. But Mexico can have no possible motive to tax the export of the precious metals. They are her chief medium of meeting her foreign obligations. For years they have constituted 75 per cent. of all her exports. Besides, she tried that last inheritance of the Spanish system—a duty on the exportation of money—long enough to find out its folly. It was abandoned only about a half dozen years ago, before the protests of houses engaged in foreign commerce. There is no likelihood whatever that it will be restored,

WHAT WILL RUSSIA DO?

ALTHOUGH the publication of the Austro-German Treaty of Alliance by order of the parties to it shows clearly enough that the two Powers believe Russia to be entertaining designs more or less hostile to the European peace, the remarkable and characteristic speech in which Prince Bismarck explained the situation to the Reichstag on Monday has undoubtedly had the effect of assuring the European public that there is no immediate danger of war. But nothing could be more Bismarckian than the way in which this assurance was conveyed. What he said was, in effect, that he was determined to have peace even if he had to fight for it. He mentioned, as among the guarantees of peace, that if necessary he would put one million of men on the French frontier, and another million on the Russian frontier; and intimated that if anybody disliked his peace-preserving arrangements, he would let loose the "*furor Teutonicus*" on him. He announced the peaceableness of France with a very droll air of patronage, and produced the Czar's private assurances to himself, with a sort of mock reverence. For the Russian press he expressed the most serene contempt, but admitted that the French newspapers occasionally merited the attention of anybody who wished to know whether the French were likely to behave in a disorderly manner. It would, in fact, probably have been hard for the Chancellor to express greater contempt for French government and politics than is conveyed in the words that "the French press represents a real power, which we have to take into careful consideration." A country in which newspapers can bring on war is to him the abomination of desolation. The object of his whole discourse was, in fact, to let both France and Russia, and the whole world, know that if war broke out, it would be the greatest the world ever saw, and that Germany would not be the first to ask for peace. Of course, this is a terrible way to assure civilized men that they may pursue their industry with a tranquil mind; but it is Bismarck's way, and, as long as he lives, Europe will probably know no peace that is not guaranteed by 8,000,000 or 10,000,000 soldiers.

The most important passage in the speech, as bearing immediately on the existing situation, was, however, this:

"After 1885 a state of affairs arose in Bulgaria which we had no call to remedy by force of arms, but which cannot alter in theory the rights that Russia carried home with her from the Congress. Whether, should Russia desire forcibly to urge these rights, difficulties would arise, I know not, nor does it concern us in any way. We shall not support forcible measures, nor shall we advise their adoption. Moreover, we do not believe such an inclination exists. In fact, it is pretty certain it does not. If, however, Russia, by diplomatic means, proposes even the intervention of the Sultan, I shall consider it the duly loyal German policy to adhere purely to the provisions of the Berlin Treaty, from which, as far as I am concerned, the feeling of the Bulgarians cannot cause any departure. Bulgaria will not object with sufficient strength to plunge Europe for its sake from Moscow to the Pyrenees, from the North Sea to Palermo, into a war the issue of which nobody can foresee. Perhaps after such a war we should surely know what we had fought for. [Laughter.]"

If there be any intention on the part of Russia to force a quarrel now with Austria, if her massing of troops on the Galician frontier means anything but what Prince Bismarck suggests that it means—a piece of preparation for some still unforeseen European crisis or complication—the situation in Bulgaria is at the bottom of it. The Principality of Bulgaria was created by the Treaty of Berlin. It was, in the language of the Treaty, "constituted an autonomous and tributary principality under the suzerainty of his Imperial Majesty the Sultan." The Treaty further provided that "the Prince of Bulgaria shall be freely elected by the population and confirmed by the Sublime Porte, with the consent of the Powers." Now, the Bulgarians have not yet succeeded in providing themselves with a Prince under these conditions. Russia expected that inasmuch as it was to the victories of her armies that the Principality really owed its existence, the Bulgarians would accept an unrecognized protectorate from her, and permit the Russian agent at Sofia to play the part of the British "Residents" at the courts of the native princes in India; and that she would be allowed to nominate the Prince whom the population was, under the Treaty of Berlin, "freely to elect," and whom the Sultan was to approve and the Powers consent to.

All that was known of the Bulgarians before the war of 1877 justified this expectation. It was not supposed they could produce for many years to come either soldiers or politicians. They had figured for centuries in Turkish history as a race of patient, plodding, much-enduring peasants, without leaders or thinkers. The world was astonished, and Russia more than the rest of the world, to find that they had during the previous twenty-five years been furnished, mainly through the Roberts College at Constantinople, with an educated class large enough to supply plenty of orators, writers, politicians and soldiers to work the new constitution. Under this educated class the population proceeded to constitute a Bulgaria of its own. The Russian agents were set at naught or driven out, and a Prince was elected who never succeeded in getting either the approval of the Sultan or the consent of the Powers. He was forced to abdicate by Russian threats working on broken nerves, and another was put in his place under similar conditions. The Sultan still does not approve, and the Powers do not consent—Russia least of all; but what is to be done about it? If there is to be interference, it must be joint interference, or interference by one Power as the mandatory of the others. The Sultan is afraid to stir, owing to the horror with which Europe justly views the action of Turkish troops in Christian territory. Russia cannot interfere without being treated by Austria and England as an interloper and violator of the Treaty of Berlin. In the meantime, however, Bulgaria is increasing in wealth and prosperity and self-confidence, and is every year less and less inclined to brook any outside interference with her affairs, and the Czar is all the while exposed to the reproaches of his own people for the manner in which he has been ousted from what they consider his legitimate influence in the Balkan Peninsula.

It will be easily seen that this situation is for Russia a painful one, hard to endure. Prince Bismarck's speech does not offer any way out of it. All the comfort he proposes is that "if Russia calls on us to support, in our communications with the Sultan's Government, such of her claims as are compatible with the decisions of the Berlin Congress, I shall have no hesitation in doing so." But the only claim Russia can make "compatible with the decisions of the Berlin Congress" is that the Bulgarians shall elect a Prince to be approved by the Sultan and confirmed by the Powers. For the contingency of their refusing or neglecting to do so, the Berlin Congress made no provision at all, and this is why Russia is moody and bellicose. Moreover, if she ventured a conflict with Austria and Germany, she would have not only to face Germany and Austria but Bulgaria, which can undoubtedly put 50,000 good troops in the field, and Servia, which can put as many more that are just as good if well led, and Rumania, which can probably put 150,000 in the field that are better than either. All these principalities look on Russia now as the only enemy they have to fear, after having looked to her for two centuries as their one possible deliverer and friend. In addition to these, she would have to bear the whole brunt of the Austrian attack, and at least half that of Germany, even supposing France were to take the field as her ally; for it is part of the agreement that in case France intervenes, Italy shall assail her on the south with 300,000 men. A conflict of this kind, which would set the whole European continent on fire, and the like of which has not been seen since the overthrow of the first French Empire, is not one in which Russia is likely to enter without great hesitation, even if the Czar be as morbid as he is said to be, and "the war party" as influential with him as it is said to be.

It is quite true that all that Russia has to fear from the direct effects of the war is exhaustion, such as overtook her at the close of the Crimean war. She is not a commercial country, and has therefore no serious derangement of trade to fear. Her currency is simply irredeemable paper, which can be expanded indefinitely. Her population is mainly agricultural, and would therefore suffer little from war except through the drafts it would make on labor; but these drafts would be tremendous, for the losses of Russian armies in the field, owing to defective commissariat and medical arrangements, are usually enormous. Moreover, there is probably no country so secure against invasion. No conqueror would make any permanent gain by crossing her frontier. Both her capitals are practically secure against attack, which cannot be said of any other in Europe, except, perhaps, London.

But then it has to be borne in mind that if the Czar goes to war, it will not do to come

out of it simply without loss of territory, and without having to pay a war indemnity, or having to submit to humiliating restrictions on his naval or military armaments, as in 1856. If he began it, it should be a war for the recovery of prestige which, in the eyes of the Russian people, is every day diminished by what is going on in the Balkan Peninsula. Every war which Russia has undertaken in eastern Europe since 1815 has had for its objects either the pushing of the frontier nearer to the Bosphorus, or the capture of Constantinople, or the erection in the peninsula, as a temporary expedient, of a series of vassal States, which should remain under Russian influence until she was ready to swallow them up. The wars of 1828, of 1853, and of 1877 all had these objects in view, and were all at their close apparently successful; that is, they either wrested territory from Turkey, or weakened Turkey so that her final break-up would be hastened. What is making the present crisis is the fact which is now becoming perfectly plain to the Russian court and army, and to that portion of the people which reads newspapers, that all these efforts have been literally in vain—that in making the attacks of the last fifty years on Turkey, Russia was literally, in the words of the French proverb, "working for the King of Prussia." The growth of Servia, Rumania, and Bulgaria under the fostering hand of Germany and Austria bids fair in a very short time to put an end to the vision, in which the imagination of every patriotic Russian has revelled ever since Peter the Great, of a Southern capital on the Bosphorus, and a revival of the Eastern Empire on a scale of which Constantine never dreamed. The Russian public are only just now waking up to this fact, and it is probably the most unpleasant fact in their history, the first apparently irretrievable political disaster.

The question, What is to be done about it? is a knotty one, but it is one which the Czar's advisers are probably every day asking themselves. Why troops should be concentrated in midwinter on the Austrian frontier is, of course, unless some action was in contemplation, hard to say, but it may be that it was simply due to that necessity for doing even meaningless things in times of perplexity to which puzzled people resort to relieve their nerves or gain time for thought. The conclusion which deliberation is sure to bring in this case, however, is, that unless the war ends in subjecting the whole Balkan Peninsula to Russian rule or Russian influence, it will have been waged in vain, and probably the Czar has no counsellor bold enough to tell him that any such result may safely be looked for. It will not do, when it is over, to turn to his subjects and tell them that they have at least lost nothing. On this occasion he would have to show them what they had gained.

INVESTIGATING THE READING STRIKE.

This is the time of year to look for contortions in the Legislature in behalf of Labor. There was a debate in the New York Senate a week ago on the subject of an appropriation to keep the convicts at work in the State prisons. It was as easy to discern the simulated madness of honorable members as it is to note the brief mania which seizes upon a herd of cattle when one of their number smells blood. First one and then another begins to paw the earth, and bellow, and run the horns into the ground, and "take on" at a terrible rate. After indulging in this pastime for a season they become rational again, and return to their grazing and chewing of cuds. This assumed insanity is liable to break out whenever two or three members of the Legislature or of Congress are gathered together in any public place. Congress is very much exposed to it. The resolution to investigate unlawful combinations of men, commonly called Trusts, to raise the prices of the necessaries of life, had to be amended so as not to include combinations of workingmen to raise wages. Nobody would have thought of including workingmen, but some member smelled blood and must needs paw up the ground for the edification of Labor, and all the rest must needs join for a brief space lest they be declared lacking in sympathy for workingmen. When in the House Mr. S. V. White wanted to inquire whether the Reading Railroad Company's failure to transport inter-State commerce satisfactorily was caused in any degree by combinations of men to prevent it from doing so, Mr. Anderson of Kansas, who ordinarily grazes in a rational bovine way, immediately dropped on his knees, ran his horn into the ground, and tossed up the sod in the most muscular fashion. Labor, in the remote Kansas district which Mr. Anderson represents, will undoubtedly take note of this spasm, and set it down much to the honorable gentleman's credit.

The unanimous vote to investigate the Reading strike by a special committee must have been partly given on the consideration that there is no way so effectual for curing human folly as to let it have its own way. The resolution adopted requires the Committee "to investigate forthwith the extent, cause, and effect upon inter-State commerce of the continued failure by the Reading Railroad Company to transport such commerce, and to report to the House, by bill or otherwise, for consideration at any time, such legislation as is necessary to secure to the public the regular and complete execution by a railroad company of its obligations to serve as a common carrier of inter-State commerce; and to investigate the differences existing in the Lehigh and Schuylkill region of Pennsylvania between the corporations mining coal and the miners, and, further, to investigate all facts relating to mining corporations and individual miners of anthracite coal in connection therewith, and all facts in relation to the matter, and report the same to the House with such recommendations as the Committee may agree upon."

"The extent, cause, and effect upon inter-State commerce of the continued failure by the Reading Railroad Company to transport such commerce!" Here is an assumption contrary to all the facts that the public know anything about. The history of the strike need not be recounted. It was owing to the prompt and energetic efforts of the Reading Company to perform its duties as a carrier of all commerce, both State and inter-State, that the strike began. The operatives who began the trouble insisted that freight should not be carried that had been handled by "scab" workmen. Everything that has since happened has followed logically, and swiftly, and inexorably from this premise. It is perhaps well that this fact should be put down in black and white, as it was by the Committee that investigated the Southwestern strike two years ago. That great *émeute* furnished an irresistible attraction to the demagogues in Congress. They lost all control of themselves at once. They must have an investigation by the Federal authority, and on a scale commensurate with the national dignity. They were allowed to have their own way. They found the facts to be more completely on the side of the "railroad monopolists" than the public had supposed they were. They found that Martin Irons and his crew were a lot of malefactors, and that civilized society could not be carried on in any country where their rules and practices were tolerated. The upshot of the investigation was to vindicate Jay Gould, the man of all others most obnoxious to Labor, and to rehabilitate him in the eyes of decent people, by whom, upon many grounds, he had been held in the greatest disesteem. So it will be in this Reading investigation, but with the difference that the managers of the Reading Railroad have no accumulated prejudice to contend against, as Gould had.

Mr. Rayner of Maryland has blossomed out as the champion and knight-errant of oppressed humanity in this business. He opened the debate by disclaiming the title of demagogue. This was the unconscious tribute of a trickster to the superiority of truth and reason. Then, by way of showing that he was no demagogue, Mr. Rayner charged that the Reading Company was opposing an investigation. Mr. O'Neill denied this, and asked what was Mr. Rayner's evidence of the fact. "We have the evidence," said the undaunted Rayner, "of 82,000 starving men turned out in the dead of winter with dependent families." Mr. O'Neill replied that that was not his question; he wanted to know what evidence there was that the Reading Company was opposing an investigation, adding that he knew the contrary to be true. Then Rayner "hunted his hole." He wanted to know why anybody should oppose it. Mr. O'Neill was ready for him again, and replied that nobody opposed it. But Rayner was not to be shut off in this way If he could not have anybody to fight, he could belabor the air, and so he did. "I know it is a hard fight," he said. "I know that monopoly, unscrupulous as to the methods it employs, is an enemy terrible to encounter. But in my humble experience I have never yet seen the day in the halls of legislation when honor, which has no price, or manhood, which knows no fear, could not drive it, like a skulking coward, from the field of battle."

The question came up incidentally whether

inter-State commerce had any connection with the Reading trouble, so that Congress could properly take hold of it. Undoubtedly the Southwestern trouble had to do with inter-State commerce, since the Gould roads were operated in half-a-dozen States, and since the question was one really relating to the carrying of freight and passengers. The Reading case is essentially different because the difficulty is not about the carrying of freight, but about having any to carry. The road stands ready to transport all the goods offered, coal, flour, or other. The trouble began, as we have said, with the refusal of Mr. Rayner's clients to allow certain goods to be carried, and the insistence of the Reading Company that they should be carried. It is impossible, therefore, to see where Congress gets jurisdiction even to begin an investigation. If the rules of the body required every important inquiry about which there was a doubt, to be supported by affidavit setting out some fact upon which action could be taken, no such affidavit would have been forthcoming in this case. But, we say, let Mr. Rayner and Mr. Anderson of Kansas, a worthy rival, have their way. Mr. Anderson rather took the cap and bells when he objected to Mr. S. V. White's amendment that the Committee inquire whether there had been any unlawful combinations of men to prevent the Reading Company from transporting inter-State commerce, because "it savored too much of Wall Street"; Mr. Brumm, the Greenback-Labor Congressman of Pennsylvania, and the immediate representative of the coal-miners, having accepted that amendment.

ENGLISH COPYRIGHT FOR AMERICAN AUTHORS.

Mr. Brander Matthews contributed to the *New Princeton Review* for last September an interesting exposition of the nature and extent of the piracies to which American authors have been subjected by certain publishers in England. He took the trouble to examine the publishers' lists contributed to the 'Reference Catalogue of Current Literature' for 1885, and the result, as set out in his article, affords very entertaining reading, except, perhaps, to those American authors who, like their English brethren (according to Mr. Lowell's witty remark concerning the community of books between England and America), "are not so sensitive as they should be to the doctrine of universal benevolence." The abundant examples collected by Mr. Matthews show that not only are many American authors reprinted without so much as a "by your leave," but (which is a more serious grievance) that certain English publishers not only do not hesitate to alter the titles of works so reprinted, but unscrupulously change and mangle even the very text of the stolen book, so that an author can scarcely recognize the child of his brain. After the publication of his article, Mr. Matthews applied to Mr. Samuel L. Clemens for facts concerning English reprints of his books. This drew from the latter a private letter; but, having meantime read the article referred to above, he appended what he calls a "public" postscript of considerable length and written in characteristic "Mark Twain" humor. Mr. Matthews replied in an open letter, and the three productions have been printed, under the title used by Mr. Matthews for his first article ("American Authors and British Pirates"), in the *New Princeton Review* for January.

Mr. Clemens writes much that is funny, but the substance of the serious portions of his letter and postscript can be briefly indicated. Admitting that such American books as were reprinted in England before a certain date, after which our authors could secure a *quasi* copyright in that country, had "suffered piracy without help," he asserts that five times as many English books had been pirated on our side of the water, and that, therefore, "the one fact offsets the other, and the honors are easy—the rascalities, I mean." But he characterizes the examples given by Mr. Matthews of earlier English piracies as "ancient history, and, properly and righteously, out of court, . . . a bitter grievance which passed out of this world and into its eternal grave more than fifteen years ago"; while "such of those American books as were issued after England allowed us copyright, and yet suffered piracy," Mr. Clemens holds, "suffered it by their authors' own fault, not England's nor anybody else's," because England furnishes the American author what he calls a "perfect remedy."

Mr. Clemens fails, however, to make the perfection of the remedy clear, nor is he at all lucid in his explanations as to how the remedy is to be obtained or applied. On the first page of his paper the reader is informed that "to-day the American author can go to Canada, spend three days there, and come home with an English and Canadian copyright which is as strong as if it had been built out of railroad iron," while on the last page he says of the English law that it is "a law which gives us absolutely unassailable and indestructible copyright at a cost of not a single penny, not a moment of time, not an iota of trouble, not even the bother of asking for it"; and the circumstances under which such copyright is secured, he says, "are quite simple and explicit, and quite easy to inform one's self about." Setting out by way of comparison the details essential to securing copyright in the United States, he exclaims: "What do you have to do in order to get the same book copyrighted in England? You are hampered by no bothers, no details of any kind whatever. When you send your manuscript to your English publisher, you tell him the date appointed for the book to issue here, and trust him to bring it out there a day ahead. Isn't that simple enough? No letter to any official, no title-page to any official, no fee to anybody; and yet that book has a copyright on it which the Charleston earthquake couldn't unsettle." Two years ago Mr. Clemens stated before the Senate Committee on Patents that the American author could get in England "as perfect a copyright as it was possible for a Government to give," and that this copyright was as strong for forty-two years as one granted to a native English author, and that it was quite easy to get —"there was no difficulty about that." But when asked by what process the American author could secure such copyright, his answer was: "'I have been through so many processes that I hardly know how to explain it." He has now published a veritable "Mark Twain" explanation of the process, after reading which no one will twit Mr. Clemens—as he does his opponent—with being a lawyer.

Mr. Matthews's reply is entertaining, judicial, and to the point. After setting himself right as to the motive of his article, he adds to his previous illustrations a number of examples of the piracy and mutilation of recent American books by English and Canadian reprinters. He analyzes the two English decisions upon which alone copyright is secured to foreign authors, and deduces the opinion, which is, we think, the only safe one, that, "if an American author wishes to make sure of an English copyright, there is only one course for him to pursue: he must publish his book in the United Kingdom before he publishes it in America, and he must be in the British dominions when it is so published in the United Kingdom." Admitting that this British law is a good thing as far as it goes, Mr. Matthews holds that it does not go far enough, and that it does not go so far as Mr. Clemens thinks. He points out that while it may be an easy thing for the latter to make a trip to Canada, it does not follow that it is equally easy for every author, and that it certainly is not easy for a poor author who may chance to live in Florida or in Texas. Prior publication in England, also, while an easy thing for authors well known, is not easy for the unknown author sending out his first book. While Mr. Matthews seems to think that a contributor to one of the leading American magazines which is published in London a day or two before it appears in New York, might secure the protection of the English law by taking a monthly trip to Canada (a requirement amounting to a prohibition), he points out that it is obviously impossible that weekly journals or newspapers should have prior publication in England, and that their contents, therefore, cannot be protected from the British pirate; so that even under Mark Twain's "perfect" law, his own book 'Innocents Abroad' could not have been protected in England, having been published originally as letters to American newspapers. "The remedy for the present deplorable state of affairs," Mr. Matthews concludes, "is to change the law" in both countries. "England has taken the first step. Our turn it is now to advance along the path of honesty and justice. England will meet us half way."

Mr. Clemens's assertion that he has, by virtue of his three days' residence in Canada, secured copyright in that country as well as in England, is not noticed by Mr. Matthews. But if he has any such copyright, he certainly does not obtain it, as he states, without the payment of a fee, for registration is essential to obtaining copyright in Canada, and a fee of $1 is charged for each entry. More-

over, a copyright is not registered until the author has deposited two copies of his book, and unless such deposit is made the author is not entitled to the benefit of the Canadian Copyright Act; and, furthermore, it is a condition of obtaining copyright, according to this act, that the work in question "shall be printed or published, or reprinted and republished, in Canada," and all of these stipulations apply with equal force to a book which may have been previously copyrighted in the United Kingdom. If a visit to Canada is essential in order to secure protection in England, it is clear that it would be necessary to have something to prove that the author had been upon Canadian soil at a certain time, requiring, at least, a notary's certificate, demanding a fee. And while the English law does not require registration in order to obtain a copyright, it is necessary to register such copyright in order to maintain a suit in court to protect it; and a deposit of a copy of the book for the British Museum is compulsory, within one month, while demands for copies from four other libraries must be complied with when made. All of which it is not so much easier to do than it is to satisfy the requirements of the American copyright law, as Mr. Clemens seems to believe. As Mr. Matthews very justly says: "The method by which an American may secure copyright in England is not a simple registration, for which a single fee is paid and a single certificate given: it is an elaborate mercantile operation, to be established by evidence, written and parol."

THE TRUE FUNCTION OF A UNIVERSITY.

As usual, many topics in President Eliot's Report on the condition of Harvard College for the past year invite comment. One might dwell on the seeming paradox that, while more than a million dollars has flowed in through the medium of gifts, almost every branch of the University suffers from inadequate endowment; or on the caprices of benevolence, which provides inordinate support for needy students, while neglecting the claims of the professorial body to a juster compensation—which recognizes the humane aspects of the Medical School and shuts its eyes to those of the Dental School, equally engaged in the gratuitous reduction of suffering. These, however, are standing themes. The novel discussions which we annually expect from the head of the oldest university in the land, relate this year to efforts made to raise the level of instruction in English in the schools which feed the college—not Harvard alone, but all colleges—and to enable the same schools to teach, in some form or other, the rudiments of science.

The importance of these endeavors, extending over a dozen years, will not be underrated by any thoughtful person, least of all by professional educators. They have met with a fair measure of success, but the report of progress will not be closed for many a day. We shall content ourselves with recommending to the general attention President Eliot's remarks upon them. Half a page devoted to intercollegiate athletics has for us a greater momentary interest, in that the purpose is manifested to abate a growing evil about which too little has been said. What goes before is retrospective; in this section of the Report lies the germ of a future policy.

Nothing could be better, as a condensed statement, than the following words of the Report, after an approving enumeration of the various sports pursued with ardor by the students:

> "Three of these sports," says President Eliot, "namely, foot-ball, base-ball, and rowing, are liable to abuses which do not attach to the sports themselves so much as to their accompaniments under the present system of intercollegiate competitions. These abuses are: extravagant expenditure by and for the ball-players and the crews; the interruption of college work which exaggerated interest in the frequent ball-matches causes; betting; trickery condoned by a public opinion which demands victory; and the hysterical demonstrations of the college public over successful games. These follies can best be kept in check—they cannot be eradicated—by reducing the number of intercollegiate competitions to the lowest terms. The number of these competitions is at present excessive from every point of view. Wrestling, sparring, and foot-ball—games which involve violent personal collision—have to be constantly watched and regulated, lest they become brutal."

The development of this perfectly just indictment would bring to view four main tendencies, which must be deprecated by every friend alike of the higher education and of morality. One is towards the prolongation of the boyish or puerile stage which ought finally to be cast away when the young man enters college. We do not mean that animal spirits should be left behind, but that the point of view from which life has hitherto been regarded should be radically changed. Intellectually, the student should feel himself to have come of age as soon as matriculated, and should perceive the propriety or necessity of putting away childish things. Sports need not be abandoned, but just as they will no longer be marbles or peg-top, so they should be subordinated to the main object for which men go to college. The dignity of the institution should beget a corresponding dignity and self-restraint and steady application in the beneficiary. The unspeakable importance of these years for the cultivation of the faculties and the formation of character in preparation for the struggle for existence, should sober and steady all but those already corrupted by the taint of wealth. But it cannot be denied that childishness is fostered by intercollegiate contests, not only in the shape of "hysterical demonstrations over successful games," but in giving such a predominance to the athletic interest that recreation and enjoyment, or the having what is called a good time, becomes the most potent attraction which a college education holds out. It is a significant fact, too, that the rise and growth of the highly organized and technical forms of sport at Harvard has been coincident with the revival of secret societies—the permanent fountains of puerility—and of hazing.

The second tendency in order is towards the erection of a false standard of superiority among colleges according as one or other "carries off the cup." Harvard, for example, a purely educational foundation, whose glories antedate the advent of base-ball and the Rugby game, is regarded as humbled if Yale or Princeton or Columbia comes off first in any given contest or series of contests. This feeling is not put on, but is perfectly serious among students. You will find them in their local papers discussing the harm that will befall the college if it continues to win only second and third prizes. The athletes of the preparatory schools, it is said, will instinctively be drawn to the college which has achieved the highest distinction in their line. It has even been charged lately that a systematic attempt was making to recruit from a certain famous New England school for one college at the expense of another by means of a subsidized local journal—if our memory is not at fault; of course through undergraduate, not official intrigue. We have also an idea that the faculties of the smaller colleges are afraid to grapple with the evil of abnormal athletics because they do really apprehend a loss of patronage. But be this as it may, it is clear that nothing could be more opposed to the efficiency of the college training than an habitual substitution, for pride in the intellectual standing and ample equipment of Alma Mater, of pride in her muscular supremacy. Do we not, in fact, see colleges which are lagging in the race of improved methods and enlarged scope of instruction, hug the delusion that this is offset by the trophies of the sporting-ground? Let us, then, remark here that all the trophies of this sort that Harvard has ever won by land or sea, are as dust in the balance compared with the simple fact that her President's annual Report is out of sight the most weighty, influential, and eagerly anticipated educational document published in America.

The third tendency may be briefly dismissed because there will be no dispute about it. The intercollegiate games bring the college world down to the level of the professional gambler. It is incontestable that students whose minds are constantly filled with the thought of intercollegiate rivalry at sports, follow with the greatest zest the course of the professional matches all over the country, turn to them first in the morning paper, make them the staple of their conversation. This is bad enough, but unavoidably they catch the tone of these vulgar performances, they practise or are on their guard against "trickery condoned by public opinion," and above all they fall easily into habits of betting on the result. The ill-feeling thus engendered, the charges of foul play, unfair umpiring, spying, concealment, lying, are disgustingly visible on the grounds or in the echoes of the college press. No man ever felt elevated by witnessing such encounters, and their degrading influence speaks both to the eye and to the understanding.

Great masses of young men cannot thus be brought together with professional excitement and manners without abusing the opportunity in other ways. Nor can parents reflect without wincing on the possibilities which attend the transfer of a mob of students away from their habitual surveillance to a

distant city, there to remain, perhaps, over night, in a state of the highest elation or depression—were it merely innocent and not affected by money at stake on the result of the game. Neither, finally, can this transportation take place without a large pecuniary outlay, which falls upon the parents, whether they can afford it or not. Add this sum to the cost of sustaining crews and teams, and to what is lost in gaming and in vice, and we have a potent factor of extravagance in ordinary college life the fourth tendency of those we have deprecated.

Much more might be said if we had the space. We regret that President Eliot should imply that the intercollegiate competitions cannot be absolutely abolished. Nothing is simpler than an edict to this effect, and we believe that it is Harvard's mission to utter it. She ought boldly to take the position that beyond furnishing ample facilities for in-door and out-door exercise, for the perfection of the physical man, the college has nothing to do with athletics unless to supervise them. Its business is to shape the human intellect. Neither should it be moved by the argument—sound or unsound, matters not—that without the intercollegiate meetings the local fondness for athletics would die out. Again, we say, this is no concern of an institution which has done all that money and science can do to tempt men to exercise. But it is absurd that a thousand undergraduates cannot among themselves find all the competition necessary for any good end of sport. The rubbish about "records" needs to be put aside. It is not incumbent on any college to see that its students jump one foot higher, run one minute faster, or in any other way approximate a receding standard of physical excellence. Health may be attained, and sound constitutions, by moderate, well-directed exertion without thought of any competitor. So long as this is so, the duty of the college is to turn the student's thoughts to things spiritual; to encourage early manliness, as the entrance age is steadily rising; to discourage respect for the non-essentials of college life above its main excuse for being; and to put an end to all occasions for unfriendliness and bitterness between institutions whose only emulation should be to turn out, at the least possible cost, the highest type of civilized man.

VOLAPUK.—I.

UNIVERSITY OF MISSISSIPPI, January.

"HAS Volapük come to stay?" asked the *Nation* some time ago. That remains to be seen; but at any rate Schleyer's invention has come to make quite a visit, and it may be of interest to submit the new arrival in the family of languages to some inspection. Its rapid growth, and the favorable reception it has met with in high quarters, give it a claim to have its merits or defects submitted to examination.

Johann Martin Schleyer, a German, and a retired Catholic priest, is the last in a series of language-makers that runs back beyond Leibnitz. For Leibnitz, in his 'De Arte Combinatoria' (1666), gave an account of Becher's system, and Becher was preceded about a year by Delgarno (1660, 1661). Leibnitz briefly describes Becher's system as proceeding upon the following plan: By each word in an alphabetically arranged Latin lexicon a number would be placed. In any other language a dictionary was to be prepared with the numbers following consecutively, as in the Latin lexicon, and by each number would be found the equivalent of the Latin word; *e. g.*, if *bellum* had 500 by it, 500 would have *war* by it in an English lexicon, *Krieg* in a German one, and so on. To read this number-language one would simply look in his lexicon for the words attached to the numbers. To write it, one would need to know Latin and to look up the proper numbers in his Latin lexicon; or, if he did not know Latin, he would be obliged to have in his own language an alphabetically arranged dictionary with the proper numbers attached; for, of course, his other lexicon, being prepared with consecutive numbers as the only guide through it, would not avail him here. It does not need a Leibnitz to point out the extreme clumsiness and glaring deficiencies of such a system. The great German philosopher himself proposed a scheme of which he said that if it were rightly and skilfully carried out, his *scriptura universalis* would be easy to learn, common to all, and capable of being read without a lexicon, "simulque imbibetur," adds Leibnitz, "omnium rerum fundamentalis cognitio"—certainly a desirable characteristic, especially in a system easy to learn. But as Leibnitz made nothing practical of it, though greatly interested in the problem of a world-language, no doubt to do it "rightly and skilfully" was the reef on which the idea was wrecked.

In 1668 appeared one of the most famous of all the attempts to counteract Babel's confusion of tongues. In that year Bishop Wilkins published his 'Essay toward a Real Character and a Philosophical Language,' having received the hint from Delgarno's 'Ars Signorum,' or, 'Character Universalis et Lingua Philosophica' (1660). The treatise of the English Bishop is known to us from the detailed account of it given by Monboddo and Prof. Max Müller. But even a hasty survey shows that such a scheme would never do for the wayfaring man, even though he were no fool. If we are ever to have a language common to all the world, it would seem that it must at least possess the following characteristics:

(1.) It must not be intricate. Simplicity is absolutely essential. If a philosophical turn of mind is required for its understanding, it is doomed.

(2.) It must be in a character easily written and easily read.

(3.) It must reject sounds that are difficult or impossible to any large portion of mankind. Our *th* sound would be altogether inadmissible (and Volapük has not admitted it), and to base distinctions of meaning upon such a difference as we make in this sound (*cf. though* and *throw*), would be utterly out of the question.

(4.) It must be brief enough in the statement of its principles to give it a decided advantage over any widely spoken language.

(5.) Of course it must possess uniformity. No one would deliberately invent exceptions to his rules. Enough of these may spring up in the course of time.

Let us test Volapük by these principles.

As to brevity, hardly any one can fail to be satisfied. Spielmann's Volapük-Almanach gives a very good outline of the grammar in 16 pages. Schleyer's Mittlere Grammatik (8th ed.) has only 63 pages for the grammatical portion, and Seret's Volapük grammar for those who speak English has only 59 pages of grammar, the rest of the 420 pages being taken up with the vocabularies. The world can surely afford to learn this much in order to have a medium of communication between all mankind.

In simplicity it has some striking advantages. The large majority of its root-words are monosyllabic. Diphthongs are not allowed. The definite article is eliminated. Exceptions and irregularities there are none. A German inventor did not forget, of course, to simplify the matter of gender. The three oblique cases, gen., dat., and accus., are formed by appending to the word the first three vowels respectively, *a*, *e*, *i*. The plural adds *s*. Thus *foot* is declined *fut*, *futa*, *fute*, *futi*, plural, *futs*, *futas*, *futes*, *futis*. And this is the whole of the inflection of nouns.

The agent (*maker*, *creator*, Germ. *Macher*) adds *-el* to the root-word. It would be *er*, except that Schleyer has avoided *r* out of consideration for children, old people, and the Chinese. Adjectives append *-ik*. The comparative and superlative endings are *um* and *ün;* and as *m* precedes *n*, it belongs to the comparative, which precedes the superlative. Adverbs at first followed the German method, and did not differ from the adjectives, except that an adverbial ending *o* was used if clearness required it. The Volapük Congress held at Munich last August declared in favor of making *all* adverbs end in *o*, though the rule is not an imperative one. The personal pronouns all begin with *o* and vary the final consonant. With *m* for *masc.*, *f* for *fem.*, and *s* (German *sächlich*) for *neut.*, it is easy to learn *om*, *of*, and *os* for *he*, *she*, and *it*. *On* is adopted for German *man*, French *on*. *Ob* stands for *I*, *i. e.*, to *o* is added the first consonant. Then *oma*, *ome*, *omi* mean *of me*, *to me*, *me*. The poss. prons., being adjectives, end in *ik: omik*, *ofik*, *osik* therefore mean *his*, *her*, *its*. The nine digits all end in *l*, and the *l* is preceded by the eight vowels in order *a*, *e*, *i*, *o*, *u*, *ä*, *ö*, and *ü*, except that after 6 (*mäl*), 7 is *vel*, which strikes us as a slight defect and a departure from uniformity. Volapük grammar opens with the eight vowels above given, and Schleyer frequently uses a, e, i, instead of 1, 2, 3, to number his paragraphs. If he had let his numerals proceed through 8 without any break in the succession of vowels, it would have been a gain. As he has it, one must remember that there is an arbitrary break in the order, and that it occurs after 6. If the break had occurred after 5, there would even then have been some method visible; for the division would have been made between the five simple and the three modified vowels. One cannot help wondering, too, whether Schleyer had any system in his mind in selecting the initial consonants for his numerals. His words are *bal*, *tel*, *kil*, *fol*, *lul*, *mäl*, *vel*, *jöl* (pronounced as *schöl* would be in German), *zül*. Suppose he had employed the first nine consonants in Volapük (b, c, d, f, g, h, j, k, l, i; the Munich Congress adopted h instead of the "rough breathing" with which Schleyer at first began), followed by the vowels in like order, with *a* repeated as the vowel for 9; the memory would be strongly supported. For 10, 20, 30, etc., *s* is added to the words for 1, 2, 3, etc. *Nought*, *zero*, though not given in the grammar, we find to be *nosanum*, *i. e.*, *no* as a negative, *s* as neuter ending, *a* as genitive ending, and *num* as the word for *number*, so that *negation's number* is Volapük's conception of zero.

When we come to the verb, we find only a fraction over five pages given to it in Spielmann. Schleyer has about eighteen pages, and Seret twenty-nine and a half. Some things about Schleyer's treatment are admirable. The infinitive ends in *-ön*. For the present, imper-

fect, perfect, pluperfect, future, and future perfect, the vowels a, ä, e, i, o, and u are respectively prefixed to the stem. If no vowel is prefixed, the tense is understood to be the present. In the passive voice *p* is prefixed to the proper vowel for any given tense. Hence, if *sanön* means *to cure*, (a)sanob = *I cure*, pasanob, *I am cured*, posanof, *she will be cured*, pesanoms, *they* (masc.) *have been cured*. So far, we could ask nothing better in a verb-system based on the synthetic principle. Does Volapük recognize any need for duplicating the above tenses by having a progressive form for each, as we have in English? *Penön* means *to write*. Can the new language make the distinction between *I shall write* and *I shall be writing*? If we go by Schleyer, we find nothing satisfactory. Seret speaks of an *aorist active* in all verbs, and seems to expect us to know exactly what that means. We find that each of the six tenses may have an aoristic form, and at once, on the basis of ἔγραφον, *I was writing*, and ἔγραψα, *I wrote*, we think this "aorist" in Volapük must denote the forms *I write*, *I wrote*, etc., as opposed to *I am writing*, *I was writing*. Seret gives a number of examples, in which the *i* that denotes this idea in Volapük is rendered by the adverbs *usually*, *constantly*, *always*, *steadfastly*, *uninterruptedly*, *incessantly*: so that *aipenom* may mean *I write usually*, *I write constantly*, etc. When we turn to Spielmann's account of this *i* formation, we find that he agrees with Schleyer in calling it "die Dauerform (Durativ)," and we at once think of the progressive forms; but when he explains the formation by adding that it denotes the indefinite time of an action, or a customary action (*die Gepflogenheit einer Handlung*), we feel that we are tossed back to the other horn of our dilemma; he translates the forms by *stets* and *beständig*. Seret gives the following three sentences as instances of this usage: "Much happens against the expectation of men." "Yet all winters have brought cold." "Every war the noble philanthropist will have to repent." This sort of treatment reminds us, on the *lucus-a-non* principle, of Schleyer's statement that his language is "very clear and definite in expression, admitting no uncertainties or confusions of meaning"; and of his exhortation, "Let every one always express himself so simply, concisely, and clearly, that all intelligent inhabitants of the globe can understand his words." When this happens—when obscurity of thought and expression is done away with—we shall have an intellectual millennium. Unfortunately the Volapük verb does not seem to us very much adapted to hastening this happy state of things.

In addition to the twelve indicative tenses as given above, Schleyer has subjunctive, conditional, optative, imperative, infinitive, participle, and supine, each with the full array of twelve tenses, active and passive. Not that these are all put down in the grammar in every instance, but enough samples are given to lead to the conclusion that every mood is to have its twelve tenses. There is also an imperative participle, with the renderings "be a loving one," and "be, being loved." We are furnished with a Gerundivum, "one, that *must* be loved"; and a Gerundium, "*it* is to love, one must love (it)." Reflexive, reciprocal, and impersonal verbs are provided in both voices. There is also an intransitive passive, examples of which are (Seret, p. 52, end): "*pagolos*—going, is getting done. *pagolom*—*it* is getting gone (in: one goes that road, the road is getting gone)." The optative has two forms, a mild form ending in *-ös*, and a stronger form in *-öx* (though one of the numerous little handbooks speaks of this as "the milder" form). The imperative is likewise subdivided: the ordinary form ends in *-öd*; the stronger, in *-öz*, called by Schleyer *der Jussiv*. The Volapük optative was constructed to be what its name denotes, a wishing mood. But as expressions of wish naturally shade off into those of will, it is no surprise to find the treatment of these two moods blended, and some of the books treat as imperative what others count as optative: and we even find the form in *-öx* spoken of as a potential. We have, then, for expressions of wish and of will, a climax ascended by four steps: *-ös*, *-öx*, *-öd*, and *-öz*. Each of these four, we are to bear in mind, is capable of forming twelve tenses active and passive, with six forms in the singular (*I*, *thou*, *he*, *she*, *it*, *one*), and four in the plural, of each tense!

The Greek verbal system with 507 possible forms, as estimated by Curtius, is usually regarded as rather formidable. Curtius calls the 891 forms reckoned as possible in Sanscrit, "a gigantic number." But his countryman has invented a system of conjugation in which *over half a million* of forms are possible from almost any transitive verb! The Athens Ἑστία gives the exact number as 504,440, but comforts us with the assurance that all these forms can be taught *within five minutes*—not that this is so, at all. Here is anything but brevity, whatever may be said for this colossal system as regards uniformity and simplicity.

ADDISON HOGE.

THE WAR CRISIS ON THE CONTINENT.

PARIS, January 27, 1888.

EVERY year now brings its war panic. These great waves of alarmed patriotism and of national jealousy seem to come over Europe as regularly as the great atmospheric changes of the seasons. It will be so as long as we have a system of armed peace as onerous as war itself. The slightest incident which brings into contact the great latent masses of electricity, seems the beginning of the impending storm. The latest war panic has not been produced by direct contact between France and Germany; this time the two opposing forces have been Germany and Russia. Since the events which have recently taken place in Bulgaria, the hostile feelings of Russia towards Germany have had almost free play. Russia, whether she is right or wrong, feels that she has been cheated by the Treaty of Berlin. She counted upon a sort of supremacy in the peninsula of the Balkans; she has lost this supremacy by a succession of blunders, and she now sees that Bulgaria, which she meant to be a mere dependency, is assuming airs of independence, and, if it cannot be independent, is drawn towards Austria's sphere of influence. The old alliance of the three emperors is a thing of the past; instead of it we see an alliance of two emperors only, and the third emperor remains in a sullen isolation, and obeys more and more the influence of the Panslavist orthodox party.

If there had been, a few months ago, a Government in France capable of forming secret alliances, the temptation would have been very great in Russia as well as in France. If Russia has her Panslavists, France has her radicals, who advocate openly an alliance with Russia. Gen. Boulanger did not make much mystery of his tendencies and his projects. At the time of the Presidential election, Jules Ferry was denounced by the extremists as the instrument of Prince Bismarck, as the slave of the German Chancellor.

There is no doubt that the French people desire the continuation of peace. They have a vague, unreasoning, instinctive sympathy for Russia; and the reason of it is that there are really no points of contact, and, therefore, no differences between the two nations. I remember that even during the Crimean war this sympathy existed. The Crimea was very remote; our officers and soldiers were often irritated at the English; they only saw the Russians after the taking of Sebastopol, when peace was made. The war party, which is a very small minority in the country, plays upon their feelings; it represents the Russians as all ready to take arms against Germany, and to continue the war until France has had time to reconquer Alsace and Lorraine. In Russia the Panslavists do something of the same sort. They believe that, if a war arose between their country and Germany, France would be forcibly drawn in, and, as was once said, "les chassepots partiraient tout seuls." The difficulties of an alliance, however, between France and Russia are obvious; the circumstances are not at all the same on our frontier and on the Russian frontier. If a war broke out between Germany and France, and if France should be obliged, by treaty, to begin military operations, her mobilization would be ended in a few days, as well as the German mobilization, while the Russian mobilization would take weeks and months. Germany would have time to throw the bulk of her forces on France, and perhaps to strike decisive blows, before commencing the struggle with Russia.

I do not believe there is anything like a treaty between France and Russia; but, if there is no treaty, there can be between two governments a sort of understanding, a mutual confidence, a state which allows each to give and to receive advice. The adversaries of a common action between France and Russia have always maintained that there is no equality between the risks which these countries would run in case of war; that in order to produce some equality, Russia must make a sort of mobilization in time of peace, so as to be able, if war is declared, to begin at once offensive operations of some magnitude. The system of armed peace and of hasty mobilizations will oblige the Powers which do not control many railways, and which cannot in consequence mobilize rapidly, to locate their armies near the frontiers in time of peace. It is difficult to know exactly the movements of the Russian troops. According to the temper of the official press in Berlin and in Vienna, these movements are more or less threatening; the Russian press tries, of course, to reduce their importance to a minimum. Still, enough is known to enable us to state that Russia has taken, in a military sense, important precautionary measures.

All military operations in the valley of the Danube and in Poland are impossible, or, to say the least, extremely difficult at this time of year; but we may expect in the spring to see the development of the Russian policy. Meanwhile, Germany is taking its precautions; Italy has replaced Russia in the triple alliance; the journey of Crispi to Friedrichsruhe marked with a sort of ostentation the character of the new alliance. The relations of France and Italy have become more difficult; the plenipotentiaries who went to Rome for the renewal of a treaty of commerce have not yet succeeded in their undertaking. The incident of the Consul at Florence caused at one moment great uneasiness; it seems now that nothing will come of it, but it has raised indirectly the question of Tunis and of the French protectorate in that province. The Treaty of the Bardo did not put an end to the treaties made at various times between the Bey of Tunis and sundry European Powers. The French protectorate of

Tunis has not yet been fairly recognized by Italy, nor by any other Power, and fresh difficulties may arise at any moment from this situation. It is assuredly singular and painful to see Italy, which owes so much to the French arms, taking deliberately her place in an alliance which, though it professes to be made simply in the interest of peace, is known to be made also for war and in view of all the eventualities that may arise from a struggle between Germany and France, as well as between Germany and Russia.

In this extraordinary state of things, in this painful suspense and dread of the future, it is not surprising if all eyes in Europe are turned towards England. What will Great Britain do? In which direction will she gravitate? Will it be towards the triple constellation of Prussia, Austria, Italy? Will she obey her instinctive fear and hatred of Russia? Will she hesitate and refuse to give her moral support to the German power, which is becoming too predominant and too absorbing? Lord Randolph Churchill's journey in Russia would not have attracted so much attention if these questions were not in people's minds. It is well known in England that Lord Randolph Churchill had no diplomatic mission; it is even whispered that his relations with the members of the Cabinet which he has left have become somewhat strained. The reasons for which he left the present Administration are still somewhat obscure. The apparent reason was his desire to reduce the expenses of the army and the navy; the circumstances required large expenses, in the opinion of Lord Salisbury, who does not wish to adopt under all circumstances a policy of non-intervention in European affairs. At the time when Lord Randolph left the Cabinet there was a strong anti-Russian movement in England. The conduct of Russia towards Prince Alexander, the young hero of Slivnitza, was denounced in the strongest terms; Lord Randolph Churchill probably became afraid that England would again drift into a war with Russia, and a war for the sake of Bulgaria seemed to him too Quixotic.

The Bulgarian agitation soon subsided after Prince Bismarck had thrown cold water on the Bulgarian sympathizers in Germany. Lord Randolph Churchill had left the Cabinet a little too soon; he is probably not undesirous to join it again. His journey to Russia was undertaken merely in order to show that he does not adopt the old Palmerstonian policy of systematic opposition to Russia. Lord Randolph is a Conservative of a new school; he understands the temper of the new House of Commons; he knows that the extension of the suffrage has given a predominant power—I will not say to democracy, but to the lowest strata of the middle classes. The new electors care little for the affairs of Europe as long as England is not directly threatened in her interests. Even the possession of Constantinople has become a second-rate question in their eyes; since the opening of the Suez Canal, Constantinople is aside from the highroad to the East.

I do not pretend to defend this contracted policy, which some people would call too narrow, too selfish, too improvident; but whoever studies the tone of the English press and of the English Parliament must see that England, having so much on her hands, has made what is called in France "la part du feu." There are many questions which in old times would have stirred England, and which now leave her quite indifferent. Bismarck once said that he would not have the bones of a single Pomeranian grenadier broken for Bulgaria; many English statesmen, if they do not speak so frankly, feel somewhat the same way. What can the little English Army do among the nations in arms in Europe? The time is past when it could weigh heavily in the balance of fortune. It is not to be wondered at if Lord Randolph Churchill has tried to impress on the Russian mind the belief that Russia will not always find England opposed to her designs—if he has sown the germ of a new *modus vivendi* between two Powers which, if divided, give to Germany the hegemony of Europe, and, if united, maintain an equilibrium of forces which has always been thought essential, from the time of Charles V. to the time of Napoleon.

THE FINANCIAL RELATIONS OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

DUBLIN, January 9, 1888.

THE financial relations between Ireland and Great Britain constitute one of the difficulties to be dealt with in the settlement of the home-rule question. To Ireland there are the dangers (1) that, in readjusting these relations, a mere matter of business and figures may be overlooked in the concentration of attention on the political and sentimental aspects of the question; (2) that, in striking a bargain, the weaker of the two countries may get the worst of it.

The facts are simple, but the question has been obscured by fallacious reasoning founded on the figures, which at first sight present a paradox. In order to set them out intelligently I shall use round numbers; the principles involved will not be affected by slight inexactness of figures, nor, owing to the entangled condition in which accounts are presented to Parliament, is absolute accuracy attainable.

The population of Ireland is somewhat less than one-seventh of that of the United Kingdom, viz.: 5,000,000 to 36,000,000. The total revenue raised by taxation in the United Kingdom is about £75,000,000; the gross revenue being £90,000,000. No taxes are imposed in Ireland which are not also imposed in Great Britain; but in Great Britain there are taxes, producing from £2,000,000 to £3,000.000 annually, which are not levied in Ireland. The proportion of the imperial revenue which is raised in Ireland is £7,750,000, say one-tenth of the whole. The taxation per head in the different divisions of the United Kingdom is: England (including Wales) £2 2s. 3d., Scotland £2 5s. 7d., Ireland £1 11s. 3d. Ireland, therefore, with a population of one-seventh of the United Kingdom, contributes one-tenth of the total revenue raised by taxation, and per head of population pays 26 per cent. less than England and 31 per cent. less than Scotland. Yet Irishmen complain that Ireland is overtaxed, and most Englishmen who have gone into the figures now admit it. Gladstone's home-rule scheme recognized it, though, with that tendency, characteristic of English legislation, to depart as little as possible from existing practice, even though that practice be unjust, it did not wholly remove the grievance.

It will be conceded that taxation ought to be levied in proportion to the respective abilities of the two countries to bear taxation, and not in proportion to their populations. Great Britain is rich, prosperous, and increasingly so. Ireland has been decaying in population and wealth. Before comparing the capacities for taxation of the two countries, I must explain how it is that while the taxes are the same, their incidence is different.

More than half the revenue of the United Kingdom is raised by customs and excise duties on articles of general and common consumption, the principal ones being spirits, yielding £17,000,000, tobacco £9,500,000, tea £4,500,000, and beer £8,500,000. The duty on wine is comparatively light. These articles are consumed in very different proportions in the two countries. Equality of taxation does not necessarily result from identical imposts in two countries. If a tax on tea were levied at the same rate in England and France, it would yield a large revenue in England, and but little in France. If the tax were on coffee, the effect would be reversed. In Ireland spirits are more largely drunk than beer, the consumption being one gallon per head in Ireland, against two-thirds of a gallon in England and one and a half gallons in Scotland. Beer and wine are far more largely drunk in England, and these beverages are, in proportion to the alcohol contained, much more lightly taxed than spirits. The tax on the alcoholic equivalent of beer to a gallon of spirits is one-fifth of the tax on a gallon of spirits. Ireland consumes tea and tobacco nearly in proportion to her population. Her contribution to the customs revenue is one-tenth of the whole, but under this head she consumes dutiable articles taxed in England, and not estimated as Irish revenue. She contributes to the excise revenue one-sixth, part of this being taxation on spirits and beer made in Ireland, but consumed in Great Britain. What is held to be unfair is, that, so large a part of the revenue being raised from drink, the English national beverage is lightly and the Irish heavily taxed; and that, under a fiscal system based on taxation of articles of general consumption, the incidence of taxation is in proportion to population and not to wealth.

The comparative wealth and capacity to bear taxation of the two countries is shown by the assessments for income tax. This tax is levied on the annual value of (*a*) ownership of real property; (*b*) occupation of same; (*c*) annuities and dividends; (*d*) trades, professions, profits of railways, mines, etc.; (*e*) offices and pensions. The proportion Ireland's assessment bears to that of the United Kingdom, measured by the yield of the tax, is about one-twenty-fourth under the two principal heads, *a* and *d*. Ireland's proportion is one-twentieth for *a* and one-twenty-ninth for *d*. According to this standard, Ireland's contribution to the imperial revenue should be somewhat over £3,000,000, instead of £7,750,000. Much might be said in favor of making Ireland's contribution less than this: (1.) Under head *a*, about one-quarter of Ireland belongs to persons resident in England. (2.) Under head *d*, all incomes less than £150 are exempt. The amount of incomes which just escape the tax is, in proportion to population, vastly greater in England than in Ireland. (3.) The imperial revenue is largely spent on objects with which Ireland has no concern, and in keeping up a style which a poor country like Ireland cannot afford. It is estimated that royalty costs the United Kingdom about £1,000,000 a year. England's expensive foreign and colonial policy, her costly fighting services, are for the purpose of advancing and protecting her manufacturing and commercial interests, with which Ireland, a poor and almost exclusively agricultural and pastoral country, has no direct concern. The financial relation of the two countries is as if two persons, one with an income of £24,000, the other with an income of £1,000, were to keep house together, and live at the rate of £25,000 a year; the style and cost of living would be unsuitable and ruinous to him with the smaller income.

A plea made in justification of the excessive taxation of Ireland is that the expenditure

there is also excessive—that as much is spent as is raised there. This plea is an admission of undue taxation, but the excessive expenditure is, from an Irish point of view, unnecessary, harmful, and the cause of private expense to Irish citizens. There are fewer criminals in Ireland than in Great Britain, but for each England keeps in Ireland 8¾ policemen, against 3 in England and 2 in Scotland. The presence of an undue proportion of soldiers is a very doubtful advantage. State prosecutions, a hostile magistracy, an excessive number of officials, are heavy items in the Irish expenditure. The country is kept in a state of worry and disturbance. Private subscriptions are required in defence of Irish public men, in compensation for injuries and imprisonment inflicted on them, in keeping up organizations to protect interests attacked or threatened by Government. For example, a subscription has to-day very properly been set afoot to indemnify Mr. Wilfrid Blunt, a well-known and respected Englishman, who has been sent to prison for maintaining the right of public meeting and free speaking in Ireland. We have to pay for the costly Crown prosecution, and also for the defence and incidental expenses of Mr. Blunt. The amount that has been required and raised by voluntary subscriptions in Ireland during the last ten years for similar purposes would have far more than sufficed to pay every Irish member of Parliament a handsome salary. Through this excessive taxation we have to buy a stick for our Governor to beat us with, pay the doctor's bill when we are hurt, and buy arms to defend ourselves against him whom we have equipped.

In fairness Ireland's contribution to the imperial revenue should be fixed by an impartial arbitrator, but it will be fixed by an assembly where the voting power is five to one against Ireland. Our representatives will require all the moral support in this matter which an intelligent comprehension by their constituents of the facts and figures can alone supply.

The inequality of taxation between the two countries is not due to any malice on the part of English statesmen against Ireland. They have legislated for the United Kingdom regardless of Ireland. The question concerns the classes and the masses as much as the two countries. Under the system by which more than half the revenue is raised by taxation of articles of general consumption, and levied not on values, but quantities, the poor pay very much more than the rich, both in proportion to their means and to the value of the articles used. The system will probably be changed as soon as the newly enfranchised masses become aware of the real incidence and effect of the taxes now levied. Instead of diminishing the income tax in years of prosperity, they should require the exemption from all duty of necessaries and luxuries in general use, such as tea, coffee, tobacco, and fruit. The Government of the United Kingdom is still too much in the hands of an aristocratic ring, and it will take some time to shake off the political and administrative grip they have on the nation.

AN IRISHMAN.

Correspondence.

MR. EDMUNDS AS A POLITICAL ECONOMIST.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Senator Edmunds, in an article on the tariff in the February number of *Harper's Monthly*, claims that when the duty on a foreign product is reduced, the foreign producer raises his price by an amount substantially equal to the reduction of duty; and therefore the foreign producer and not the American consumer is the gainer. He instances the effect of the act abolishing the duty on tea and coffee, and assumes to quote the wholesale prices of those articles six months before and six months after the passage of the act. The quotations given by him do not show a decline equal to the amount of reduction of duty, and he infers that the foreign producer raised his prices.

The Senator's quotations of tea are so far wrong as to suggest the possibility that he obtained them from his Vermont grocer, who had not learned of the abolition of the duty. The act abolishing the then existing duty of fifteen cents per pound was passed May, 1872, to take effect July, 1872. I give below quotations from the monthly tea circulars of Messrs. Beebe & Brothers of New York, dated November 18, 1871, and November 19, 1872, the dates being about six months before and six months after the passage of the act. Messrs. Beebe & Brothers were the highest authority in the country, and the accuracy of their tea circulars no one in the trade would venture to deny.

QUOTATIONS IN GOLD FOR NEW-CROP MOYUNE, TAENKAI, AND FYCHOW GREEN TEAS.

November 18, 1871.

Gunpowder,	1st	105@110c.	duty paid.
"	2d	80@ 85c.	"
Imperial,	1st	85@ 90c.	"
"	2d	70@ 75c.	"
"	3d	50@ 58c.	"
Young Hyson,	1st	95@105c.	"
"	2d	75@ 85c.	"
"	3d	55@ 62c.	"
"	4th	45@ 50c.	"
Hyson,	1st	80@ 85c.	"
"	2d	67@ 72c.	"
"	3d	50@ 58c.	"

November 19, 1872.

Gunpowder,	1st	78@83c.	duty free.
"	2d	60@63c.	"
Imperial,	1st	60@65c.	"
"	2d	50@52c.	"
"	3d	32@37c.	"
Young Hyson,	1st	68@72c.	"
"	2d	52@56c.	"
"	3d	34@36c.	"
"	4th	28@30c.	"
Hyson,	1st	60@65c.	"
"	2d	45@50c.	"
"	3d	32@37c.	"

As the prices of November, 1872, were lower by even more than the amount of reduction of duty, it is evident that the American consumer and not the foreign producer was the gainer.

The proper basis of comparison, however, is the prices obtained by the China producer. By reference to the *Overland Trade Report* of Shanghai, and to the circulars of the leading houses doing business with the United States, it will be found that teas were lower in China in November, 1872, than they were in November, 1871. China produced tea for all the tea-drinking countries. Their demand and her supply determined the prices she was able to obtain. The United States took but a portion of her supply. For the China producer to appropriate the duty removed, by raising his prices, was as impossible as it would have been for him to raise himself by his queue. The facts were, that the American consumer obtained, in a very short time, the full benefit of the removal of the duty, and also of the profit on the duty that the dealer formerly charged.

WILLIAM SIMES.

BOSTON, February 6, 1888.

A SELF-OPERATING TERMINOLOGY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the opening sentence of his article in the February *Forum*, Judge Kelley puts forth an argument which, so far as I have seen, stands unrivalled. He says: "That combustion consumes and that light illuminates are universally accepted propositions; but that protection in the form of customs duties protects the capital and labor engaged in the productive industries to which such duties apply, is denied by sects of discordant *doctrinaires*," etc.

Passing over the admirable alliteration, "denied by sects of discordant *doctrinaires*," which, for rhetorical effect, is very felicitous, please notice the implication involved. Not far from here lives the proprietor of a much advertised "Safe Cure" for kidney and other diseases. "That combustion consumes and that light illuminates are universally accepted propositions; but that" the said Safe Cure cures is denied by various "sects of discordant *doctrinaires*" in medicine, who thus cover themselves with utter confusion; for does not their denial make them guilty of a direct contradiction in terms? You have only to label your nostrum as doing the thing which you wish to have done, to convince any right-minded man that it is accomplishing the result.

The happily chosen misnomer "Protection," like the taking name on the patent-medicine bottle, goes far to account for the popularity of the thing named. B.

THE LOT OF THE POST-OFFICE CLERK.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The merits of the bill presented to Congress by the Hon. S. S. Cox of New York, providing for a classification, and regulation of the salaries, of Post-office clerks, are such as ought to insure its speedy consideration and prompt passage.

In the first place, they alone, of all Government employees, have no fixed status, with corresponding salaries. The compensation is determined by the Postmaster out of a fixed sum allowed him by the Department, and it frequently happens that a clerk in one office gets several hundred dollars more than a clerk in another office performing exactly similar duties. The salaries, even in the highest paid offices, are ridiculously small when the difficult character of the work is taken into consideration, and bear no comparison whatever with those of other branches of the Federal service, such as the Custom-house and the Internal-Revenue Department.

In the second place, the positions are such as require a high degree of skill and intelligence. All the faculties are brought into use; the clerks are constantly on their feet, cancelling, sorting, separating, and distributing the letters, pouching them, and forwarding them to their destination. The work goes on day and night, crew succeeding crew; the labor is immense and well-nigh incessant. The smallest error in handling tens of thousands of pieces of mail matter is at once detected; time lost through sickness or other unavoidable causes is deducted from salaries, small as they are; the amount of vacation allowed each clerk per annum is rarely more than one week; and the men are required to work on Sunday.

Under these circumstances the clerks in nearly all the first-class offices throughout the country have organized to improve their position, and with this end in view have caused a bill to be prepared which has already passed its second reading in Congress, and now goes to the Committee on Post-offices for their action. This bill has received the cordial endorsement of prominent citizens of all parties, the Post-office Department itself is in favor of it, and it is to be hoped that the underpaid and overworked clerks will receive that tardy justice they so fully deserve. D. STERITT GITTINGS.

BALTIMORE, January 30, 1888.

OCCUPATION FOR THE BLIND.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: An amusing confirmation of the truth of Mr. Edward B. Perry's recent articles in the

Century upon the blind, and the prevailing ignorance of their peculiar requirements, comes to us in the shape of a widely circulated press report of a wonderful game of draw poker played not long since, in an Eastern city, by a quartet of afflicted gentlemen having a specially prepared deck of cards of three times the usual thickness, with surfaces deeply engraved to meet the exigencies of the occasion. Absurd! Such a deck would be not only a ridiculously clumsy contrivance, but one wholly unnecessary, since—thanks to M. Braille—ordinary playing-cards are just as available to the blind as to any other class. Inmates of the Perkins Institute, Boston, have used for a long time cards bearing the initial letters of the various suits, with figures denoting each card's denomination; and here in the West the system has been still further simplified by dispensing with suit initials altogether, the suits being designated by the location of the figure punctured upon each card's lower margin—hearts, left corner; diamonds, left centre; clubs, right corner; and spades, right centre. By marking the lower margin instead of the upper, as in the older method, a card may be recognized by a simple glance of the thumb, as it were, and a whist hand arranged with gratifying celerity.

The recreation of card-playing is doubtless of too trivial a nature to engage for a moment Mr. Perry's attention, but those less independent in character and fortune than he — to whom a gallop on horseback and a European tour appear equally impossible of achievement —naturally view the matter from a different standpoint, and to such the game of chess has proved a source of even greater enjoyment. The notation of moves is readily mastered, and the beginner, having a kind and patient friend —and such is seldom wanting—to assist him in the development of his experimental games, soon finds the way to be quite easy and the pursuit most fascinating. One amateur, claiming a memory rather below than above the average, has even conducted three simultaneous games to a successful, though by no means triumphant, conclusion.

Finally, the type-writer, through whose good offices this communication is made, must not be dismissed without honorable mention. It is not in the least exclusive; it is as easy of access to the blind as to any who see fit to approach it; and, certain trifling formalities having been duly observed, stands ready and willing to serve one and all with impartial zeal and effectiveness. H. S. Moore.

Muscatine, Iowa, January 24, 1888.

WHAT IS AN "ENGLISHMAN"?

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Will you or some of your readers kindly inform me in what sense the word "Englishman" is generally used in the United States?

I am a native of Scotland, but, having lost my brogue through early education in England, I am not easily recognizable as such. I have travelled a good deal, and in speaking to natives of the various countries in which I have been, I have usually, for convenience' sake, described myself as an Englishman, meaning by this a native of the United Kingdom, unless I had occasion to emphasize the facts of my Scottish descent and birth. I do the same in the United States, but I have found that several of my friends have disputed my use of the word in question, saying that I had no right to call myself an Englishman, since I was in reality a Scotchman. Others again, I found, spoke of Canadians as Englishmen, an application of the word which is often much resented by natives of the mother country.

Of course there can be no doubt that technically "Englishman" means "a native of England, *i. e.*, of the southern part of Great Britain." But it seems to me that the word is so commonly employed in the sense of "native of the United Kingdom" that this use cannot be considered as incorrect, especially as "Briton" has passed into the regions of poetry and oratory, and "Britisher," incorrect in form and ugly in appearance, has not taken root in England or America, and as a word for the purpose is wanted.

But I hold that "Englishman" should only be applied to natives of the United Kingdom itself, though Irishmen (small blame to them) in most cases prefer to keep their own national name. If Canadians are English because they are born in a British colony, where are we to stop? Australians, French Canadians, Maltese, Hindus, West Indian negroes, Kafirs, Hottentots, Fijians must all be English. My American friends say, "Well, they *are* as much English as you are." I say, "No; they are fellow-subjects with me of Queen Victoria, fellow-citizens of the British Empire; but they are not English. I call myself English, not from want of patriotism (Scotchmen don't often suffer from lack of that good quality), but because the word is very convenient, and this use of it is quite general."

As I am of a peaceable disposition, and wish to avoid discussions which occasionally become rather heated, I venture to ask you, sir, what you consider to be the general meaning of the word "Englishman" in the United States, so that I may shape my conduct accordingly.

Yours truly, Adam Craig.

Colorado Springs, January 10, 1888.

[We should think that a Scotchman like Mr. Craig might with perfect propriety call himself an Englishman on the European Continent, or in any place where the habit prevails of looking at and thinking of all natives of the United Kingdom as Englishmen, and people could not distinguish a Scotchman of the better class from an Englishman, Welshman, or Irishman, either by speech or appearance. In the United States or any of the British colonies, however, in which both Englishmen and Scotchmen abound, and in which people are very familiar with their differences of character and accent and traditions, we think the wiser course would be to call himself a Scotchman on all occasions in which there is any obligation to speak of his nativity at all, and especially occasions on which his company expresses opinions about Scotchmen which he does not share, and which they would not knowingly utter in a Scotchman's presence. In brief, it is always wise not to allow any one to assume that you are something which you are not, if the assumption is likely in any way to affect his conduct towards you, or his conversation with you, or his relations of any kind with you.—Ed. Nation.]

COEDUCATION AGAIN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: If coeducation is to stand or fall by statistics, we hope the following will avert its doom for a few years at least. They show the number of students attending the fourteen leading colleges open to women as represented in the Association of Collegiate Alumnæ. They include also the attendance at Bryn Mawr, which has as yet no alumnæ:

	1874.				January, 1888.			
			Per Ct.				Per Ct.	
	Men.	Women.	Men.	Women.	Men.	Women.	Men.	Women.
Boston	36	16	69	31	70	106	40	60
California	169	22	88	12	‡242	‡46	84	16
Cornell	436	32	93	7	918	104	90	10
Kansas	*49	*31	61	39	‡146	‡70	68	32
Mass. Ins. Tech.	†175	†22	89	11	694	25	97	3
Michigan	484	51	90	10	528	187	74	26
Northwestern	174	40	81	19	147	89	62	38
Oberlin	207	184	52	48	‡166	‡275	38	62
Syracuse	87	28	76	24	150	58	72	28
Wesleyan	176	7	96	4	176	14	93	7
Wisconsin	171	73	70	30	‡286	‡103	74	26
Total	2164	506	81	19	3523	1077	77	23

	1874. Women.	Jan., 1888. Women.
Bryn Mawr	....	79
Smith	‖ 17	367
Vassar	265	283
Wellesley	‖ 314	620
Total	596	1349

Attention is called to the following facts:

(1.) In every one of the coeducational colleges, the number of women in attendance is greater than in 1874.

(2.) The number of women attending coeducational colleges has doubled since 1874.

(3.) In the above statistics, no enumeration is made in coeducational colleges of students connected with preparatory departments, or with colleges of music or of fine arts. The statistics given for separate colleges for women *include* all such students.

(4.) In four coeducational colleges it was necessary to give the statistics for 1887. Judging by the increase of previous years, the number of women in attendance at such colleges in January, 1888, is greater than that represented by the table.

(5.) The conclusion of the whole matter is, that about the same number of women are attending coeducational and separate colleges for women.—Respectfully, M.

February 4, 1888.

A SWISS VIEW OF A SURPLUS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: To-day, while reading Dubs's 'Das Oeffentliche Recht der Schweizerischen Eidgenossenschaft' (Part 2, Zurich, 1878), I came upon a passage which I translate as follows:

"The chief point [in finance] is order, and with it self-control; where these fail, begin corruption, stealing, and vices of every sort; and even in fruitful lands we find continual want, yes, want of bread. But too abundant sources of state support are by no means always an advantage to a country. North America would never have fallen into such bad social conditions as are to be found, particularly in the great cities, but for the immense public domain of which it has the disposition. Indeed, on our own soil, in Switzerland, we find examples enough of the fact that great revenues are not always a good thing for their possessors. Our confederation would hardly be in financial distress just now, if the Eldorado of its tariff duties had not directed it in the road of over-expenditure. Never give a state more than is absolutely necessary for its existence, for you are fattening a monster. . . .

"We affirm that every penny that is taken from the country without necessity, in order to pay it to the state, somewhere in the country makes somebody's piece of bread smaller. We have no confidence in patriotic tax-inventions."

Yours respectfully, H.

Cambridge, January 31, 1888.

* 1877. † 1879. ‡ 1887. ‖ 1875.

Notes.

J. B. Lippincott Co. will issue on March 1, in connection with the Edinburgh publishers, the first volume of a new edition of 'Chambers's Encyclopædia,' to be completed in ten volumes following one another at short intervals. The maps will be increased in number, and a special set for the United States introduced; the illustrations will be largely renewed, with the aid of photography. Articles written in this country are marked "Copyright."

A 'Life of Thomas Hopkins Gallaudet,' founder of deaf-mute instruction in America, is about to be handsomely brought out by Henry Holt & Co.

Charles Scribner's Sons announce for early publication Mrs. Frances Hodgson Burnett's 'Sara Crewe,' uniform in style with the author's 'Little Lord Fauntleroy'; a new novel by George W. Cable, entitled 'Bonaventure: A Prose Pastoral of Acadian Louisiana'; and 'The Tailor-made Girl,' by Philip H. Welch, with full-page illustrations by C. Jay Taylor.

Harper & Bros. publish directly the fifth volume of Kinglake's 'Invasion of the Crimea'; 'Monarchs I have Met' by W. Beatty Kingston; and a pamphlet for the times called 'Tariff and Revenue Discussed,' containing the President's recent message and Blaine's counter message, and the articles by Henry Watterson and Senator Edmunds in the last two numbers of *Harper's Monthly*. A wide circulation of these documents in juxtaposition is much to be desired.

A noticeable number of fresh ventures in periodical literature lie upon our table. We name first the monthly *Our Day*, "A Record and Review of Current Reform," edited in Boston by Mr. Joseph Cook, with the assistance of Miss Frances E. Willard (Temperance department), Prof. E. J. James (Labor Reform), Prof. L. T. Townsend (Education), Anthony Comstock (Prevention of Vice), Rev. C. S. Eby (Missions), and Rev. G. F. Pentecost (Church Work). Five of this staff of writers contribute to the January number. Some of the leading articles are "Shall Utah be Made a Mormon State?" "The Prospects of Prohibition" (by Neal Dow), "Woman as Preacher," "Indictable Art," "The National Divorce Reform League" (Rev. S. W. Dike). The magazine is attractively printed. The *American Anthropologist* is a quarterly publication of the Anthropological Society of Washington, in continuation of their "Transactions." The January number has papers on "The Law of Malthus," by President Welling of Columbian University; "The Development of Time-Keeping in Greece and Rome," by F. A. Seely; "Anthropological Notes on the Human Hand," by Dr. Frank Baker; and "The Chane-abal Tribe and Dialect of Chiapas," by Dr. D. G. Brinton. Mr. Thomas Hampson is the publisher. The *Teacher*, a monthly educational magazine in the quarto form, comes to us from this city. It looks for its support mainly to the female teachers in the common schools, the editors being themselves of that class. "Its hope is the advancement of pedagogy in all its departments." We hope, therefore, that it will lend a hand to the movement for the higher education of women in New York. It is published at No. 1157 Broadway. *Italia* is the title of a monthly magazine published in English at Rome (New York: International News Co.). Its aim is to spread a knowledge of the current of modern life in literature, politics, economy, art, music, etc. A biographical sketch of the statesman Giovanni Lanza, who died in 1882, leads the table of contents for January. Fiction has a place in the scheme. Finally, we speak of the unseen when we mention the *Children's Illustrated Magazine* started last month by Seeley & Co., London. Two full-page designs in colors will be a standing feature.

In another column we have said our say about President Eliot's Harvard report. On the two topics of science preparation and English preparation, useful commentaries (direct and indirect) will be found in the Syracuse *Academy* for February. We refer to the articles, "How to do Laboratory Work in Chemistry and Physics in High Schools," by Mr. James H. Shepard; "Teaching English Literature," by Miss Anna C. Brackett; and "College Requirements in English," by Mr. W. C. Collar. We are very glad to place on our shelves the bound second volume of this magazine—the highest attainment in practical pedagogic journalism yet made in this country.

Some sickening examples of the way in which Jared Sparks tampered with the text of Washington's private letters are given by Mr. William Henry Smith in the February (or Washington) number of the *Magazine of American History*. He afterwards prints with literal faithfulness several of the letters thus mutilated, and fourteen which Mr. Sparks omitted altogether. They all bear date of 1758, and are addressed to Col. Bouquet. The originals are in the British Museum.

Ought imaginative works to be illustrated; and, if yes, by their authors when capable? This is the burden of a symposium or conversation on book illustration devised by the editor for the January *Portfolio* (Macmillan). We cannot think Mr. Hamerton more successful than commonly happens in such dramatic characterizations. Nevertheless what the poet, scientist, artist, and critic (Mr. Hamerton himself, by confession) have to say is very instructive. In the critic's estimation, Rossetti did wisely to refrain from illustrating his own compositions, whereas "Thackeray's illustrations have a great interest, but it is only psychological. His books, with all their satire, are kindlier in their views of human nature than his drawings," which are very defective. Ruskin "is an artist when he writes, a student when he draws. In writing he unhesitatingly sacrifices accuracy to effect, and that is quite characteristic of an artist." In drawing, just the reverse. "Victor Hugo's drawings are violent," "a savage utterance, partly made in fun, like the thumping on the piano of some vigorous but uncultivated amateur." There is in them "a sort of grim humor and a real turn for the grotesque." The *Portfolio* opens the new year well, offering a fine etching after Millais's portrait of the painter Hook, and one not less admirable by Mlle. Poynot after Henner's "Une Créole."

L'Art for January 1 (Macmillan) is, as usual, largely given up to notices of illustrated holiday publications, with samples of the plates. Its sole article is on the late Gustave Guillaumet, from whose drawings many pleasing and effective selections are made. The etching is after A. Brouillet's "Une Leçon clinique à la Salpétrière."

A portrait of Whittier at the age of eighty that is true to feature and to character without being senile—such is the life-size lithographic print issued by Houghton, Mifflin & Co. So remote from the still genial face is the feeling of weakness or decay, that one could fancy the firm lip just closed from repeating some stern poet-prophet message, like

> "The bolts which shattered Shinar's tower
> Hang, smoking, for a fiercer fall!"

The Maimonides Library of this city, whose collection is now close upon 30,000 volumes, makes an appeal for contributions of every sort of document illustrating the history of the Jews in America.

No. 26 of the Harvard Library, "Bibliographical Contributions," catalogues the Carlyle collection of books relating to Cromwell and Frederick II., bequeathed by their former owner to this depository. Mr. William Coolidge Lane is the compiler.

Mr. Ford's 'Bibliotheca Hamiltoniana' has been seconded by Mr. Hamilton Bullock Tompkins with a 'Bibliotheca Jeffersoniana,' published by the same firm (Messrs. Putnam) in uniform size and typography, and also in a limited edition. It is a thoroughly well executed piece of work, and much to be prized. The most interesting of the three hundred odd entries is, of course, bibliographically speaking, the 'Notes on Virginia,' of which from twenty to thirty issues and editions are recorded, one being in French and another in German. On the whole, the number of French translations is smaller than might have been expected. There is one of the 'Manual' and one of the first inaugural address, besides Conseil's 'Mélanges Politiques et Philosophiques.' Three Italian translations are mentioned. Only the more important messages have been taken note of by Mr. Tompkins. A complete set, he tells us, has not existed since the burning of the Capitol in 1814.

Mr. S. S. Rider, in his Providence *Book Notes* for February 4, supplies a title overlooked by Mr. Tompkins, viz., Sears's 'American Politician,' 1842, containing a memoir of Jefferson, his inaugural and first message. In the same number it is demonstrated that no woman was ever hanged for witchcraft in Rhode Island, nor were there any proceedings under the statute imposing the penalty of death for that offence.

A writer in a recent number of the *Kölnische Zeitung* gives an interesting account of the newspaper museum at Aix-la-Chapelle, founded by Oscar von Forckenbeck. It now contains files or specimens of over 17,000 different papers, nearly half of the newspaper press of the world, and is receiving daily additions from every part of the globe. Dr. Wilhelm Joest, the author of a work on the German press in other than European countries, has recently sent to it his collection of 1,200 papers, making it more complete in this department than in that of papers published in Germany. The great curiosity of the Museum, framed and hung upon the wall, is No. 46 of the *Texas Democrat*, published at Houston March 11, 1864, and printed on wall paper.

The January number of *Petermann's Mitteilungen* opens with an account by Graf Pfeil of a recent journey through Useguha on the east coast of Africa. Though chiefly devoted to descriptions of the soil and geological observations, it contains some interesting notices of the natives and their customs. A detailed description is also given of a wooden musical instrument, very similar to our xylophone, together with the notes of a melody ordinarily played upon it. This paper is accompanied by a map, as is also Dr. Lange's notice of two river systems in southern Brazil.

Dr. Guido F. Verbeck of Tokio, Japan, the American missionary whom the Mikado's Government placed at the head of their educational system immediately after the civil war of 1868-69, has published his 'Conspectus of the Japanese Verb in all its Conjugations.' In this excellent aid to the mastery of the Japanese language, notwithstanding its brevity and compactness, in ninety-five pages, this scholar has

presented to the eye the substance of many native grammars and dictionaries.

The *Nation* of August 18, 1887, contained an account of the excavations which had been conducted on the site of the ancient Greek city of Sicyon by the American School of Classical Studies at Athens. These excavations were resumed in the autumn, and work there has only recently ceased for the winter. The orchestra and its entrances have been cleared of the layer of earth which covered them. The new finds have not been numerous, but are of considerable importance. The chief is the head of a statue of Parian marble, of good Greek workmanship, about life-size. It was broken into three pieces, but the face is uninjured, with the exception of the nose and one brow slightly marred. It is pronounced to be a Dionysus with extreme feminine traits. A torso was found to which this head may prove to have belonged. Another head was brought out from some retreat by a peasant, and removed to Athens by the Government. A large head of mediocre workmanship was also found in the excavations. These are valuable as the only known specimens of Sicyon art.

Dr. Sigmund Fraenkel, a pupil of Prof. Theodor Nöldeke, has done valuable service for Semitic lexicography by separating from the Arabic lexicon the words of Aramean origin ('Die Aramäischen Fremdwörter in Arabischen,' Leyden: E. J. Brill), and he has in turn discussed the origin of these words, quite a number of which are derived from Persian and Greek. From its arrangement, as well as from its material, the work has an interest for other than lexicographical students. Dr. Fraenkel has disposed the words treated into groups, like house, food, clothing, and ornaments; animals, agriculture, minerals, names of wines and their receptacles; seamanship, military, writing, artisanship, and trade; Christian religion, statesmanship, etc. The student of history can see at a glance how valuable such a work may become for him, enabling him to separate the indigenous from the foreign both in church and state, in literature, and in the family.

We have received two parts, going as far as *fromm*, of the fourth improved edition of F. Kluge's 'Etymologisches Wörterbuch der Deutschen Sprache' (Strassburg: Trübner). We gave a full notice of the first edition in January, 1884. Since then the book has been criticised for its brevity and conciseness, but the author is to be congratulated on not having yielded to the temptation of enlarging it. It is a matter of surprise to us that this work has not been translated into English.

The new edition of 'La France Protestante,' the great biographical and bibliographical dictionary of the French Protestants, has reached the sixth volume, the first half of which, completing the letter F, has just been published. The most noteworthy articles are those on the Estiennes and Farel. It also contains a much fuller list of "forçats pour la foi" than the first editors were able to print.

M. Eugène Réveillaud, the author of a history of Canada and the French Canadians, has discovered in the archives of the department of Seine-et-Oise a manuscript 'Histoire Chronologique de la Nouvelle France,' from 1504 to 1632. The author, a Récollet father, Sixte Le Tac, relates with much vivacity the attempts of the Jesuits to become sole masters of Canada. M. Réveillaud is about to publish the work with notes and documents. The subscription price is announced at ten francs, to be raised to twenty after publication.

In anticipation of the celebration of the centenary of the French Revolution, the Minister of Public Instruction has ordered the collection of material for a 'Histoire Impartiale de la Révolution.' According to a circular recently issued, this is to be grouped under these general heads: "État des personnes (Clergé, Noblesse, Tiers-État); État des terres, Administration (Administration générale, Finances, Justice, État militaire et maritime, Instruction, Beaux Arts); Agriculture (Industrie, Commerce)."

An eminent American instructor writes us as follows: "During the past fortnight, I paid about 30 per cent. duty on one package of books, while duty must have been charged on pamphlets of 40 or 50 pages in two other packages, unless the duty charged was excessive. Some of these were new publications which I desired for immediate use in my professional work, in teaching and in research, and I was more troubled by the delay in the Custom-house than by the 'duty.'"

—The February *Century* is a most excellent number. The Seward-Lincoln correspondence, which has been widely noticed, is a genuine surprise. There could not be more conclusive evidence of the little estimation in which Lincoln was held, when he took office, by the head of his party in the East. The act itself, the scarcely veiled suggestion that Lincoln should resign his functions into the hands of his Secretary of State, is sufficiently remarkable; but the policy Seward foreshadowed, with its two foreign wars, shows how far the would-be prime minister was from having a true sense of the country's situation, and it is a dreadful blow to Seward's reputation for statesmanship that he harbored at all such impossible ideas. He did not understand Lincoln's Fabian mind, which waited until all sides had been heard and all projects discussed before he came to the decision; but this lack of acquaintance with the President's character was excusable, while his own failure to penetrate the internal situation, and his wildness of aim in thinking to fight Spain and France, with Virginia on the point of secession, is a marvel of error. The Chicago Convention had builded better than it knew in placing Lincoln at the head of the ticket. The second article of greatest interest is the Landor correspondence with Miss Boyle, which is of value rather because letters of this kind are rare in our literature than intrinsically. Mr. Lowell's critical introduction is only too brief, and, interesting as is his portraiture of Landor in his old age, one wishes he had had more to say, especially of Landor's poems. Mr. Lowell seems to be thinking of him almost entirely as a prose author. The Russian papers of Mr. Kennan continue to be admirable, and in this instalment the jealously closed secret of the Petropavlovsk fortress has enough light shed on it to make one hope that the fate of the Bastille will yet overtake it. Other articles upon the history of stage-setting, ranch-life on the plains, Paris, and especially the comprehensive contribution of Gen. Sherman on the general military science of the war, are well worth more extended notice than we can give them. The weakness of the number is in its poetry, and of such a performance as Mr. Maurice Thompson's, which is a kind of Nat Willis rendering of Walt Whitman, it is difficult to say whether there is more decomposition of sense or of poetic art in it. It almost rivals Will Carlton's great effort in the Christmas *Harper's*.

—The latest publication of the Shelley Society, a type-facsimile of the 'Epipsychidion,' 1821, contains an admirable preface by Rev. Stopford Brooke, which may be profitably brought into connection with Arnold's recent essay, in which he endeavors to sensualize Shelley in all his relations to women as a man of an "entirely human inflammability." This is a gross view and grossly put, and it is especially unjust to confuse Shelley's idealizing temperament with sensuality in such a case as his attraction towards Emilia Viviani, who is the figure of the 'Epipsychidion.' This poem is the most difficult of his works, because it contains his theory of love, and is, moreover, a poetic and obscure allegory of his own search for ideal beauty, which he symbolizes by its highest imaginative form—woman. Mr. Brooke does not discuss this theory; but he states it fully and freely. Speaking previously of Shelley's Platonism, he says:

"Hence arose a theory of personal human love which traverses the code of social morals, and that theory Shelley held. It was that to bind ourselves down to one object of love alone was not wise, because then we rendered ourselves incapable of seeing and realizing those different aspects of the ideal Beauty which we could find in other minds, in other personalities. . . . Whether Mary liked that theory, whether it has any rightness in it at all, how far Shelley practised it or refrained from putting it into practice, is not the question now. . . . This is a theory capable of being used to promote licentiousness by those who have the sensual idea of love and beauty. By Shelley, who abhorred sensuality, . . . it could not be used in that manner. But he saw no reason whatever why he should not, while he was faithful to his marriage tie, give deep affection to other women, and find represented in them other phases of the absolute beauty, which phases he was bound to feel and gain through them."

—This represents Shelley, on the philosophic side of his mind, very well, and in writing 'Epipsychidion' that was the side he was expressing. The element of reality in it, so far as Emilia was concerned, is very slight. He used her charm for him, which sprang from her pathetic situation and personal beauty, as Raphael might have seen some models and dreamed a Madonna. In other words, his mood was not one of "inflammability," but of idealization. He was amorous, but so, certainly, was Milton; and to confound warmth of temperament with the soulless pleasure of sensuality is a wrong to our nature. Those who have read Mr. Arnold's essay, which seems to us one to be much regretted, cannot find a better illustration of the way in which Shelley thought and felt about love, and made it a mystical element in his poetry and an ideal worship in his life, than this preface, which contains much sound and temperate criticism of Shelley's modes of expression, both in their weakness and in their surprise. To the essay are added the fragment "On Love" and the beautiful "Una Favola," which is an earlier prose 'Epipsychidion' with Emilia left out.

—The forty-sixth birthday of Sidney Lanier, the Southern poet and musician, was celebrated in Baltimore on February 3 by a company of his personal friends and associates. It is nearly seven years since he died, and his fame appears to be constantly increasing as the ideal of his aspirations is more clearly discerned. He has never been a "popular" poet—perhaps he never will be. To some minds he appears obscure; to some he seems like a poet of another age discoursing on modern themes; to others—and this number is growing—he seems a poet of the future, the herald of better things to come from the pens of those who are inspired by the ideas that animated him. Whatever may be his ultimate position, the celebration in Baltimore shows that his life and writings have already made a strong impression on a large number of gifted and earnest minds. The immediate occasion of the assembly was the presenta-

tion of a likeness of the poet to the Johns Hopkins University. The sculptor, Ephraim Keyser, now at work on the Arthur monument, modelled the bust during Lanier's life, and caused it to be cast in bronze. When a kinsman of the poet, Mr. Charles Lanier of New York, heard of the existence of this work of art, he generously gave it to the University in which Lanier had been a lecturer. A citizen of Baltimore offered the pedestal. To receive the gift, a company of perhaps one hundred and fifty persons assembled in the hall where the poet had read his lectures on the Growth of the Novel, English Literature, and on the Science of Verse. There stood the bust crowned with laurel; on the pedestal hung his flute; at the base was a bed of flowers. Musicians representing the Peabody Orchestra, in which for years Lanier had played the flute, took part in the exercises. One of his musical compositions, adapted to words of Tennyson's, and one of his own poems, which a friend had set to music, were sung. Miss Ward, sister of Lanier's biographer, read selections from his poems. Father Tabb, a Catholic priest who had shared with Lanier the privations of prison life during the civil war, read a sonnet in commemoration of his friend; another sonnet came from Richard E. Burton of Connecticut, and longer poems from Mrs. Turnbull of Baltimore and Joseph Cummings of Tennessee. Just before the hour of the meeting, the mail brought some exquisite lines from Miss Edith M. Thomas, which, like the poems already mentioned, were read aloud. Professor Tolman of Ripon College, once a pupil of Lanier's, contributed a critical estimate of his 'Science of Verse,' and Mr. Burton prepared a list of printed articles and poems, some thirty in number, which have appeared since Lanier's death, many of them by writers of distinction. President Gates of Rutgers College spoke in words of affectionate admiration of the ethical influence of Lanier's character and life. Many interesting letters were received, and three of them, those of Lowell, Richard W. Gilder, and Edmund C. Stedman, were read. Finally, as a choice memento of the hour, a card, designed and given by Mrs. Whitman of Boston, was offered to every one of the company. Upon one side of the card were a wreath of laurels, the name and date, and the words "Aspiro dum exspiro," and on the other side the lines with which Lanier closed his hymn to the Sun, in the first of the "Hymns of the Marshes":

"Ever by day shall my spirit, as one that hath tried thee,
Labor at leisure, in art; till yonder, beside thee
My soul shall float, friend Sun;
The day being done."

—The Wisconsin State Historical Society is well-nigh coeval with the State. It has just held its thirty-fifth annual meeting, and the State lacks some months of being forty years old. The Society has no rival west of the Alleghanies. Its library numbers 60,722 bound volumes, and its pamphlet collection some thousands larger—a total of 123,449. The seventh volume of its catalogue has just been published, and the tenth and eleventh octavos of its historical collections are now in the press. Its volumes of Shaksperiana are 885, those on the War of the Rebellion 1,617, newspaper files 5,240. A class catalogue has been published of works on the Rebellion. The art-gallery contains 149 portraits of men who have figured in State history. The Indian relics and stone tools are numerous, and the magazine of copper implements is nowhere surpassed, or surpassed only in Buda-Pesth. Among the manuscript treasures are autographs of every one of the fifty-six signers of the Declaration of Independence, and something more than a signature in the handwriting of almost all of them. The historical gatherings are garnered up in a wing of the State Capitol which was built a few years ago to contain them. This building was considered to be fire-proof, as well as to afford ample room and verge enough for the accumulations of ages. It now appears, however, that in fifteen years the Society will be crowded, and must say: "The place is too strait for me; give place to me, that I may dwell." For this reason, and still more in order to enshrine such historic jewels as cannot be duplicated where the assurance that they cannot be burned will be doubly sure, the Wisconsin historiophilists are impatient to obtain, through munificence private or public, new and larger quarters in an edifice isolated and incombustible. Their past successes encourage the hope that their will will have its way. Alexander Mitchell, the Milwaukee banker and railroad president, who died last April, was for some time President of the Historical Society. Hence a memorial address concerning him was delivered at the annual meeting. The speaker, Prof. James D. Butler, confined himself to Mr. Mitchell's financial career. Imported from Scotland as a clerk in a so-called insurance company, Mr. Mitchell turned it into a bank, and the only one for thirteen years in a State twice as large as Scotland and growing faster than any of our States has ever grown. He became the foremost banker in the Northwest, and then was for more than twenty years conspicuous among railroad kings. The railroad fragments which, when he took hold of them, were less than 400 miles long, he expanded so as to leave them with a length of more than 5,000 miles. No man has moulded Wisconsin history with a more potent hand.

—In 1879, Dr. Grímur Thomsen of Bessestad, himself a poet, whose lyrics, though not numerous, are of a high order, began to make the necessary collections for a memorial edition of the poetical works of the Icelandic hymnologist, Hallgrímur Pétersson. The task proved no easy one, for not only were some of the editions of the poet's verse, running back through two centuries, very rare, but many productions bearing his name, yet of more or less doubtful authenticity, were in existence, demanding a good deal of careful sifting before the table of contents of the proposed collection could be made out. There were variations, too, of some importance in the printed texts of the religious verse, especially in the issues of an early date, and others in the few manuscripts to be found in the Icelandic libraries. As for the non-religious verse, no real attempt had been made to gather it together, much less to edit it. The long labors of Dr. Thomsen have now resulted in the appearance, a few months since, of the first volume of 'Sálmar og Kvædi eftir Hallgrím Pétursson,' a very handsome specimen of Icelandic typography—the presses of Reykjavík being, in fact, not at all inferior, in the quality of their work, to those of far larger European capitals. An engraved portrait of the poet, in his stiffly fluted Lutheran ruff, forms the frontispiece. The volume comprises the fifty 'Hymns on the Passion' (*Passíu-sálmar*)—the one great poetic classic of the modern literature; the versified paraphrase of the first book of Samuel, and a fragment of the second (Samúels-sálmar); and the 'Spiritual Chain' (*Andleg- Kedja*), or verselets based on the Gospels, which is ascribed by Dr. Thomsen to the pen of Hallgrímur, mainly on internal evidence. The book ends with some pages of notes, among them being a bibliography of the 'Passion Hymns' more complete than any yet compiled. It enumerates thirty-six editions, beginning with the first (issued at Hólar in 1666), or, including the present one, thirty-seven—an average of a new edition every six years. Dr. Thomsen has prefixed an instructive essay on the life and literary activity of the poet, with an incidental account of early Icelandic hymnology. He shows with what astonishing rapidity the German Reformation and post-Reformation hymns reached the remote island and were turned into the vernacular. Their fire and fervor doubtless awoke the slumbering memories of the previous Skaldic ages, for they speedily found not only translators, but imitators, and the whole land burst out in a chorus of hymns, the echoes of which are still heard; sacred verse forming a disproportionately large part of the new literature. No other of the religious bards has reached the eminence of Hallgrímur Péturssson, but many have been remarkable in their way, turning not alone the books of the Bible, but popular collections of sermons, or meditations, or prayers, into series of hymns. The second volume of Dr. Thomsen's edition, now printing, is to contain the remaining hymns of the author, and his secular verse—much of which, singularly enough, is broadly humorous, but showing often a marvellous metrical ingenuity. This will still leave material enough for a supplementary third volume, to contain his *rímur* (tales in verse), and his religious prose (chiefly prayers and meditations).

FROUDE'S WEST INDIES.

The English in the West Indies; or, the Bow of Ulysses. By James Anthony Froude. Charles Scribner's Sons.

THE value of a book will always be determined mainly by the author's purpose in writing it. It may have no value even if the author's purpose is well settled in his own mind, because he may be a bungler in his art. But even if he is not a bungler, his work will be bad if he is overmastered by something quite different from the task he has set out to do and really thinks he is doing. The central idea of Mr. Froude's work on the West Indies is that England ought not to grant home rule to Ireland. This is the beginning, the middle, and the end of it. All that he tells us about the West Indies is scaffolding for an argument on the Irish question. He takes his departure from London with the Gladstonian jargon ringing in his ears. He escapes it until he reaches the islands, although the remembrance of it sadly mars the pleasure of the journey by sea. When he finds himself in West Indian waters, the greatness of Rodney and the contrasted littleness of Gladstone, and indeed of all English Parliamentary orators who have ever lived, with the possible exception of Chatham, who was essentially a man of war, come over him with new force. At Jamaica he gets his first mails from home. Of course they are filled with the everlasting Irish question, and so we have the whole thing over again. We do not intend to follow Mr. Froude's Irish debates. As critics of his West Indian observations, we neither approve nor disapprove his positions regarding home rule, but we present one paragraph from his musings in the island of Jamaica. *Ex uno disce omnes:*

"Mr. Sexton says that if England means to govern Ireland, she must keep as large an army there as she keeps in India. England could govern Ireland in perfect peace without an army at all, if there was no faction in the House of Commons. Either party government will destroy the British empire, or the British nation will make an end of party government on its present lines. There are sounds in the air like the cracking of the ice in the Neva at the in-

coming of spring, as if a nobler spirit was at last awaking in us. In a few more years there may be no more Radicals and no more Conservatives, and the nation will be all in all."

Holding such decided views on the subject of home rule in Ireland, Mr. Froude must necessarily take a very dark view of home rule in the West Indies—if there were any such thing. A simulacrum of it existed for a while in Jamaica, until Governor Eyre put an end to it by shooting and hanging a lot of "niggers." The account which Mr. Froude gives of this deplorable affair, even if no other account were accessible, would convince an impartial reader that the massacre was brutal and unnecessary, the work of a weak-minded man, acting under the influence of the white inhabitants who were under the momentary influence of panic; and that the execution of Gordon, the colored orator and member of the Jamaican Assembly, was a cold-blooded executive murder. Mr. Froude drops a tear over the grave of poor Gordon, while sitting in his (Gordon's) lovely garden; but his sympathies are mainly with poor Eyre, who was dismissed from office after an investigation by the Home Government. Poor Eyre was completely "ruined" by this sad affair, although no man ever shed his brother-in-law's blood more conscientiously (Mr. Froude, in his sentimental moments, always speaks of the West Indian African as our "brother-in-law").

Mr. Froude's book has a political purpose throughout, viz., to put on the brakes and stop the train that is rushing towards "dismemberment of the empire." We must have no such nonsense as home rule in the West Indies. But we defy anybody to tell from reading this volume what is the present government of the English West Indies, or any one of them. The fact is, that those governments are exactly such as Mr. Froude extols and commends as best suited to all the non-English colonies of Great Britain. They are Crown colonies, whose political existence depends upon an earthly providence sitting in Downing Street. The nearest approach to self-government is found in the island of Barbadoes, where there are 4,000 electors to 175,000 inhabitants, the tests of the suffrage being partly those of property and partly educational. Mr. Froude unconsciously testifies to the tranquil and orderly and comparatively prosperous state of Barbadoes. The island is overpopulated (more than 1,000 to the square mile). It is hard to fill so many mouths from the produce of so small a patch, but it would be harder still to find any purely Downing Street colony that is doing so well.

The case being admittedly bad in the islands generally, so bad that Mr. Froude can hardly find words for his indignation over the net result, we are moved to ask, "What is the matter? The islands do not have home rule, and apparently do not want it. They have their earthly providence—their Ulysses always stringing his bow in Downing Street—why do they not get on?" There are two reasons, according to Mr. Froude. One is, that the trustee in Downing Street does not take an interest in his *cestuis que trust*. The other is that the islands were not allowed to have a reciprocity treaty with the United States, whereby the price of sugar might have been raised by its free admission into its greatest market. If England would only gird herself up and do her duty and take an interest—if she would "make an effort," like Mrs. Dombey, or "be a man," like Mr. Chuffey, we should see an improvement very soon. Why do not young Englishmen go to the West Indies and make their fortunes? asks Mr. Froude again and again. Here is land and labor and climate and richness all inviting the ingenuous and sturdy youth of Albion to go and make their homes. Alas, they are deterred by the apprehensions of home rule and negro supremacy! And the enterprising Yankee is deterred by the same fear. Give us the assurance that we shall have none of this, and we shall straightway begin to take an interest and make an effort and be a man. Let Downing Street, or rather let all England, come up and take a solemn oath to wage eternal war against home rule. Nothing short of this will ever restore the Antilles to their former prosperity and Britain to her pristine glory.

The amount of misinformation in Mr. Froude's book concerning things that he saw with his own eyes is extraordinary. He says, for instance (p. 50), that the blacks in the islands are "perfectly happy." "They have no aspirations to make them restless. They have no guilt upon their consciences. They have food for the picking up." A people who have food for the picking up are, of course, in an enviable state, seeing how great a struggle mankind generally have to get a sufficiency. We are considerably surprised, therefore, to read a little further on (p. 109), that if Barbadoes is driven into bankruptcy (by the failure of the American reciprocity treaty), and wages cease, "the negroes will starve and will not take their starvation patiently." Why should they starve when food can be had for the picking up? Why should they work for wages at all in such a land of plenty? The truth is, that the West Indian negro seldom has enough to eat. His wages are only twenty cents a day, and he has to buy food imported from the United States and reaching him with freight charges and heavy import duties added to the American price. Let anybody take a walk along the roads in any of the islands with the special view of seeing how much food he can gather without paying for it. Then let him leave the road and plunge into a tropical jungle with the same view. His foraging will be just as productive as it would be in Westchester County, New York, or in Warwickshire, England. The plantain, the cheapest food of the tropics, is as much an article of commerce as the cabbage is in the United States. Yams are sold in all the market-places, and it is absurd to suppose that the negroes would buy them out of their scanty earnings if they could be had for the picking up.

Mr. Froude recurs again and again to the injustice done to the islands by disallowing the reciprocity treaty with the United States, although every American and every well-informed Englishman knows that the treaty never had the smallest chance on our side of the bargain. The Mexican Reciprocity Treaty, which was far more favorable to us and far less objectionable to our own sugar planters, remains unconfirmed to this day. The West Indian Treaty, if there had been any such thing, would have been shelved with even less ceremony. But Mr. Froude's indignation becomes hottest when he tells his readers (p. 318) that "the commercial treaty which was offered to our islands by the United States has been accepted eagerly by the Spaniards. *Spanish sugar goes free into the American market.*" This will be news to our customs officers. If it were true, it would spare Congress a world of trouble in dealing with the surplus. Who could have told Mr. Froude that the sugar of Cuba is admitted free of duty into the United States, we cannot imagine. Perhaps it was the same deceiver who told him (p. 340) that "St. Domingo, or Española, of which Hayti is the largest division, was the earliest island discovered by Columbus." Other historians say that it was one of the Bahama group, to which Columbus gave the name of San Salvador.

Mr. Froude draws a dark picture of negro self-government in the republic of Hayti. As this is taken almost wholly from the pages of Sir Spencer St. John, it is probably a true picture. But he says nothing about the adjoining republic of St. Domingo, which is doing as well as some white republics and some British Crown colonies that might be named.

There is a chilling suggestion here and there in Mr. Froude's pages that slavery was not so very wrong, and may even have been beneficial to the blacks, since they were slaves in their own country and were only transferred from a barbarous servitude to a civilized one. This is a characteristic inaccuracy, if not a suppression of the truth; the fact being that man-hunting existed in Africa only because there was a market for slaves outside. But for the white slave-trader, the native slave-hunter would not have been. The same thing is still going on in the Sudan. The slaveholder in the Orient may as easily say that he is doing no wrong because his victims were slaves before he got them.

There have been many books written on the West Indies, but none that we have read is so worthless and untrustworthy as Mr. Froude's. In mere descriptive writing it is surpassed by Kingsley's, and, while not devoid of entertaining qualities, it is inferior to the recent one by Mr. Paton. But Mr. Froude does not write to describe tropical scenery and vegetation, or to while away one's leisure hours. He writes to instruct and educate. He has a deep moral purpose. It is to show how the world has degenerated since the days of Charles V.; how inferior the nineteenth century is to the sixteenth; how the Reformation has gone on levelling and grinding us into an indistinguishable mass—all this in a style which may be called Carlylese in the fifth or fiftieth dilution. We quote a sample from p. 306:

"The sixteenth century was the blossoming time of the Old World, and no such men had appeared since as then came to the front, either in Spain, or Italy, or Germany, or France, or England. The actual leaders of the Reformation had been bred in the system which they destroyed. Puritanism and Calvinism produced men of powerful character, but they were limited and incapable of continuance; and now the liberty which they had demanded had become what their instinct had told them from the first must be the final shape of it, a revolution which would tolerate no inequalities of culture or position, which insisted that no man was better than another, which was to bring down the high till all mankind should stand upon a common level—a level not of baseness or badness, but a level of good-humored, smart, vulgar, and vulgarizing mediocrity, with melodrama for tragedy, with farce for comedy, sounding speech for statesmanlike wisdom; and for a creed, when our fathers thought that we had been made a little lower than the angels, the more modest knowledge that we were only a little higher than the apes."

This was the substance of Mr. Froude's contention in an argument with one Don G——, in the island of Cuba. If Don G—— had been a reader of Dickens, he must have sighed with the elder Turveydrop: "I see nothing to succeed us but a race of weavers."

RECENT NOVELS.

Miss Curtis. A Sketch. By Kate Gannett Wells. Boston: Ticknor & Co.

Mahaly Sawyer. By S. E. D. Boston: Cupples & Hurd.

Major Lawrence, F.L.S. By the Hon. Emily Lawless. Henry Holt & Co.

The Fiddler of Lugau. By the author of 'Mlle. Mori.' Thomas Whittaker.

Wandel der Zeiten. Vier Erzählungen vom Verfasser der 'Erinnerungen eines deutschen Offiziers.' Wiesbaden: J. F. Bergmann; New York: B. Westermann & Co.

It is not essential that a sketch should be also a sermon, but, from its beginning, the reader of 'Miss Curtis' is justified in seeking a lesson through its pages, and may fairly feel disappointed, on laying down the volume, at his inability to decide what the lesson is. It breathes the aroma of mission too aggressively for an amusing book, and glitters with too much brightness for a didactic one. Children, and all persons having charge of children, will do well not to read the opening chapters. A child who "explains herself" at all is to be shunned, still more one who "explains herself by saying that she never knew how far down she should settle, and that when she got to the finality of anything there was little of it; though it was just like the sediment in any other process of thinking—right for right's sake." To the same infant phenomenon "all boys, except the visionary one of the future, were . . . as so many girls," including, it may be supposed, her brother, to whom she thus expounds herself: "With girls it is always couldn't because we have not got so much daring in us; and with boys it is wouldn't because they are set in their ways." One is by this time prepared for the boy's avowal "that he would have nothing more to do with girls; they could not be trusted, they were so emotional." These are capital children to discourage in real life, and to keep out of literature, if unconsciousness and simplicity are good things, and if, as Mr. Fiske tells us, the perfection of the race hinges on the length of its childhood. But what can be expected of children whose mother's ambition for them is that they should "feel the sense of universal relationships before they can understand what those words mean," that it may "prevent them from becoming conventional"; there being "nothing so deadening for children as a perception of conventionality"? Young ladies who are anxious to be popular will be helped by learning, on the same mamma's authority, that that which makes a belle is "the power of circumscribed adaptation; she means a girl adapts herself to small people, not to causes."

The lady who figures in the title rôle is a monster of eccentricity. Serving a sponge-cake baby at a children's Christmas party is not an endearing action, and should have been carefully forgotten if ever done. There is too much that is strained in the book for it to be an effectual protest against morbidness, which one half suspects it is intended to be; the characterizations are too vague to make it a story, too detailed to take refuge under the assumed name of "a sketch." The girl who renounces conventionality becomes a slave to un-convention, and does but change her manacles. The settlement of "the proportions of life, between purpose and hobbies, conventions and freedom," seems on the whole no nearer adjustment for the existence of this book. In style, it is in the tone of repressed epigram, made familiar to the reading world by many little novelists of the past decade. One would say that the best thing to have done with the material would have been to take the clever sayings in which the book abounds and make them into a calendar. One of the best of these is Miss Curtis's stern advice to an over-zealous reformer: "Why don't you leave something to be done in eternity? You will advance morality ahead of chemistry; the world will be perfect long before it is destroyed. Better let the sciences keep pace with each other."

Complaint cannot be made of 'Mahaly Sawyer' that it lacks motive. Though thinly disguised as a story, it is a treatise upon behavior towards servants. It is written in a humane and kindly spirit, and contains in its suggestions much gentleness, much good sense, and occasional flashes of shrewdness. As a story it is on a par with the tales of the late T. S. Arthur, and may be ranked in what has been called the pie and piety school.

To turn to 'Major Lawrence, F.L.S.,' from these books is (so far as construction is concerned) like going to a theatre after witnessing performances by amateur actors. 'Major Lawrence' shows the hand of the expert in novel-writing, which is not to say that it is a cleverer book than 'Miss Curtis,' or that it has as wide a range of topic, or that it is written with any motive beyond that of entertainment. But its well-defined form, its clear and ingenious characterizations, its expressive and elastic English make it, particularly during its first half, a highly readable book. It is true that it is laid out on somewhat conventional lines, comfortably familiar to the omnivorous reader of English novels. The imperious high-bred English dame—a delightful character, too; the reticent John Bull hero, oscillating between his native island and his Indian regiment, with a rather fatiguing persistence which suggests a mileage ticket that must be used up; the self-willed hoyden developing into a Griselda; the fastidious, brutal husband; the slangful brother—all are there, very truepennies of faithful attendance on the British novel-writer's pen, as constant institutions as any others of British soil. Comfortable, kindly acquaintance they are; one is quite sure that they will not forget their parts nor disgrace their management.

It must be confessed that there are too many acts in the drama. Even English landscape, though as pictorially and poetically described as herein, palls a little upon too much repetition. Italian villages and Italian hotels lose their distinctiveness when they crowd too thickly. Griselda, like the figure on the Grecian urn, appears destined to be the immortal bride of quietness while the love story stands still so long; and her lover, like him who ever wooed the immortal bride, threatens too, like him, to tease us out of thought as doth eternity. Two protests must be entered—one, in the name of all novel-lovers against the incomplete ending. After witnessing so much pain and struggle, the reader deserves the cakes and ale of an old-fashioned final tableau. The second protest is against the protraction of scenes of dissolution, mental or physical, such as fill page upon page of this book. Emerson's canon of breakfast-table manners holds good for works of fiction, and should abolish extended discourse of leprosy, sciatica, and thunderstroke. If the stage must be cleared, let it be done without needless delay and detail. But when all is said, this novel, spite of certain obvious weaknesses of plot and prolixities of form, will find many pleased readers for its flowing style, its bright epigram, its agreeable incident and charming conversation, and most of all for that all the world loves a lover.

The 'Fiddler of Lugau' is a pleasing little story, tastefully written, as its authorship insures. The scene is laid for the most part in the Saxon town of Lugau during the early years of the century, affording a striking background for skilfully drawn pictures of life in Germany during the Napoleonic wars. The presence of certain Netherlanders in the place, and that of a few Wends, descendants of the builders of the town—a once proud and powerful race, now few, feeble, and despised, and but ill-assimilated with the German life about them—lend variety to the personages, and furnish complications for the story, while the Saxon hatred of Napoleon, lacking completeness only by reason of another hatred of Prussia, the distant tramp of French troops, the suffering and uncertainty of the times, make a grimly effective setting for a tender little tale of love and loyalty, wherein music is the motive spring. The jealousies and revenges, professional and political, which run side by side, the peals of church chimes, and the eloquence of the violin, the alarms of war, and the home life in the families of Lugau, schoolboy tricks and faithful love, make up the story. Spite of the happy ending, it is a pathetic little history, shadowed by war and by the ever-touching tale of sensitive genius meeting no recognition except from a pair of loyal young hearts. All is told with exquisite refinement. The vividness and charm of the local color make one feel the final change of scene to London and a merchant's household to be something of an anti-climax. One would rather have closed the book on the wooded moor that lay round Lugau, spirit-haunted, or at a Saxon fireside with the grandmother knitting in the corner.

General Hartmann's latest volume of tales is characterized by the same grace and smoothness of style which distinguished those formerly published. The characters and incidents are natural, and are agreeably described, as well as agreeable in themselves, and they have a sort of historical value as illustrating four phases of modern German history—1830, 1848, 1864, and the heyday of Bismarck's glory. Great is Allah, and greater is his Prophet! to wit, the Chancellor—this is the burden of the General's song in the fourth tale, which is rather livelier than the others, having apparently been written for the stage, since the narrative portions are nothing but stage directions. The first of the stories has the same landscape and atmosphere as Mr. Shorthouse's 'Violin' and 'Schoolmaster Mark,' but, singularly enough, the English romancer surpasses the German on the latter's own ground, not only as regards the interest of the story, but in viewing his characters through that dreamy, poetic haze which seems to arise from the soil of Germany alone. Nowhere else is romance able entirely to divest itself of the hard and graceless facts of life or history, while here such dematerialization seems almost involuntary. General Hartmann's tales are quite free from the morbid or artificial sentiment which defaced some of Auerbach's efforts in this direction, but they cannot, we should think, prove very interesting, even in Germany, and must certainly be found dull in proportion to the distance therefrom.

SIR FREDERICK POLLOCK'S REMINISCENCES.

Personal Remembrances of Sir Frederick Pollock. 2 vols. Macmillan & Co. 1887.

The long and glorious career of the English aristocracy is principally due to a cause which is very well illustrated in the history of the Pollock family. The grandfather of Sir Frederick, the author of these memoirs, was a saddler. Although at one time well off, he died poor, partly perhaps in consequence of his having trusted the Prince of Wales (George IV.) to the extent of £3,000. A portion of this debt was eventually paid by the nation, but the saddler had become so much impoverished that he was unable to keep his son at Cambridge, and it was owing to the generosity of Tavel, his tutor at

Trinity College, that the young man completed his course. This son became Chief Baron of the Court of Exchequer; his son, the present writer, held a number of dignified and lucrative positions under the crown; and his son, of the same name, is now Professor of Jurisprudence at Oxford. They all have made contributions to general as well as professional literature. Another of the saddler's sons, Sir George Pollock, became Field-Marshal, and other members of the family have occupied distinguished positions in her Majesty's service. It is in this way that the ruling class in England have perpetuated their power. They have constantly renewed their vigor by contact with the people, and welcomed to their ranks men of whatever birth, provided they were of proved ability.

So far as appears from these volumes, the fact that a man is of a new family does not affect in the slightest degree his position in London society. Sir Frederick appears to have known everybody worth knowing, and to have gone everywhere he wanted to. When a youth, he danced with the Marquis of Huntly, who had danced with Marie Antoinette, and in his old age he pays a hearty compliment to the wife of the present American Minister to the Court of St. James's. The number of distinguished persons that he speaks of dining with, passes all computation. Through the influence of his father he was early introduced to the excellent society of the northern circuit, and he quickly extended his acquaintance to the notables of science, literature, and the drama. He seems to have been equally intimate with Faraday and Tyndall and Babbage, with Carlyle and Tennyson, with Dickens and Macready and Delaunay. In fact, we believe that somewhere in these pages the name of almost every Englishman of any considerable distinction in recent times is mentioned as that of an acquaintance, and of a large number of them some anecdote, generally humorous, is preserved.

"Remembrances," in the sense of "Recollections," is a rather singular usage even on the part of a sometime Queen's Remembrancer. But some quaintness of expression may be allowed to a functionary who actually requires the rendering of feudal services, and presides with gravity while the Solicitor of the City of London counts out horse-shoes and nails, in respect of a forge which formerly existed near St. Clement Danes in the Strand, and chops representative faggots with an axe and a bill-hook, in respect of certain land in Shropshire. A far more serious matter, and, considering the literary habits of the author, a discreditable breach of good manners, is his flinging his memoirs at the public without introduction, preface, or index. He seems to have, in the first place, written down the story of his youthful experiences out of his "remembrance"; then to have sandwiched in a number of letters without offering any explanation of them; and finally to have fallen back on his diary and printed it without revision. For example: The reader is left to find out that letters signed "Fred. Pollock" are not from the author but from his father, while the author is to be found under the initials "W. F. P." One is continually reflecting that Sir Frederick is not making the most of his opportunities, and that so accomplished a man of the world ought to have furnished better appointments to our entertainment. Because of these offences, we shall refrain from paying the author several compliments that have occurred to us, and proceed without remorse to transfer some of his best stories to these columns. Considering the time that we had wasted on account of the omission of an index, we intended to begin with a striking remark of Talleyrand's concerning ennui and loss of time; but, owing to this omission, we cannot find it. The following is probably the best of all the stories of Lord Dudley's absence of mind:

"He was dining with King William and Queen Adelaide, and was sitting next the Queen. Some dish was handed round, to which Lord Dudley helped himself, and, finding it much to his liking, and being a great judge of good eating, he thought it his duty to tell his neighbor of it. So, forgetting where he was, and all the etiquette of the palace, he turned to the Queen and said, 'You really ought to take some of this; it is most excellent.' The Queen only smiled and thanked him. A minute afterwards the same thought came again into Lord Dudley's head, and again he strongly urged the Queen to have some, with the same result. After another short interval, for the third time he pressed the capital merits of the dish upon the Queen's notice, who then replied, 'I am glad you like it, Lord Dudley. It must be very good, for this is the third time you have told me of it.' Then he, remembering that, but forgetting everything else, exclaimed, loud enough to be heard by all the table, 'Damn the woman, so it is!'"

This may be contrasted with the story of Dugald Stewart's memory. He was once asked what was the earliest thing he could remember, and said it was being left alone by his nurse in his cradle, and resolving to tell of her as soon as he could speak. Of this character must have been the memories of the parties mentioned in the anecdote of Lady Acton, whom Pollock met in 1868, and who remembered talking at Naples to an officer who had been in the service of Louis XIV. (ob. 1715).

The account of the desperate and illegal efforts made by Mrs. Carlyle to relieve her husband of jury-duty, of his frantic protestations, and of his success in bringing around the obstinate juror "with a huge flat head and evidently no sense in it, cheeks flowing down far and wide," who had starved out juries before, and had the firmest mind in England, is too long to quote, but will appeal to many of our readers. Other sufferers will appreciate the caustic wit of Justice Maule, who, being asked by a friend what sort of instructions he should give to his architect, said: "Don't let him know what you really want, or you will be sure not to get it." A very pointed speech of Mrs. Grote's is recorded. She went to see Louis Napoleon in Paris about 1849, "when he, remembering some former misunderstanding between them, chose to be very cool and distant in his reception of her, and only asked her, 'Do you stay long in Paris?' when she had her revenge by answering, 'No; do you?'"

For after-dinner use there is nothing better than the story of the conversation with Sir John Bayley at a Northern Circuit dinner in 1842, where, among other great wines, was a White Hermitage, of which Bayley said:

"'This reminds me of a wine I once got in travelling. I was with another man, going out of Lyons, when the carriage broke down, and, while they were setting it to rights, we went into a little inn by the roadside, where they brought us some White Hermitage. It was so good that we did not leave the house until we had drunk it all.' I asked how long that was. 'About three weeks,' he said. I was lost in admiration at the philosophy of this way of travelling."

For those who wish to be instructed as well as entertained, we will quote an anecdote told by Kinglake, which contains the substance of volumes upon the political history of France. During an election under the Second Empire, Montalembert desired his tenants to go and vote as he wished against the Government. "They came back without having voted. He asked: 'Pourquoi n'avez-vous pas voté?' 'Mais, Monsieur le Comte, il y avaient des gendarmes.' 'Qu'est-ce qu'ils ont fait?' 'Rien, Monsieur le Comte.' 'Qu'est-ce qu'ils ont dit?' 'Rien, Monsieur le Comte.' 'Mais, pourquoi donc . . .?' 'Ils y étaient, Monsieur le Comte.'"

There is not much that is substantial in the book, but it is very pleasant reading. It is evident enough that the author is a genial and popular man, many-sided in his tastes and accomplishments—he translated Dante, among other things—and he has had a full share of the good things of this life, all of which he has known how to appreciate. His feeling remarks upon the great Guildhall dinners remind us of the epicure who confided to a friend that he liked good things to eat—and a great many of them—and to have them last a long time. But, after all, the dinner is the central event of the day in modern life, and though one may share Hawthorne's perplexity as to the occupations of Englishmen in a dinnerless hereafter, it is the feast of reason and flow of soul that sublimate such occasions.

The Master of the Gunnery. A Memorial of Frederick William Gunn. By his Pupils. New York: The Gunn Memorial Association (H. W. B. Howard, Secretary, 27 Park Place). 1887.

THIS beautiful quarto volume, richly and gracefully illustrated, is, as the title indicates, the memorial of a school and of its master. In this case the master was the school, just as a great preacher is the church. Mr. Gunn's personality was so strong, uncompromising (though tender), and vital that he became a very part of his pupils, and his taking-off was felt by each as a family, even a parental, bereavement. Nothing could exceed the good taste of this memorial, which supplements the monument placed at the teacher's grave. Seven of the "Gunnery's" alumni—W. H. Gibson, George A. Hickox, U. S. Senator O. H. Platt, Ehrich K. Rossiter, Clarence Deming, James P. Platt, and H. W. B. Howard—have coöperated to write the chapters which form a very complete picture of the man and of the scene of his labors. The literary quality of these several contributions is high and well sustained, with little repetition. Mr. Gibson, the delightful artist of rural nature, furnishes the introduction which Mr. Beecher's sudden death prevented him from writing—not as a pupil, of course, but as a patron of the school, and a warm friend of its head, by correspondence of temperament and of opinion. Mr. Gibson, however, in his 'Pastoral Days,' had already published charming reminiscences of his school life, and his chief part in the present enterprise has been the designs which give it a rare embellishment.

The admirable chapter on "Old Times in Judea," the historical background from which Mr. Gunn emerges, is topographically close of kin to the setting of Judd's 'Margaret,' and not less so in respect to manners and customs—the prevailing intemperance, the ridiculous militia, the clerical opposition to reform. Parson Hayes dispensed pulpit anathemas on heretics and unlicensed abolition apostles in Washington, Conn., and followed up an anti-slavery address by the gentle Quakeress, Abby Kelley, from Massachusetts, with a sermon whose text, meant to rebuke a woman's speaking in public, accused her of fornication and adultery. He brought, too, all his influence and that of his church to bear on Mr. Gunn as an abolitionist, excommunicating him religiously and socially, and hindering his endeavor to establish a school in the neighborhood. Indeed, this memorial is a genuine and valuable chapter of New England anti-slavery history.

Mr. Gunn's attitude towards intemperance

was as pronounced as towards slavery and the pro-slavery religion of the day. He never lowered his standards for the sake of promoting his worldly fortune, and one of the most characteristic and touching passages in this volume occurs in a letter to his future wife, written while he was keeping school in Pennsylvania, and he seemed likely to have to face the question which Prudence Crandall met so nobly in his native State, whether he would deny instruction to any child on account of its color. In these matters, as time went on, his Connecticut townsmen came round to his side, or learned to differ from him and respect him. Like many another "fanatical" and "visionary" and "infidel" abolitionist, he gave them object lessons in practical charity and public spirit. Like Tolstoi, "he obtained permission to plough, fertilize, and sow a worn-out meadow owned by a widow or man too poor to cultivate it, afterwards taking great satisfaction in the sight of the new crop of fresh green herbage which he had produced." He came to be relied upon to settle disputes in town meeting. He gave a powerful lift to the village library, and fostered the social life of a large territory by introducing lecturers and by founding a successful dramatic institution for public objects. His school gave distinction to the place. He taught manliness, purity, and honor rather than a high degree of learning, in ways suggested by his knowledge of human nature, sympathy with boy nature in particular, and eccentric humor. He had no method to transmit or to be formulated for imitation. One feels, from the loving testimony here gathered together, and from his own "Words" preserved in the appendix, that he was a compeer of Evarts, Benjamin Silliman, and Chief-Justice Waite, his classmates at Yale, though his sphere was confined to a little corner of the Nutmeg State.

Olden-Time Music: A Compilation from Newspapers and Books. By Henry M. Brooks. Boston: Ticknor & Co. 12mo, pp. xx, 283.

THE bulk of the material is the apparent excuse for taking this volume out of the somewhat more handy "Olden-Time Series," to which it belongs by every characteristic. It sets out with an account of music in England before the Puritans came over, and it determines the hither limit of the "olden time" in this country by the year 1830, "although a few matters of a later date are incidentally mentioned." Mr. Brooks's method is unfavorable to a general view or distinct impression, yet much information is conveyed in a desultory manner. His reviewer can hardly be more connected. We read on page 33:

"An examination of the earliest 'inventories' in the Probate Office of Essex County [Mass.] fails to find record of any musical instruments appraised in the estates settled there. While every pot, skillet, gridiron, article of wearing apparel, old chair and table, bed, bolster and pillow, silver spoon, pewter dish, bushel of corn—indeed, articles of the most trifling nature—are carefully enumerated, no lutes, citterns, spinets, harpsichords, flutes, or viols are mentioned. This would seem to show that the early settlers did not possess these instruments, or that at least they must have been rarely seen here."

The first church-organ in Salem, purchased in 1743, was the fifth set up in New England; King's Chapel, Boston, having had the first. Dr. Flagg, a Boston dentist, going abroad in 1797, advertised that, if supported, he would "contract in Europe for the construction of a number of organs, calculated to play all tunes usually sung in places of worship, with interludes to each psalm, without the assistance of an organist." A Broadwood piano of 1791 is preserved at the rooms of the Essex Institute in Salem, and is pictured on page 141. Its contracted keyboard suggests an interesting comparison between the precocity of Mozart and Josef Hofmann as infant performers in public.

Mr. Brooks furnishes a large variety of concert programmes; and when Signor Pucci comes on the scene in 1815, the printer makes diabolic work of his foreign titles, as is the custom even to this day. Thus: "French Air—*a Gevudire Mama*," and "Song—*Alosanfan, dul' la Patri* (*Marseilles Hymn*)." In Salem, in 1816, there was a Jews'-Harp Club, which on February 2 was entreated to be punctual in attendance at a rehearsal of Handel's Hallelujah Chorus. The pedal harp was played by Master P. Lewis at an "extraordinary concert" in Boylston Hall, Boston, April 8, 1819, "after seven weeks' practice on that difficult Instrument." We recall no other mention of it in these pages, but as the only index is, oddly enough, one of proper names, our memory must pass for what it is worth. In the same city in 1790, a concert was given "for the benefit of Oliver Barron, one of the unhappy men who were cast away on Grand Manan; by which accident he had the misfortune to freeze his feet to such a degree as to be under the necessity of having them cut off, which has rendered him unable to support himself."

The great instrument-makers, Elias Hook with his organs and Jonas Chickering with his pianos; the first American composer, "William Billings, a native of Boston, in New England," and a genuine "original"; Henry K. Oliver, author of the hymn known as "Federal Street"; and a great number of minor personages, are directly or incidentally the subject of Mr. Brooks's discourse or of his newspaper clippings. He also reproduces some of the older music and some forgotten odes and ballads, and gives several curious delineations of spinets, harpsichords, and pianos, facsimiles of pictorial advertisements, a portrait silhouette, etc.

Christianity, Islam and the Negro Race. By Edward W. Blyden, LL.D., late Minister Plenipotentiary of the Republic of Liberia at the Court of St. James's. London: W. B. Whittingham & Co. 1887.

THE most striking thing to be noted in connection with this book is the personality of its author. Born in the island of St. Thomas, of the purest negro parentage, he went to Liberia in his seventeenth year, and there obtained his education and has spent the larger part of his life. In 1862 he was elected to a professorship in the newly founded College of Liberia, and became President of that institution in 1881. For two years he was the republic's Secretary of State, and in 1877 was appointed Minister to England. He has travelled extensively in Africa, spent some time in Syria acquiring Arabic, and has frequently visited the United States. He has been an acquaintance and correspondent of Lord Brougham, of Dean Stanley and Mr. Gladstone, and of Charles Sumner. When we add that, besides his knowledge of the classics, of Hebrew, Arabic, and several African dialects, he quotes familiarly from German, French, Italian, and Spanish authors, it may be believed that, as has been said of him, he is the most scholarly man of his race now living. And that he is not deficient in the rarer qualities of thorough and patient study, some of the papers in the book before us give abundant testimony. They show broad reading, minute investigation, a surprising mental alertness. As a speaker, according to those who have heard him in this country, he has an unusually persuasive eloquence.

It would be strange if such a man could have escaped entirely the limitations of his inheritance, and the judicious reader of his pages will not be surprised to find occasional displays of narrow prejudice. One such is seen in his rather laughable displeasure at the custom of writing negro with a small "n." He says of one of the remaining survivors of the original American abolitionists, that he "shows his own conception of the status and functions of the Negro by never using a capital letter in writing the word that describes the race" (p. 113, note). Thus to stick in the bark of a mere question of usage seems particularly ridiculous in view of the fact that Dr. Blyden repeatedly writes "whites" and "white man" with a small "w." In some more important matters, he shows a lack of good mental balance. We will instance his ideas on the proper education of negroes, as propounded in his inaugural address as President of the College of Liberia. He seriously contends for the wisdom of cutting off the great mass of Liberian youth from all knowledge of history, of science, of literature, or philosophy, since the Middle Ages. "We are still held in bondage by our indiscriminate and injudicious use of a foreign literature" (p. 89). "The instruments of culture which we shall employ in the College will be chiefly the Classics and Mathematics. By Classics I mean the Greek and Latin languages and their literature. In those languages there is not, as far as I know, a sentence, a word, or a syllable disparaging to the Negro. He may get nourishment from them without taking in any race-poison. They will perform no sinister work upon his consciousness, and give no unholy bias to his inclinations" (p. 97). These extracts will indicate the author's fanciful idea that the thing which keeps the negro degraded is the knowledge that his ancestors were slaves. He squarely says: "There is nothing that we need to know for the work of building up this country, in its moral, political, and religious character, which we may not learn from the ancients. There is nothing in the domain of literature, philosophy, or religion for which we need to be dependent upon the moderns." To speak of only one of the surprising parts of this educational programme, we cannot help asking if Dr. Blyden means to get on without the idea of personal rights, so peculiarly modern. What does he say to his students, when they come upon the Greek and Roman conception of slavery as the natural and inevitable lot of some classes in society? Or is it simply negro slavery that he is afraid to have mentioned in their hearing?

The two main contentions of the articles and addresses here collected by Dr. Blyden are, first, that the spread of Islam in western Africa has been almost an unmixed good to the tribes brought under its sway, and, second, that Christian missions to Africa, as at present conducted, will continue to be failures until they are put into the hands of natives. Liberia, he thinks, is to become the great source of evangelizing influences, and its future position as the leading African power and civilizer is to be assured, he believes, by the emigration of hundreds of thousands of negroes from the United States to the home of their fathers. As a speculation, this seems to us hardly worth discussing; but we must seriously question some of Dr. Blyden's statements of fact on this subject. He positively asserts that there are "thousands and tens of thousands" of the colored population of the United States who, "in various parts of the country, are asking for aid to reach the land of their fathers." In an

address delivered before the Colonization Society, in 1880, he said that "there are thousands of Negroes, in comfortable circumstances here, who are yet yearning after the land of their fathers." But if "in comfortable circumstances," why not go at once at their own expense? Why "ask for aid"? The truth is, that there is a woful want of definiteness and absence of proof in all these broad statements. If they were true, it is incredible that nothing should have been heard of them in the press of this country. We have been warned of a great many imminent negro "exoduses" to various parts of the world, but never of a single one to Liberia. Dr. Blyden may be entirely correct, but we cannot be expected to believe it without a scrap of evidence. In the absence of that, we must rather think that his vague assertions rest wholly upon equally vague assurances of sympathy for his project, given him, here and there, as a result of his impassioned appeals. If there is anything more than this back of what he says, it was inexcusable in him not to have declared it; not to have given a single name of man or locality, nor a single application for transportation to Liberia, nor a single reference to persons who could substantiate his allegations. He admits that no considerable emigration is to be looked for without Government aid. That he should think this obtainable marks him as a highly sanguine spirit; that he should think that if it were obtained, "the emigration might be so excessive as to imperil the vital interests of the colony," that "the ambitious and turbulent" could be excluded and "thousands of industrious, hard-working farmers and mechanics" induced to go, seems to us a proof almost of temporary mental aberration.

What Dr. Blyden has to say about the relative achievements and prospects of Mohammedanism and Christianity in Africa is, of course, entitled to great respect from his position and opportunities. He cannot, however, blame the advocates of Christian missions if they argue from his exaggerating and enthusiastic habit of speech, as exemplified elsewhere, that he is more forensic than judicial in his discussions of these points. But it cannot well be doubted that he strongly reinforces the testimony going to show that, in west Africa at least, Islam has worked for civilization and moral improvement. A Christian himself, his profound conviction that the methods of Christian missions in Africa need radically to be changed, ought to receive at least a patient hearing from the authorities whom he addresses.

Ireland. By the Hon. Emily Lawless. [The Story of the Nations.] G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1888.

It was not without considerable misgivings that we opened this book. Miss Lawless's conception of the Irish character in 'Hurrish,' and her close connection with one of the families most opposed to the Irish people on the land question, did not appear to us to qualify her for the task she had undertaken. A careful examination of the book proves that we were mistaken. It is an honest piece of work. The author does not accord sufficient merit to the supremacy in some respects of the early Christian art of the country, or realize the iniquity of the means by which Pitt's Union was accomplished, or give any key to the present troubles. We cannot agree with her that the struggle "has been almost wholly an agrarian one," or that we have no precedents to guide us in discounting the possible effects of home rule. There are a few unimportant slips as to dates and statements; but on the whole we have seldom met a work of the kind more conscientiously written, or which we could more unhesitatingly recommend. Many of the maps and illustrations are admirable. We must, however, enter our protest against the insertion of so many old engravings, which have been doing duty hither and thither for the past forty years, and to the distressing inequality in the scale of the portraits; nor is the selection of subjects for portraiture altogether happy.

Introductory Steps in Science, for the use of schools. By Paul Bert. Translated by Marc F. Vallette, LL.D., revised and enlarged by John Mickleborough, Ph.D. Appletons. 1887. 8vo, xiv, 363 pp., illustrated.

In the *Nation* of February 4, 1886, was noticed the version by Madame Bert of her husband's classical little manual for young children. The present work, by its title-page, purports to be an original translation, but the internal evidence would indicate that Madame Bert's language has been adopted almost bodily. It has been modified here and there, usually for the worse as regards style (although the original was literal and somewhat rough), and in the direction of inaccuracy as regards statement. The additions for the most part are such as tend to take away the elementary and harmonious character of the original, by inserting data more suitable for older students or remarks which are sometimes ludicrously pedantic.

The substitution of American animals and illustrations for those more familiar to European children which are given by Bert, would be an improvement if done with judgment; and larger cuts are to be preferred to those of the original. But the zoölogical part has evidently been revised by a person having little qualification for such a task; the cuts err on the side of excess, and, having been prepared for other works and merely utilized here, are not as well suited to the purpose as one might wish. By their insertion the book has been made larger and more costly, but, on the whole, we should prefer for our own use Madame Bert's original version with all its faults.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Barrows, W. The Indian's Side of the Indian Question. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.
Bonar, J. Letters of David Ricardo to Thomas Robert Malthus. 1810-1820. Macmillan & Co. $2.75.
Canadian Leaves: A Series of New Papers Read before the Canadian Club in New York. Napoleon Thompson & Co.
Child, Rev. F. S. Courage and Comfort that Concern the Ministry of Trouble. Baker & Taylor Co.
De Vere, A. Essays, Chiefly on Poetry. In 2 vols. Macmillan & Co. $4.
Gage, Dr. A. P. Introduction to Physical Science. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Gordon, Anna A. The White Ribbon Birthday Book. Chicago: Woman's Temp. Pub. Association. $1.
Great Authors, from Goldsmith to Wordsworth. T. Nelson & Sons.
Harte, B. A Phyllis of the Sierras, and A Drift from Redwood Camp. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Hufferst, E. W. English in the Preparatory Schools. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Lindley—Widney. California of the South. Complete Guide-Book. Illustrated. D. Appleton & Co. $2.
Mitchell, S. W. A Masque, and Other Poems. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Monteith, J. Familiar Animals and their Wild Kindred. Van Antwerp, Bragg & Co.
Oliphant—Aldrich. The Second Son: A Novel. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Pearson, K. The Ethics of Free Thought: Essays and Lectures. London: T. Fisher Unwin.
Pellew, G. Woman and the Commonwealth; or, a Question of Expediency. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 50 cents.
Rogers, J. E. T. A History of Agriculture and Prices in England, from 1259 to 1793. Vols. v. and vi. Oxford: Clarendon Press.
Ruete, Emily. Memoirs of an Arabian Princess. An Autobiography. D. Appleton & Co. 75 cents.
Slater, J. W. Sewage Treatment and Utilization. D. Van Nostrand.
Southwick, A. T. A Quiz Book on the Theory and Practice of Teaching. C. W. Bardeen.
The Hereafter. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. 25 cents.
The Silent Dormitory, and Other Poems. By Ala. John Lockwood.
Webster, Augusta. The Sentence: A Drama. Scribner & Welford.
Weeks, Caleb S. Pope's Essay on Man, with Responding Essay: Man Seen in the Deepening Dawn. Fowler & Wells Co.
Welch—Duffield. Cæsar: Helvetian War. Macmillan & Co. 40 cents.
Weldon's Fancy Costumes for Fancy Dress Balls, &c. Dick & Fitzgerald. 50 cents.
Wells—Bedford. Sonnets of Love and Life. Frederick A. Stokes & Bro.
Wells, Kate Gannett. Miss Curtis: A Sketch. Boston: Ticknor & Co. $1.25.
Wenckebach—Schrakamp. Deutsche Grammatik für Amerikaner. 4th ed. Henry Holt & Co.
Westall, W. Her Two Millions; The Story of a Fortune. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 25 cents.
West, Mary Allen. Childhood: Its Care and Culture. Chicago: Woman's Temperance Publication Association. $3.50.
What Shall We Talk About? or, Things that Every One Ought to Know. Illustrated. Thomas Nelson & Sons.
Whitaker's Almanack for 1888. Thomas Whittaker. 40 cents.
Whiting, C. E. A New Part-Song and Chorus Book. For High Schools, &c. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Whiton, Dr. J. M. Turning Points of Thought and Conduct. Thomas Whittaker. $1.
Whitney, Mrs. A. D. T. Bird-Talk: A Calendar of the Orchard and Wild-Wood. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Whitney, W. D. Practical French. Henry Holt & Co.
Wiggin, Kate Douglas. The Bird's Christmas Carol. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 50 cents.
Wilson, J. H. The Life and Services of Brevet Brigadier-General Andrew Jonathan Alexander, U. S. A. Public Service Publication Co.
Zola, Emile. La Terre. Paris: Charpentier.

Henry Holt & Co.,

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HAVE READY:

FREYTAG'S DIE JOURNALISTEN (Lustspiel). With introduction and notes by F. Lange, Ph.D. 12mo, paper, 178 pp. Teachers' price, 40 cents; by mail, 44 cents.

GUTZKOW'S ZOPF UND SCHWERT (Lustspiel). With introduction and notes by F. Lange, Ph.D. 12mo, paper, 173 pp. Teachers' price, 40 cents; by mail, 44 cents.

ANDERSEN'S BILDERBUCH OHNE Bilder. New edition, with notes and vocabulary, by Prof. L. Simonson, teacher of German in the Hartford (Ct.) High School.

AUERBACH'S AUF WACHE, AND Roquette's Der Gefrorene Kuss. The two in one volume. With introduction and notes by A. A. Macdonell, Ph.D. 126 pp. Teachers' price, 35 cents; by mail, 38 cents.

EBERS'S EINE FRAGE. Idyll zu einem Gemälde seines Freundes Alma Tadema. With introduction and notes by F. Storr, B.A. 117 pp. Teachers' price, 35 cents; by mail, 38 cents.

MOSER'S DER BIBLIOTHEKAR (The Private Secretary). With introduction and notes by Franz Lange, Ph.D. 162 pp. Teachers' price, 40 cents; by mail, 44 cents.

SCHILLER'S JUNGFRAU VON OR- leans. New edition, edited by A. B. Nichols, late Instructor in German in Yale University. 145 pp. Teachers' price, 40 cents; by mail, 44 cents.

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FOREIGN BOOKS.—Russian, Polish, Hungarian, Swedish, Danish, Hebrew, French, German, etc. H. ROSENTHAL & CO., 14 Cooper Union, N. Y.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 16, 1888.

The Week.

WHY the Extradition Treaty with Great Britain has been rejected in the Senate—for postponement until next December amounts to rejection—nobody seems to know exactly. The Committee on Foreign Relations reported unanimously in its favor a year ago, and voted solidly for its confirmation on Wednesday week; but it was laid over, owing, the *Tribune* frankly admits, to "the determined opposition of the Republican Senators." The explanation of this "determined opposition" is probably to be found in the further remark that "the Democratic Senators who voted for confirmation seemed to lose sight of the claim for protection and sympathy which political offenders of Irish nationality have upon this country." As the fourth article of the treaty exempts crimes of a "political character," and as the interpretation of this phrase would lie with the courts of the country from which the surrender was demanded, it is hard to say what it was the Democrats lost sight of. The truth is, that no political offenders except the dynamiters would have anything to fear from the treaty, as they would come in under the clause touching "malicious injury to property whereby the life of any person shall have been endangered." That there was some sort of relation established between them and the Republicans during the Blaine campaign, there is unhappily no reason to doubt. They were all enthusiastic supporters of the Republican candidate, and the worst of them were received and spoken of by Blaine in the most kindly terms. "Should auld acquaintance be forgot?" was, therefore, very likely a question which some of the Republican Senators were compelled to ask themselves. In the meantime the rejection of the treaty permits the continuance of that great disgrace to the American name—the steady growth of the American colony of bank defaulters in Canada.

The talk about Gen. Sheridan as a possible Republican nominee for President was at first regarded as a joke, but some of the politicians appear disposed to take it seriously. It is hardly likely, however, that anything will come of it, for the reason that discussion must demonstrate the weakness of such a nomination. The selection of Sheridan, indeed, would be regarded by the country as a confession on the part of the Republicans that they stood no chance of carrying the election on an appeal to the sober sense of the nation, but hoped they might succeed in carrying voters off their feet by a wave of enthusiasm. But the time for such an experiment to stand any chance of success long since passed. A generation has come on the stage which has grown up—a large proportion of which, indeed, has been born—since the civil war ended, and to which the civil war is only a matter of history, precisely like the Mexican war or the war of 1812. "Sheridan and Shenandoah would be all the platform we should want," says a Connecticut politician who takes kindly to this candidacy; but he forgets that the voters of November, 1888, who have been born since the campaign of 1864 in the Shenandoah—that is, the voters twenty-one, twenty-two, twenty-three, and twenty-four years old — will exceed in numbers the voters who have passed their fifty-second year—that is, the survivors of the men who were twenty-five years old when the war broke out. Gen. Sheridan has never shown any qualification for a civil office, and the time long since passed when the country would elect an unfit man to the Presidency simply because he was once a good soldier.

Gov. Hill's boom, which was never very robust, is suffering visibly from that revelation about a piano, billiard-table, and other articles of luxury which he has bought for the Executive Mansion, not only with the State's money, but with a portion of that money which was authorized for an entirely different purpose. It appears now that Gov. Cornell had a billiard-table, but that he paid for it from his own pocket, and that when Gov. Cleveland succeeded to the office he bought the same table of his predecessor and paid $300 for it, from his own pocket also. All this makes the showing for Gov. Hill, as the greatest living exponent of Jeffersonian simplicity and pure, old-fashioned Democracy, peculiarly embarrassing. If he had not made such frequent professions of superiority in these regards, he might have escaped without much criticism. There seems to be no adequate remedy for the harm he has done to his boom, save to buy the piano and billiard-table from the State, and promise publicly when he is through his service as Governor to present them in Labor's name to the Anti-Poverty Society.

Nearly a quarter of a century has elapsed since Lincoln's death, and he seems to have belonged so entirely to an earlier generation that it is rather surprising to reflect that, if he had survived till now, he would not have passed the period of possible activity. If he had lived, he would be just entering his eightieth year. Justice Bradley of the United States Supreme Court is within a month of being seventy-five. Senator Payne of Ohio was seventy-seven last November, and Senator Morrill of Vermont will be seventy-eight in April. Gladstone will be seventy-nine next December. There was a melancholy tone about the speeches at the dinner of the Republican Club in this city on Saturday evening in honor of Lincoln's birthday, as though the orators felt the absurdity of considering the Republicanism of 1888 as a lineal successor to that of a quarter of a century ago. Devotion to the bloody shirt and sneers at the Mugwumps were the chief characteristics of the speeches, and there was not from first to last a progressive note. One of the Western Senators vigorously condemned the position recently taken by Mr. J. S. Clarkson, editor of the *Iowa State Register*, and Iowa member of the Republican National Committee, in declaring that the party must give up the bloody shirt, remarking that "now and then some demoralized leader sends out his note of warning that the people are growing sore of this issue, and that the battle of 1888 must be fought out upon the economic issue solely." Another Republican Senator "pitched into" the President for his record in the matter of pension vetoes, quite forgetful of the fact that the veto of the Dependent Pension Bill was heartily applauded by a large number of the most prominent Republican newspapers of the country, and that the Democrats carried this pivotal State last fall by 17,000 votes after a canvass in which the Republicans made Mr. Cleveland's pension policy an issue.

Amid the flood of explanations as to the real causes for the separation of George and McGlynn, it is not difficult to see that the fundamental cause is the falling off in money supplies. The McGlynn wing, led by Mr. Barnes, the Secretary of the United Labor party, is in favor of running a Presidential candidate this year. Barnes stated his programme at a conference of the party's leaders recently. It was to have a Labor candidate for the Presidency, and confine the campaign in his behalf to the States of New York, New Jersey, Connecticut, and Indiana. When this plan was unfolded, somebody present "gave away" the whole scheme by remarking: "The Butler business over again." That is undoubtedly the scheme, and the world would not be astonished if the hand of the Blaine thimbleriggers were to be found upon the wire which is working it. George has refused flatly to have anything to do with it, but McGlynn and Barnes, foreseeing an end very shortly to the contributions at the Anti-Poverty meetings, are looking about for means of subsistence. A campaign fund, contributed in the interest of the "Butler business over again," would pay Barnes's salary for this year at least, and would keep McGlynn also from want. But as a Republican investment, what a losing business it would be! Its grand total of votes would fall below Butler's immortal 3,499.

The correspondence between President Corbin and Mr. John W. Hayes, "Secretary General Executive Board," follows the lines set by Gen. Hoxie and Martin Irons in the Southwestern strike two years ago. Mr. Hayes wants to know whether Mr. Corbin will not arrange for a meeting to settle the difficulty between the Reading Railroad Company and its "employees," meaning those persons who have left the company's service and are no longer in its employ. That was just what

Martin Irons demanded. He and his deluded followers cherished a fiction that they were still in the company's employ, although not at the moment on its pay-rolls, and although they were doing everything in their power to prevent the running of its trains. Mr. Corbin replies as Gen. Hoxie did, that there is no difficulty between the company and its employees, and therefore nothing to confer about, but he adds that he is willing to discuss the question of wages at any time with anybody in the company's employ, and that this rule will be followed with any coal-miners who may return to unoccupied places, but that he cannot undertake to pay higher wages than his competitors pay. This is an inexpugnable position. It is possible, though not probable, that the companies in the Wyoming Valley may agree to pay an advance, in which case the Reading Company would do the same, but without such concurrence on the part of the competing companies the upshot of an advance by the Reading Company would be to extinguish their property in the course of the next few years as completely as though it were swallowed by an earthquake.

Congressman Ford of Michigan the other day showed the House of Representatives how to reduce the surplus by more than three millions, presenting for that purpose a petition of 140 furniture manufacturers, asking for the repeal of the duties on burlaps, on silvered mirrors, on coal, and on sponges, and the reduction of the duties on unsilvered French plate glass to 30 per cent., the present duty ranging from 101 to 152 per cent., according to sizes. "Notwithstanding this excessive protection," say the petitioners, "it has been demonstrated that it was impracticable to manufacture glass suitable for mirrors in this country, and every looking-glass plate used by furniture manufacturers to-day is imported." Nevertheless, they are willing to pay a duty of 30 per cent. in case anybody should desire at some future time to try his hand at the trade. As to burlaps used for packing furniture for transportation, they say that there was imported last year $3,756,795.40 worth, paying a tax of $1,176,706.42, and that "this article never was and cannot be profitably made in this country, owing to climate and other influences, and there is no industry in the United States protected by this tax." We have a faint recollection of the existence of a manufactory of burlaps in the State of Maine during the war period. Perhaps it has been extinguished ere now by some tax on its raw materials, but if it is still alive, we apprehend that a pretty vigorous fight will be made against the repeal of the duty, in which case we should advise the furniture makers to buy it up and put it and themselves out of misery. The petition concludes by saying: "The collection of these taxes does not benefit any industry in this country, but is a grievous burden to furniture manufacturers, and if our petition is granted it will divert from the national Treasury $3,573,802.54 annually, and will save this amount and many millions more to the people."

The Bangor *Daily Commercial* of February 9 protests vigorously against a repeal of the duty on lumber, and reads a lecture to the Republican Congressmen who are believed to favor such repeal. "There are," it says, "as many Republicans as there are Democrats who advocate free lumber. A large number of the Republican Representatives favor free lumber, and but for this it would not be possible to pass such an act by the House. The Senate has a Republican majority, and should lumber be placed upon the free list, the Republicans as well as the Democrats in Congress will be responsible for the act." The reason why the duty should not be repealed, says the *Commercial*, is that the Canadian lumbermen are not so heavily taxed as our lumbermen, and can therefore afford to sell lumber at lower rates. "*After a radical reduction of the tariff*," it continues, "making it possible for our lumbermen to conduct their operations at as low a cost as do the Canadians, it will be early enough for the placing of lumber upon the free list." It sees no objection, however, to putting coal on the free list, and seems to favor that measure in the interest of our manufacturing establishments. What a vicious circle the high-tariff argument travels in! You must not lower the duty on any one thing unless you lower it on all things, but you must not lower it on all things because you will ruin American industry if you do.

The *Commercial Bulletin* publishes an analysis of the bill of the Undervaluations Committee of the Senate, showing it to be about the most mediæval and discreditable contrivance ever conceived to cripple and restrict our intercourse with foreign nations. The object of the bill is to prevent consignments of goods to this country, and to throw trade back to the conditions of a quarter of a century ago. It is an advantage to the people of the United States to have goods in bonded warehouse ready for consumption, just as it is an advantage to have commercial travellers seeking customers and selling by sample. It is proposed, also, in this bill to restore the duties on coverings and on charges from the place of manufacture to the place of export. This is really an increase of the tariff, and, as the *Bulletin* shows, is in violation of that clause of the Constitution which requires that all bills for raising revenue shall originate in the House—this, too, at a time when we are trying to reduce the surplus. It is proposed, also, to make it presumptive evidence of fraud if the appraisers advance the valuation of an invoice 5 per cent. In order to add to the cumbrousness of the present system, and put one more obstacle in the way of the importer, it is provided that there shall be three appraisements instead of two in every case where either the Government or the merchant shall be dissatisfied. The present system provides for an appraisement, with the right of appeal from the local appraiser to the Board of General Appraisers. The pending bill provides for an appraisement and an appeal to one general appraiser, and from him to a board of three general appraisers, and the phraseology in which this complicated system is sought to be defined is so tortuous and involved that endless litigation must grow out of it. If such a bill should happen to pass Congress, we trust that the President will veto it in behalf of modern civilization and in the interest of commerce, which his message has done so much to promote and popularize.

Had the *Tribune's* Washington detective examined the record respecting compensation to United States district attorneys under section 827 of the Revised Statutes, he would have seen that Secretary Manning, in his annual report for 1885, page xlii., on the "Collection of Duties," clearly exhibited all the facts thereunto belonging. The early practice was to look upon suits by importers against collectors to recover money illegally exacted on imports as private suits, in which the Collector must look out for the defence, inasmuch as his estate would be levied on to satisfy a judgment. But when, in 1863, the law said no such personal liability should attach, if the Collector levied the duty by order of the Treasury, and the Treasury must pay the judgment, the law also gave to district attorneys an extra fee for defending the suits, to be fixed by the court. Mr. Manning told Congress that, in the three years just prior to 1877, those fees to the United States District Attorney in New York were $40,499, and all the work done by salaried Government officers. On June 4, 1877, Secretary Sherman ordered that the allowance to any district attorney in one year should not be paid by the Treasury in excess of $4,000. Secretary Fairchild does seem to have revoked Secretary Sherman's order, whose effect was to reduce the fee which, if certified by the court as proper, the statute says the District Attorney "*shall receive*"; but it is not to be supposed that Secretary Fairchild intended to restore the old annual fees of $12,000 or $20,000 a year. The subject demands the attention of Congress, as Mr. Manning urged. Fees and perquisites of that character are all wrong. The District Attorney's office should be properly equipped, and each person in it paid a fair annual salary. The fee-perquisite arrangement always leads to scandals.

The Ballot Reform Bill, prepared by a committee of the Commonwealth Club, and submitted for revision and approval to the committees of several other local organizations and clubs, has now been put in final shape for presentation to the Legislature, and sent to Albany. Every effort has been made to provide for a simple and effective application of the principles of the proposed reform to our system of voting, and the public-spirited gentlemen who have devoted so much time and thought to the work are confident that they have succeeded in their purpose. There has been no trace of partisanship in their labors, and there should be none in the consideration of the question by the Legislature. The ad-

vocates of the change are unanimously of the belief that it would be most unwise to have the first election under the new method take place in a Presidential year, for obvious reasons, and a section has been added to this bill, providing that, if it become a law, it shall not take effect till January 1, 1889.

Massachusetts now falls into line with a ballot-reform bill, which has been presented by Mr. Hayes, a member of the House from Lynn, and is under consideration in committee. Its provisions are much like those of the bills before the New York Legislature. They place the expense of printing and distributing the ballots upon the State, and follow the methods of printing and voting which the New York bills have adopted, mainly from the English laws. The names of all candidates for all national, State, and county offices are to be printed upon one ticket, and all those for municipal offices on another; the voter is to check with a cross the names of those for whom he wishes to vote. This will require one very long ticket, but they are accustomed to that in Massachusetts. We could not follow that plan in this city without having our ballot-boxes enlarged to the size of barrels, for if we were to have all the names of all the candidates of all our local organizations for all offices printed upon one ballot, its length would be portentous. The resulting delay and confusion in voting such a ballot would be very great.

The working of the new High-License Law in Pennsylvania, which is now going into operation, will be an interesting and instructive study. In many respects it is the most stringent measure of the kind which has been enacted in any State. Its most restrictive provision is that requiring each applicant for a license to have two reputable freeholders of his ward or township go on his bond for $2,000 each, and such bondsmen must be owners of unencumbered real estate worth at least $2,000, and must not be engaged in the manufacture of liquors. No man can be bondsman for more than one applicant. The chief effect of this requirement has been, of course, to prevent the brewers from taking out large numbers of licenses in liquor-dealers' names. The result is that in Philadelphia, where under the old law there were about 6,000 liquor-saloons, there have been only 3,423 applications filed for licenses, and at least 1,000 of these will either be withdrawn or abandoned because the bondsmen cannot qualify under the law. Philadelphia is likely to start on her high-license experiment, therefore, with her saloons reduced from 6,000 to about 2,500, according to official estimates. In the cities of Pittsburgh and Allegheny, which are both in the same county, there have been only 1,350 applications for licenses, against 3,000 under the old law; and so on through the State.

The experience which Michigan is having with high-tax and local-option laws working together is very instructive. The State has had a tax law for several years, and at the last session of the Legislature its rates were considerably advanced, so that at present it levies upon all manufacturers of intoxicating and spirituous liquors, and upon all dealers doing both a wholesale and retail trade in the same, a tax of $800 a year; upon wholesale dealers in such liquors, $500, and upon retail dealers in the same, $500; upon manufacturers of malt or brewed liquors only, $65, and upon all dealers in malt or brewed liquor only, $300. In addition to these amendments of the law, the same Legislature passed a local-option law which gives to any county the power by majority vote to decide whether or not liquor shall be sold within its limits. In order to ascertain the latest official information about the success of these laws, we wrote recently to the Governor of the State, and obtained the following response:

"Our old tax law has been measurably successful. It has driven the saloon out of the rural districts and reduced the number in the cities and villages. In 1878 the tax reported to the Auditor-General was $373,416.25, and the number of dealers, 4,203. In 1886 the amount of tax was $1,186,366.95, and the number of dealers 4,759. Previous to the passage of the act there were many more saloons, but we cannot readily state the number. Ten counties have voted on the question of local option, in all of which the decision has been against the traffic, generally by good majorities. Ten more will soon vote, with probably the same result."

It will be seen that the tax-law statistics given by the Governor are those for the year 1886, but the tax at that time was $500 and $300 where in the amended law it is $500 and $800. The latest figures on local option give fourteen counties which have decided in favor of prohibition. As to the number of saloons existing before the tax law was passed, we are able to give them without the Governor's aid. After twenty years of prohibition, Michigan had in 1874, 6,444 saloons, or 1 for every 207 inhabitants. The tax law was passed in 1875, and in 1876, one year after it went into effect, the number of saloons had been reduced to 4,867, a decrease of 1,577. In 1877, a further reduction was made to 3,996. In 1882, six years after the law went into effect, the number had fallen to 3,461, or 1 to every 536 of population, a decrease of nearly 50 per cent. If the ratio of 1874 had been maintained, the State would have had in 1882 8,966 saloons, and would have to-day at least 10,000, instead of 4,203. It will be seen that the number for 1886, in spite of an increase of more than half a million in population, is 2,241 less than it was in 1874, when the State was under a prohibitory law.

The official report of the Chief of State Police to the Rhode Island Legislature, setting forth the failure of prohibition, contains some instructive reading. The reports to the Chief from his subordinates in various parts of the State are classified according to the information which they give, and in the class of those who "report no complaints, and assign reasons therefor," appears the following from the Town Sergeant of Glocester: "I arrested one man a year ago for keeping a common nuisance, and I lost the case, as the best men in the town, even to the President of the Council, testified against me. For the lack of support, no arrests or seizures have been made by me, as the majority of the town is in favor of liquor." Commenting upon this frank avowal, the Providence *Journal* says it "pithily states the real cause for the failure of our prohibitory legislation," and that the general truth which is meant to be conveyed by it "is undoubtedly applicable to the State as a whole," and adds: "While, of course, it is not true that a majority of our people are 'in favor of liquor,' it is certainly true that a majority are not giving the law any support, or the enforcing officers any encouragement to do their duty. They are not giving it because they do not believe, after the experience they have had, that prohibition is a proper or practical method of liquor regulation. That being the case, no amount of amendment or addition can make the Prohibitory Law a success." This is the lesson which has been taught over and over again—that prohibition laws cannot be enforced except where public sentiment in their favor predominates.

Prince Bismarck's Military Bill has been passed without a dissentient voice. Under it he will, as he himself has said, have about a million of men for service in case of war on the French frontier, a million on the Russian frontier, and a million in reserve. Neither he nor anybody else has given the slightest intimation as to the period when the necessity for these precautions will pass away. It will certainly not be in his lifetime. As long as the French refuse to resign themselves to the loss of Alsace and Lorraine, and the Russians maintain that they have rights which are still unrecognized in Bulgaria, Germany and Austria will probably have to remain armed as at present, and in both countries the military art will continue to make the tremendous drafts on the national stock of talent, both scientific and administrative, which it is now making. This is really almost a greater misfortune for the community than the mere material loss inflicted by the withdrawal of large masses of men from peaceful industry or the expenditure on the material of war. Bismarck truly said in his speech that no other nation had such a supply of military officers as Germany—that is, such a supply of men of training, capacity, and character for the conduct of armies. But this simply means that in no other country is there so large a body of the ablest administrators, and most ingenious contrivers, and most careful observers, and most industrious and diligent brain-workers, devoting themselves to perfecting the means of destroying life and property at short notice. This is the kernel, in fact, of the whole European situation. This system of great armaments is as yet only about twenty years old. It is still too soon to judge what its final effect on European society and politics will be, but it will certainly be something very novel, and very unlike what people looked for when the steam engine first began to excite the imagination of social philosophers.

"THE FLORENCE MESSAGE."

Now that the "Florence Message" from Mr. Blaine has been accepted by the bulk of the party as his definitive retirement from the Presidential arena, the process of construing it in the light of subsequent events, which all Mr. Blaine's utterances have to undergo, has already begun and is progressing rapidly, with very entertaining results. In the first place, most people are much impressed, and his friends are naturally a little dismayed, by the account he gives of the state of things which will be witnessed after his departure. The whole of his letter, barring one short paragraph, is taken up with an account of the bright future which awaits the party after it has lost his services as a candidate. This, of course, makes it appear that those who thought him absolutely necessary to its success made a terrible mistake, and that it could have very well done without him all along.

Another very curious passage in the Message is that in which he asserts that "one thing only is necessary to assure success—complete harmony and cordial coöperation on the part of all Republicans." This has been by no means the understanding of the matter on which the party managers have acted of late years. There is nothing they have more carefully guarded against than "harmony," for whenever the Mugwumps showed any sign of willingness to come back, they have been warned off, and any party candidates they have supported have been sedulously "knifed." The managers have, indeed, ever since 1884, held and preached that "the one thing necessary to assure success" was not "harmony," but Blaine, and that nobody could be a good Republican, no matter how much he liked harmony or coöperation, if he did not like Blaine. This modification of the creed by the Master's hand, naturally, therefore, excites surprise as well as sorrow.

Other views of the letter are varied and interesting. Mr. Depew, while lost in admiration of Mr. Blaine, and liking the Paris Message for its "picturesque peculiarity," maintains that the Florence Message "must be interpreted by the facts and circumstances which have preceded it." As, however, these "facts and circumstances" are only known to a favored few, the work of Blaine hermeneutics must necessarily be confined to a small order of hierophants. We do not suppose there are over one dozen men in the country qualified by training and natural powers to interpret the Master correctly, and of course they are kept very busy. Senator Hawley thinks that though the Message means declination, nevertheless Mr. Blaine may be nominated in spite of it. Mr. Warner Miller was "profoundly stirred" by the Message, and believed the withdrawal to be sincere, but could not be induced to say that it would prevent Mr. Blaine's nomination. Ex-Judge Noah Davis was much moved by it, as "the letter of a patriot and statesman," and thought the Democrats, too, would regret it, because, if they cannot have Cleveland, they must, the ex-Judge thinks, want Blaine in the Presidency. Mr. Jesse Seligman was "enthusiastic" over it, because it increased his admiration for Blaine, and made him want him for President more than ever, and declared that he was needed in Wall Street to revive business. There was "almost grief" at the Produce and Cotton Exchanges, the *Tribune* says, over the Message, which, we suppose, resembles grief as the mist resembles the rain. Police Commissioner "Steve" French felt quite certain that the Message was sincere, but appeared entirely reconciled to the situation. Commissioner "Johnny" McClave took the same view, was afflicted by the withdrawal, but was certain it was "final." Mr. Edward Mitchell mourned over it too, but saw that it would lead to "unity." Ex-Attorney-General Leslie W. Russell also thought the Message "final," as did Gen. John A. Foster, but hoped "the Convention would override his (Mr. Blaine's) wishes as they did Garfield's," whose nomination, it would appear, was made in spite of his kicks and screams. "Tom" Platt was also profoundly afflicted by the news, but was convinced that Mr. Blaine must now be considered out of the race. The *Tribune* also discovered great disappointment among the temperance people. Albert Griffin of the National Republican Saloon Committee did the "voicing of this sentiment of regret."

We might greatly multiply these citations from the leading Blaine organ. They all go to show that while the sorrow in the party over the Message is deep and universal, it is also for the most part sorrow without hope. Almost everybody who is consulted, after the first burst of grief is over, expresses his firm belief that a man like Blaine could never be induced to change his mind, that he is as much out of the race as if he were dead, and that the party must now go to work with aching heart to fill up the void. It is proper to remark, however, that a Washington correspondent telegraphs "that the subject is not closed, and that the letter is to receive its fuller explanation in some additional statements which will not be made public for some days." We have little doubt this is true. No matter what statement Mr. Blaine makes, an additional statement is sure to come in a few days, but in this case it will not affect the situation. The curtain has fallen, and it is only a very small circle of admirers whom Mr. Blaine made conspicuous, and who will never be conspicuous again, who wish to have it raised again. The lights may be kept burning till the house empties, and the house may empty slowly, but the play is over.

SOUTHERN HOMICIDE.

THE editor of the Knoxville (Tenn.) *Daily Journal*, of whose manful fight for his life at the church door on Sunday we gave some account a fortnight ago, is apparently dissatisfied with our comments on that tragic occurrence, for he has sent us a much-marked copy of his paper containing an answer to our criticisms. What he objects to is in the main the inferences we drew or appeared to draw from the fight, as to the condition of Southern sentiment on the subject of homicidal encounters and the carrying of concealed weapons. He says we are "disposed to magnify every violation of law in the Southern States and hold it up as an evidence of a general demoralization of Southern society." This is very far indeed from the truth. On the contrary, we have for many years, while commenting on Southern readiness to shed blood about trifles, endeavored to guard against the inference that the homicidal tendency was evidence of "general demoralization." In fact, one of the most surprising things about it, we have always thought and said, was that it existed in the midst of a civilization in other respects so high. For instance, in the present case of the editor of the *Journal*, we should not in this part of the world expect a man who carried a loaded pistol in his pocket on Sunday, and was expert in its use, to go to church at all. But at Knoxville the editor, although he knew that some desperate fellows were on his track, instead of having them arrested and bound over to keep the peace, went armed and ready for them to his place of worship, and was able, by his energy and activity, to kill one and wound another at the door of the sacred edifice, though himself wounded severely. There is an incongruity about this sort of thing which strikes the Northern mind as very odd. One finds it difficult to realize that men who are so constantly armed, so ready to use their weapons in private quarrels and fight for life in the public streets, wear black broadcloth and buy their meat at the butcher's. One rather expects to see them wearing an arsenal in their belts, and a brilliant red jacket and beautiful white petticoats like an Albanian or Montenegrin.

The Knoxville *Journal*, curiously enough, thinks it answers our complaints about Southern customs in this matter of homicide and deadly weapons, by pointing out that there are many crimes committed at the North; that a farmer was recently waylaid, murdered, and robbed in Ohio; that "not long ago a woman was found murdered in New Jersey," and that "only last week a man killed his own mother in the city of Brooklyn with an axe." All this shows a curious inability to comprehend what the Northern charge against the South is. Nobody maintains that ordinary crime, murders, robberies, and the like, are not as common at the North as at the South, and, indeed, much more common. What we charge is, that encounters with deadly weapons between more or less respectable men, in the public streets, are disgracefully frequent at the South, though much less so than a few years ago; that men of good character and standing, instead of appealing to the police, respond with hideous readiness to the invitations of bullies and rowdies to engage in single combat with them in the public highways, and discredit American civilization by butchering each other like Zulus or red Indians.

If the Knoxville *Journal* could give us some examples in this part of the country of furious encounters with knives and pistols

between prominent lawyers, or doctors, or merchants; if it could show that when a litigant assaulted a judge for deciding against him, the judge had to commit suicide to escape the shame of refusing to fight a duel with the blackguard, or to shoot him from behind a fence, as happened two or three years ago in Kentucky; or that a deacon or elder, when he had a falling out with a man, made no scruple of warning him to go armed, in order that he might be attacked on equal terms, as now and then happens at the South; or, in fact, that murder readily occurs to decent men in good social standing at the North as a remedy for trifling social wrongs, then indeed it would have us on the hip.

We admit there has been a great improvement at the South in this matter within the last seven years. A prominent man in South Carolina has lately had the courage to bring a suit for libel, instead of sending a challenge. Similar things have occurred in other parts of the South, and they show great progress. But that there is still considerable room for improvement the Knoxville editor's way of meeting his assailants shows, as does also an article which, curiously enough, he prints in his paper immediately before the one in which he answers us. This article comments on "the shooting of Editor Ellis of the Birmingham *Hornet* last Saturday," and it endeavors to show that Editor Ellis had but little to complain of, because he "abused everybody who crossed his path. His strong point was vituperation, and whoever incurred the displeasure of the editor was made the object upon which filth was emptied by wholesale." Now, we have many such editors in these parts, but nobody thinks of murdering them. Doubtless some of them richly deserve to die, but members of a civilized community, if rightly constituted, refuse to inflict capital punishment on any man, in their own quarrel, without a proper trial by a legal tribunal. One of the inconveniences to which a man has to submit when he becomes a member of such a community, in return for countless benefits, is daily contact with many people who, he is satisfied, are not fit to live. But any one who cannot put up with this inconvenience is really a savage, no matter what kind of clothes he wears.

FROUDE AND MARX.

Mr. Froude's book on the West Indies, which we reviewed last week, and which is really a political pamphlet embellished with picturesque descriptions of travel, brings out very strikingly the close agreement of the Socialist and Carlylese philosophers on one point. Mr. Froude, and all his school of political thinkers, are disgusted with representative governments and deliberative assemblies. They would abolish them everywhere, except possibly in England. The orators by whom these assemblies are swayed they consider little short of a nuisance. They would have all races, beginning with the blacks, ruled by able administrators, regulating everything out of their own head, and, if possible, feeling more or less pity and contempt for those over whom they reign. The possible exceptions to this rule are Englishmen and Americans, though about the Americans we are not so sure. But all other men are summoned, with more or less energy, to provide themselves with masters, if they wish to escape both temporal ruin and eternal damnation. They must give up jabbering and consulting, and learn to obey. They must throw their orators into the sea, and put good admirals and generals in their places. What is wanted in the West Indies, for instance, is not parliamentary institutions, but a batch of austere and determined governors who would "make the niggers mind," or "stand round," as an old Southern overseer would say. The Irish in these matters are much in the same boat as the blacks. If they knew what was good for them, they would be clamoring now, not for home rule, but for a peculiarly stern viceroy who would govern them in the Anglo-Indian fashion. The governors, of course, would see that they were industrious, that they did not talk too much, that they did not waste their money, and that they took as nearly an English view of life as they were capable of.

The Socialists would organize society in very nearly the same way. We do not believe they are as hostile to talk as Mr. Froude, and they care much less than he does about political arrangements. But they agree with him thoroughly as to the unfitness of most men to manage their own business. They are even more opposed to home rule than he is, for they would not let anybody rule his own home. They would, if they could, provide administrators who would take charge of all the "instruments of production"—that is, the land, mines, houses, machinery, and railroads—and then tell us all what kind of business to engage in, in what manner we should carry it on, where and how the product should be sold or disposed of, and how the money or other consideration received for it, should be spent. In fact, we think it would on the whole be worse to be a "nigger" or an Irishman under Karl Marx than under Mr. Froude. There would be even more government, and the governors would not be nearly such gentlemanly men as Mr. Froude's.

It will be seen from all this that, widely as the two schools differ in the view they take of human society, they agree in making tremendous demands on the exceedingly small stock of administrative talent with which Providence has thought fit to endow the human race. If Mr. Froude had his way, and, after getting rid of the parliaments and the talkers, were to undertake to equip every community with a really competent ruler, it is not too much to say that he would need in the British Empire alone fully 1,000 men of the first order of ability. They would all, too, in order to avoid the danger of frequent changes, have to be in perfect physical condition, and very careful about their diet and clothing, and very pure in heart. In fact, Washington after Yorktown, or the Duke of Wellington after Waterloo, is about the sort of man who would pass a Carlylese examining board for a gubernatorial place. On the question how these governors are to be found Mr. Froude is silent, from which we must infer that the process is an easy one, and that the scarcity of Washingtons and Wellingtons in the early part of the century was due simply to inadequate search. With our present advertising facilities, they would doubtless be forthcoming in great numbers. We should only have to put a "want" into the *Herald* or the *World*, and they would appear in swarms with best recommendations from their last places, and no objections to the country.

One is puzzled in the same way in reading Karl Marx. A child can see that after the capitalists were all hanged or banished, and the instruments of production seized upon, the "job" would still have to be "bossed" by somebody. In fact, we should then need fully as many bosses as there are now capitalists, and, as the stimulus of private interest would be wanting, they would have all to be men of the highest capacity and character—that is, they must be in administrative talent equal to our best railroad presidents, in morals to the best of our bishops and other clergymen, and in sympathy and tender-heartedness to the best mothers of large families in the country. To get an adequate idea of the kind of work that would devolve on them, one must imagine one's self bound on getting up every morning to see that the inhabitants of one large New York block attended diligently to their business during the day, gave every man his due, were properly provided with food, clothing, theatre and car-tickets, that their milk was pure, and that their water ran on the upper stories, and the plumbing was in good order.

Neither Marx nor any other Socialistic writer, any more than Mr. Froude, gives us the slightest hint where this kind of talent can be found in the needful quantity. We presume that they, too, would rely on advertising among the "wants" in a morning paper. That the responses would be numerous is of course certain; but how would the selection be made, and who would watch the inspectors after they had taken office, to see that they got up in time in the morning, kept their accounts properly, and had no private stores of dainties and no favorites among the workers?

We must do Marx and his fellows the justice to say that they do not hint that they themselves would be good men for the place. With Mr. Froude, on the other hand, there is no such modesty. No reader can lay down his book without feeling that he knows at least one man who could promptly pacify Ireland or regenerate the West Indies, and who could, if called on in time, even save the British Empire from Gladstone and the orators.

COERCION IN JAPAN.

Japan has not yet exhausted her resources of surprise. At the end of 1885 she crowned the series of revolutions begun in 1868 by apparently eliminating the Asiatic features of her Government. The triple premiership common to China, Corea, and Nippon was abolished, several courses of official inter-

mediaries between the throne and the people were removed, 8,000 unnecessary office-holders were discharged, and her ministers of state were appointed by and made responsible to the Mikado. Young men educated in Europe or America were made the chief executive servants and closest counsellors of the Emperor, who became more than ever an actual ruler. Ito, born in 1840, for a while at school in England, and somewhat noted as a speech-maker in the United States in 1871, became "Minister President of State." All this was in the direction of healthy reform, and in the spirit of the revolution of 1868, as embodied in the oath of the Mikado to form a government based on public opinion.

The closing days of 1887, however, have seen a different and disappointing state of affairs. On the 26th of December, a flash of lightning, followed by a roar of thunder out of a blue sky, an imperial rescript dated December 25 was published. It laid a ban on all secret societies and assemblies, and authorized the police to put a stop, without recourse, to open-air meetings. With the sanction of the Minister of Home Affairs, they were to warn away, deport, or imprison all suspected persons living within eight miles of the palace. To the Cabinet were given full powers to "proclaim districts imperilled by popular excitement," and practically to put the whole body of the people therein under martial law. The interpretation was not long wanting to the text, for within a few days after its issue several hundred persons — children, boys, and men—and these mostly from the province of Tosa, were summarily removed from Tokio or cast into prison for not instantly obeying the police. The suspects are to be under surveillance for a period of from two to five years. This means that even their private letters will be opened, and their lives made a burden. It means also that the able men suspected will be politically disabled until after 1890. Ostensibly, the cause of this high-handed act, shameful even in a despotism like that of Japan, is the discovery of a plot to murder Count Ito, the Minister President of State. As simple fact, it followed on the appearance in the capital of a deputation of overtaxed people who came to petition for redress.

To a close observer of Japanese affairs the edge of surprise is taken off by a study of certain recent events which seemed as surely prognostic of some sudden political change as the subsidence of water in a well forebodes an earthquake. That we may appreciate these, it is only necessary to know the ruling principle and secret springs of Japanese politics. The Mikado is still a fetish, and whichever party holds his person is the Government, and the only legitimate expression of "the will of heaven." Who ever opposes this body-guard in power is a *chō-téki* (imperial enemy, traitor). In all Japanese history, no noble, knight, gentleman, or commoner ever attempts to seize the throne; the ambitious man aims only to get possession of the Son of Heaven. This done, and his former keepers beheaded, a new government is formed. In 1868, in Kioto, a few clever leaders of the Satsuma, Choshiu, and Tosa clans were able to do this, and to upset the established order of two and a half centuries, even the Tokugawa shogunate in Yedo, and ultimately to abolish the whole feudal system. In the flush of their triumph, they made the boy Mikado take an oath before gods and men to form a government based on public opinion. They were Liberals then, but revolutions move faster than the men who start them. Busy for years in crushing three great rebellions got up by "chō-téki," who wanted the Emperor to have new counsellors, disappointed in their foreign diplomacy, sobered by their tremendous responsibilities, these once hot-headed Liberals reverted to an ultra-conservative type, even while the opinion of the reading classes moved towards democratic ideas. Only after they had filled the prisons of Japan with editors and men of learning, and when the public pressure was becoming dangerous on all sides, did the Mikado's keepers yield. In 1881 they reaffirmed the imperial promise that a parliament should be assembled, and named the date, 1890.

Almost to a man the joyful Liberals believed that this would be on the British model. Hence they kept silence even when the office-holders converted themselves into noblemen, with fat salaries and allowances, and profusely distributed decorations to themselves and their foreign favorites. This they did because they saw that material must be supplied for the upper as well as the lower house of the Parliament to be. Patiently, too, they bore both the restrictive measures and the grinding taxation, even while companies of political favorites were annually junketing through Europe at a cost of many tens of thousands of dollars. All this time the Government, consisting by a large majority of Satsuma and Choshiu men, became more closely centralized. The Tosa people, being as a rule men of the Liberal party, were left out of office.

Ito, visiting Europe, became fascinated with Bismarck and the Prussian methods of doing things. On his return a marked German influence was noticed. Germans were employed as teachers and advisers at court, and it soon became evident to the liberal Japanese patriots that the Prussian system, with ministers responsible to the sovereign, instead of the British method, which makes the ministers responsible to Parliament, would be chosen as the model for Japan in 1890.

To the Liberals, hoping for real representative institutions, this was rank treachery; Ito and his sympathizers had turned even the imperial oath into perjury. To root despotism still deeper, and make militarism still stronger, under the outward guise of Germanism and civilization, was a blow to their hopes for which the thoughtful men of Japan were but ill prepared. It is not, therefore, strange that plots against the life of the Mikado's ministers were rife; or that, on the other hand, the official espionage became more elaborate, the centralizing measures more stringent, and iron-handed despotism more openly avowed. Japan's Government for centuries has been that of "despotism tempered by assassination." Ito, who had seen most of his predecessors in high office made the assassin's target or the actual victims of his sword, was ever on the alert, knowing well that if "a vote of censure" were moved upon him, it would be in the usual form of assassination. If "his Majesty's Opposition" were successful, he and his colleagues would be beheaded. In the lack of a congress, parliament, or free press, this is the Asiatic method of asking for the resignation of obnoxious Cabinet officers.

No doubt plots were really made against the lives of the men who have forced the last imperial rescript, and by exile and semi-imprisonment of their rivals and enemies purged away the objectionable elements which might arise in the kind of parliament they want in 1890. Having turned Tokio into a camp, they yet find it necessary to do considerable beheading among the troops, who are at intervals suspected of aiding plotters. Only a few weeks ago the blood-pit was well moistened. Having crippled the once brilliant scheme of national education by spending from the imperial treasury less than a million dollars a year in this direction, and seventeen millions, or nearly one-fourth of the whole revenue, on the army and navy, they have also pushed forward a railroad system notoriously unnecessary, in order to have military roads, and by means of them to concentrate troops quickly at any point. As a final stroke, preparatory to this last characteristically Asiatic move, they succeeded in corrupting the foreign press. The chief newspaper at Yokohama has for years been under subsidy from Tokio, in the form of a large subscription, paid for out of the imperial treasury. Until a few days before the fateful Christmas Day of 1887, however, the other journal was pouring out its usual steady stream of criticism, to the exasperation of the Cabinet. It exposed, sometimes with harshness, but always ably, the shams of "statesmen" who were bidding for the sympathies of civilization. Suddenly, as readers of this long critical sheet noticed, its tone became as genial as a tropical zephyr. The secret was soon out. Its proprietor had earned leisure and coveted opportunities of travel by accepting a handsome salary from the Japanese Government simply to stay away. It now justifies and excuses even this Coercion Act. Accordingly, the comments of both these papers on the rescript, with its arrest, exile, or imprisonment of from 500 to 900 persons — acts which quite equal the worst in Russia—are the laughing-stock of both foreigners and natives. With the native press muzzled and the alien press corrupted, with a large army and fine navy at their back, and reverting, as they have done, to the vices of feudalism, the ministers now in power are masters of the situation.

The prospect of Japanese absolutism becoming a constitutional monarchy, or her people having any real share in the functions of government during this century, are now exceedingly remote. No doubt the advisers of the Emperor have the right to protect them-

selves, knowing their dangers. Still, so long as such methods are even supposed necessary, it is an idle dream for Japanese to imagine that Western governments will yield their extra-territorialty claims, or allow their citizens to come under such risks. The best friends of Japan can but hope that the recent measures are the result of overstrained nerves, and will by their authors be allowed to fall into "innocuous desuetude." If, however, such acts are repeated, the world will not be deceived as to the real character of Japan's much-boasted "civilization."

VOLAPÜK.—II.

UNIVERSITY OF MISSISSIPPI, January.

THE grammar of this new language is very brief. But if Volapük has come to stay sure enough, the syntax will assuredly have to be enlarged, because a fuller treatment will be demanded. A few points may be referred to here. As to the cases, there are four, as in German; but the question arises: How are different nations to be made to harmonize their varying conceptions of case relations? Schleyer says (p. 17) that his language "has neither an ablative, nor an instrumental or prepositional, local, causative, or negative (as the Lapland, Latin, Russian, and Sanscrit). For these cases the appropriate prepositions (usually with the nominative) are employed." He rejects these cases as unnecessary, but retains his German cases. If "Volapükists" can use prepositions to express *with*, *from*, *by*, why not do the same for *of* and *to*? How are we all to be brought to think *of* and *to* in the same places? Those who speak English will naturally consider their transitive verbs as followed by the accusative, and will append *i* to the nouns. "Notify the man," "Thank the man," "Ask the man." In these places we should undoubtedly use *mani* in writing Volapük. But in "Ask the man," a Frenchman would, of course, write *mane*, *e* doing in Volapük what *à* did for him in French. In "Thank the man" both the French and the Germans would write *mane*. The Volapük Almanach has several examples of mercantile letters (*Handelsbriefe*). One of them begins: "Wir haben die Ehre, Ihnen anzuzeigen," and for *Ihnen*, *oles* is given—*i. e.*, *ol* = you (du); *ole* = dat. sing. *to you;* and *oles* = dat. plural. In another letter we find "und danken Ihnen," and again *Ihnen* is *oles*. What would make a London or New York correspondent write anything but *olis* in these sentences?

The greatest curiosity will naturally be felt in regard to the verb, and just here is where this new language is in greatest danger of coming to grief. What sorts of renderings are given to such a multitude of forms? and in what state do we find the syntax of the verb? In answer to the first question we reply, knock off about a quarter of a million forms, by remembering that the "aoristic" formation in *i* just duplicates the other forms, and in translating add "constantly" to represent it. *E. g.*, in the verb *to love*, half the forms denote constant affection, while 250,000 forms are reserved for inconstant lovers. One very peculiar form of affection must be noted: "to love (or be loved) *multilaterally*." (Seret, p. 44, and p. 51). In fact, "multilateral" English is the only kind we can think of at all suited to such a vast system of inflection. "For to (shall love)," "for (to shall have loved)," are translations given to two of the supines (p. 45). "To love (just loving on)" renders an imperative-infinitive. "Be a loving one!" affords an example of an imperative-participle. If such imperatives seem at all shadowy, there is a "substantial imperative" given on p. 44. "Love govern!" translates its present tense. "Love must have governed!" is the perfect. For a future and future perfect imperative we have "I shall have to love constantly," and "I shall have had to love constantly." "A loving that had been" is an instance of a pluperfect infinitive. "Up to be loved!" shows us a passive imperative-infinitive. To show us what his "Jussiv" is capable of, and at the same time to afford a conspicuous example of the conciseness of Volapük, Schleyer gives the following: "pujelobsöz! wir *sollen* solche sein, die werden geschützt worden sein! (1 wort statt 9!)." "We *shall* be such as shall have been protected" is a form of imperative hardly adapted for a world-language in which no uncertainty or confusion of thought is to enter. And even this, no doubt, admits of improvement. If an Englishman is set upon by a foreign mob, with no mode of communication except Volapük, and if the above startling command has failed to cow his assailants, he has only to insert one letter to assure them that Britannia *always* protects her children. If he shouts "puijeloböz!" (I *shall* be such as shall have been *constantly* protected), with as much emphasis on *i* as can be given in a language that always accents the last syllable of its words, he will probably find that "abroad" will recognize his rights.

Let us see what Schleyer does with his moods. He forms his subjunctive by appending an unaccented *-la* to the verb and personal ending. His common rendering for it is *möchte*. Seret gives *might* with the following examples to illustrate its use: "That you might show: that she might lock: if it might happen: you might have halved." Spielmann translates this *-la* form *ich würde* schreiben, *du würdest* schreiben, etc. An interrogative subjunctive is provided for, and Seret gives "if you had not been animated" for *möchten sie nicht beseelt haben?* Schleyer adds the examples, *möchte man dabei sein werden? möchte es ein solches sein, welches das Papier gerötet hatte?* for which the English translator gives no equivalent. If our notion of the proper range of subjunctive constructions is by this time a trifle hazy, we have these additional examples of the interrogative construction: "Do I encourage? Did they rob? If you had answered?"; this last as the rendering for *hättet Ihr geantwortet?* Seret is not "all too" happy in his translations of the German subjunctive, strong as he may be in Volapük.

The treatment of the subjunctive will further illustrate one of the great difficulties in the way of a universal language, the difficulty, namely, of getting different peoples to look at the same thing in the same way. Seret's handling of the subjunctive we have already seen. Sprague's only account of it is its use after *if*, and the same is true of Dornbusch's translation of Kerckhoffs's abridged grammar, in which we find the added statement: "It is rarely used in Volapük." But surely we are not prepared to restrict ourselves in the use of conditional sentences implying that the real state of the case is just the reverse of the way the conditional sentence puts it—for the books seem to limit the subjunctive after *if* to "suppositions contrary to fact." If Volapük has come to stay, the subjunctive is bound to be used freely. Again: Schleyer tells us (p. 17) that his language prefers direct discourse to indirect, because of the greater clearness of the direct form, and—note this—"in order to avoid the too frequent use of the *-la* of the subjunctive," showing that *he* evidently had in mind other uses of the subjunctive than its use in "unreal" conditionals. And then on p. 47 we see him drop as naturally as possible into this very construction, in rendering into Volapük "Your friend is said to have come" (dein Freund *soll* gekommen sein: *sagon, das* flen olik *ekömom*-la).

As a note under the "Konjunktiv," Schleyer provides for a "Konditionalis," with the affix *-öv*: binolöv, *du würdest sein*. For this Spielmann would give binol-*la*, which, as we have seen, Schleyer would translate *du möchtest sein*. The world will assuredly demand something more satisfactory than this in its universal language. As further specimens of Seret's fine perception of the niceties of language, we note that on page 42 he translates the optative in the *singular* by *may I love*, *mayest thou love*, etc. When he reaches the plural of the same tense (present), it becomes "that we may love, that you may love," etc. Following this is a "N. B." telling us to mark the difference between *mägom* löfön, *he may love*, löfömös, *may he love!* and löfom-la, *that he might love*. On page 53 we have the optative "sanomös, he may cure! (not: he might cure)!" while on page 51 the opt. pass. pälöfomös is rendered *that he might be loved*, though it is only fair to say that the *might* in the last sentence is the rendering for the *ä*, the sign of the imperfect.

In any language the chapter on conditional sentences is always of interest to a scholar. In Volapük it is (as yet) a short one. The word for *if* is *if*, and Seret says the use of *if* is the same in both languages, and gives the example: "If November comes, we get snow." The English does not aid us to decide whether this refers to the future, or whether it is a general statement made in the present tense. The rendering shows it to be future, and classical exactness is shown in the use of the future perfect in the protasis: *if ukömom novul, ogetobs nifi*. The reader will remember that *o* is the future vowel, and *u* the future perfect vowel. Following this is another example: "If you come, I'll give thee my book." And to our surprise we find the present tense in both clauses. On p. 38 in Seret we find this paragraph: "*Would*, in conditional sentences, is expressed by the imperfect and the pluperfect tenses of the subjunctive mood (-la). To express it in the present, the perfect, and the future tenses (as, for example, I would be one that loves, that has loved, shall love, shall have loved, is loved),such is done by adding -öv (*v* of vilön) to the person of the verb. Ex. If one heard me (listened to me), I would be one that made the whole of mankind happy; if obi lilonöv, *bin*oböv be*läb*öl menadi lölik (7 Volapüka for 15 or 16 English words)." Such teachings in regard to subjunctives and conditionals as we gather from the two books, remind us of an answer given by a college student on an examination: "Lucid is when a thing is turbid with light." Evidently there is some work still to be done by philologists in the realm of Volapük syntax.

In the matter of sounds, any universal language has great difficulties to contend with. Schleyer rejected both *th* sounds, but retains the French u (ü). But did he not know that it is almost more than English mouths can accomplish to frame to pronounce this ü? We have heard his language called Vola*puck*, Vola*peek*, and Vola*puke* (u as *you*); we doubt if we have ever heard it pronounced in a way that would satisfy Schleyer. And the trouble is that distinctions of meaning are based upon giving this sound correctly. In his pronouns Schleyer has *ut*, *üt*, and *it* for *that* (demon. pron.), *that very* (*ebender* ὅσπερ) and *self*. Does he think he can get the English-speaking world to call *it*, *eet?* or *if*, *eef?* *Fut* and *füt* are both given in Seret's vocabulary as = *foot*, without any hint as to a difference. In Schleyer we find *fut* as a part of the body and *füt* as a measure. It is perfectly true

that if he had rejected sounds impossible or difficult to the various peoples, he would probably have been reduced to an exceedingly slim alphabet. As it is, with one of twenty-seven letters, he discards both the *th* sounds, several of our *a* sounds (*at*, *all*), the *oi* sound (boil), and *w*. Only a few words have *r*, so that flol=flower, lapin=rapine, flen=friend, blod=brother, plek=prayer, blek =break, blef=brevity, etc. Of the four sounds seen in the gradation *azure*, *ashore*, *age*, and *hatch*, Volapük recognizes only two, j=sh and c=j. The four-fold gradation is easy enough for us, who find no difficulty in distinguishing *Jews* from *choose*, and *joke* from *choke*. But a German is very apt to call himself a *cherman*. As Schleyer thus omits some of our most familiar ounds, and retains others that are a stumbling-block to us, other nations will find the same thing true for their language. To meet such difficulties Schleyer has a larger world-alphabet of thirty-seven letters for the purpose of "interpreting sounds and accents peculiar with some people or language."

When we come to the description of the sounds of Volapük, we are impressed once more with the impossibility of learning sounds out of books. Schleyer says, pronounce *e* as in German *es* and English *fell*. Seret gives *a* in *sale* as its equivalent, and this is undoubtedly right. Schleyer says, pronounce *i* as in German *ihm* and English *lip!* For *o* he gives German *Lob* and English *lock* as examples of the same sound; *u* is illustrated by *nur* and *pull*. We once heard a Scotchwoman ask a man if he wanted his *fool* (full) name painted on his trunk. Probably Schleyer had heard *pull* rhymed with *pool*. He tells us *ä* is not to be sounded like *e*. But Seret says the sound of *ä* is given in *any*, and Schleyer says *e* is sounded like *e* in *fell*. Nor is the matter made less confusing by his saying that *e* in German *es* represents the sound of *e* in Volapük. In what part of Germany is *es* pronounced to rhyme with our word *ace?* Again, since the largest percentage of his vocabulary is based on the English, the millions of people who speak English cannot but feel tempted to pronounce fät *fate* when they find that it *means* "fate." But as the pronouns *ät* and *et* mean different things, and as in the verb ä is the vowel for one tense (imperfect) and e for another (future), it is necessary to get these sounds accurately. We are glad to see that Schleyer requires his own people to make some difficult sounds. How are Germans going to distinguish cid, *chisel*, and cit, *cheat?* or fed, *treaty*, and fet, *fertility?* or leg, *genuineness*, and lek, *echo?* One other point we will mention as showing what the chance is of getting sounds from books. Schleyer gives Volapük *v* as equivalent to English *v*, and to German *w* in *webe*. Seret actually gives Volapük *v* as equivalent to *w* in wish! But in the following words, *sval* (swallow), Schwalbe, *svan* (swan), *svid* (sweet), *svim* (swim), *svin* (swine), and *svip* (sweep), the temptation is very strong to do as he says, and pronounce *v* like *w*.

The claim that in Volapük each letter has only one sound is not strictly correct. On page 16 Schleyer makes a distinction between -òs and -ós. We are to pronounce the first with long o (*ohs*), and the second about as o in toss (as toss would be pronounced in German). The "polite" pronoun "you," when it refers to one person, is given by the ending -òns—*i. e.*, *ohns;* but when it refers to more than one, the same ending is -óns, with the short sound as given above. This useless encumbrance, we may add, was done away with by the Munich Congress. *S* has the two sounds we are all accustomed to. For *c* only the sound of our *j* is given; but it is evidently intended to include the *ch* sound (*church*). As *cem*, *cif*, *cop*, and *cüt* mean *chamber*, *chief*, *chop* (hew), and *cheat*, and evidently came from the English, it can hardly be that we are expected to change the sound from *ch* to *j*. In *cog*, *joke*, we have the same initial sound in both languages. But as Schleyer has no *cok* in his vocabulary, it looks very much as if his German pronunciation of final *g* overcame him, and as if he wrote *cog*, but felt *cok*.

One point more. Among the various defects of existing languages that Volapük, according to Schleyer, either avoids entirely or seeks to reduce to a minimum, is an excessive number of meanings for words. He instances *Anstand*, *coup*, *bill*. This is evidently a good point to make. When a schoolboy comes upon *bellum*, his mind is at peace; he is pretty safe in translating it *war*. But when he falls foul of *ratio*, he is most likely at a standstill. A world language, in aiming at simplicity here, has a serious difficulty to encounter in avoiding undue inflation of its vocabulary. If each word is to have only one meaning, the number of words will be swelled enormously; and this huge vocabulary would be rendered additionally difficult from the fact that the same forces that in other languages have given different uses to the same word, would come into play here too, and the world-language would probably find itself "toting double," carrying at the same time a long list of words and a variety of meanings for many of them.

If any of this criticism seems unfair, as directed more against Seret's presentation of Volapük than against the language itself, it must be remembered that Seret's book is the authorized exponent of Volapük for the millions of people who speak English. It is "the second (greatly revised) edition, translated and published with the consent of the inventor," and Seret is a "certified teacher of the universal language." His book contains the standard lexicon of Volapük, and is on this account essential to a student of the new language. But though Schleyer has been extremely unfortunate in his accepted translator, Volapük is itself responsible for most of the defects we have pointed out. It seems astounding that Schleyer should have sought to impose upon the world his vast verbal system. In its very principle it militates against the manifest trend of the Aryan languages, which is to substitute analysis for synthesis in verb-formation. It is perfectly true that only a very small percentage of these more than half a million forms are needed for practical use, or likely to be practically used. But they are there, and Schleyer counts his verb one of the glories of his invention. And we have not touched upon some important points in which we feel sure Volapük is in danger. In the attempt to squeeze varying idioms into this one mould, we think the mould is going to crack. At the same time we freely concede a great deal that admiring Volapükists claim for the language. One can learn to express himself in it with great rapidity. We have received a letter in Volapük written after two days' study; and any one who has travelled in a country with whose language he was only very slightly acquainted knows how slim a stock of words suffices for actual needs; so that Volapük may prove to be of great assistance, when its study shall have become widespread. We think that Schleyer has made an excellent beginning, and that his language may be made the starting-point of a very useful medium of communication. But the difficulties are not all solved yet, as we have perhaps succeeded in showing. As for Schleyer himself, with his vast learning, his prodigious talent for work, and his great poverty, we feel that he is a man deserving of our sincere respect and sympathy. We are not only anxious to see his language improved, but we respond with a hearty Amen! to the words with which, speaking of the inventor of Volapük, he concludes his preface to the seventh edition of his 'Mittlere Grammatik':

"Dar 'imel bésere sein ardenlòs!"

ADDISON HOGE.

THE CROFTERS' REVOLT.

LONDON, January 26, 1888.

"ANARCHY IN THE LEWES," "Civil War in the Hebrides," "Raising the Standard of Revolt in the Lewes," are sensational headings which have been appearing lately in the London papers. I wonder how many Americans know what and where the Lewes is. Until last summer it was to me barely a name. In England it is known to a few sportsmen, and to as few enterprising tourists sent there by Mr. Black's descriptions in the 'Princess of Thule.' Those of the Western Islands to which Dr. Johnson went on his famous journey are much more accessible than they were in his day; throughout the summer there are daily excursions to Iona, Staffa, and Mull, and to Skye. Steamers even run from the mainland to the Outer Hebrides so entirely for the benefit of sportsmen and tourists that their last consideration is the convenience of natives. But the number of travellers who go so far through Hebridean seas is small compared to that of the crowds who, during the season, daily overrun Iona and "do" the Cuchullins in Skye.

Lewes is the furthest north of the Outer Hebrides. As a rule, the papers, like the general public, ignore it. The late disturbances have forced it into prominence. The crofters and cottars marched upon one of the great deer forests of the island and drove the deer towards the sea. They destroyed the fences of a large sheep farm and scattered the sheep. Constables and marines were despatched from the mainland to put down the rebellion. The ringleaders were captured, brought to Edinburgh, and, to the surprise of everybody, acquitted. The agitation spread to other districts of Lewes, to Ross-shire, to Skye. As a reason for their lawlessness, the people declare starvation is staring them in the face. Naturally interest has been aroused in their condition. That it has not been exaggerated by them even the *Times* and the *Scotsman* admit. Destitution reigns throughout the Lewes, and calls for immediate and radical relief.

An official inquiry has been made into the matter. Commissioners have gone from district to district, from cottage to cottage. They have questioned the people and examined their land. The report of their visit published in the *Scotsman* and the *Times*, like that of the Royal Commissioners of 1883, is cruel beyond belief. An entire population on the verge of starvation; men, women, and children living under the same roof and often in the same room with their cattle; whole families sleeping in one bed, with but one blanket to cover them; children with no clothing but old meal bags; hundreds and more crowded together on the barrenest tracks of land; little patches of cultivated ground squeezed in between the great bare boulders lying on the hillsides—these are the things that were seen in the Lewes. The people are without food, or will be in a few weeks; without money or credit; without hope, save in Providence. The story told of Lewes is true as well of all the Western Islands, of the greater part of the Highlands. I was in the Lewes last summer, and in Harris and Mull and Skye, and many of the smaller islands; I travelled through Argyllshire and Inverness

on the mainland. I did not keep to the tourist routes, but went over roads and to places seldom visited by strangers. I never imagined that in a country supposed to be civilized there could be such human misery, such human degradation. I have seen for myself peasants in France and Italy, slaves at home. The life of the negro in the Southern States was one of luxury compared to that of the Western Islanders. The poor, half-starved *contadini* on the plain of Lombardy have not less to eat than the crofters and cottars of the Highlands. The shepherd on the Roman Campagna may be as rudely sheltered and as badly off for fuel; but with him it is summer, not winter, nine months of the year. The sun rarely shines in the Hebrides even in midsummer; scarce a day passes without rain.

The worst of it is that destitution is no new thing in the islands. One hundred years ago it moved Pennant to pity. Even Dr. Johnson, whose sympathies were all with the laird, was struck by it. A few years earlier the "extreme poverty, idleness, and distress of the people" had made such an impression upon a Mr. John Knox that he became one of the chief promoters of the British Fishery Company, whose object was to bring a new industry into the Islands and Western Highlands, and thus save the people from complete beggary. Forty years ago the *Scotsman* issued a series of letters from its reporter in the Hebrides, which, in the main, were much the same as the reports it has just published. There was at least one brief interval of prosperity, but while it greatly increased the rental of landlords, it left the small tenants or crofters no better off than they were before. Again and again the people would have died of hunger but for the charity of the outside world. Almost every year petitions come from their far northern home for the meal without which they cannot live through the long wet winter. For the last 150 years life in the Highlands has been one long bitter struggle, not of clan against clan, but of an entire people against hunger and want.

When the causes for the present destitution are sought, landlords are ready with their explanation: the Highlands are over-populated; the fisheries for the last two seasons have been failures; the soil is naturally sterile. The people, on the other hand, declare that only certain districts are over-populated. This is true; you can walk for miles through the Highlands and Islands and see nothing but moorland. Since the beginning of the century the Highlands have been made into a desert for deer and grouse. Men and women and children have been driven from many hills and glens to make way for game; from others, to make way for sheep. They have been crowded together on the shores of certain lochs and of the sea, and then blamed for dividing and subdividing their crofts. It is principally against this injustice they are now rebelling. If the men of the Lewes are accused of lawlessness, it must be remembered that they first tried to improve their condition by peaceable means. They sent a deputation to Lady Mathieson, their landlord, and petitioned her for more land. Her answer was one which finds favor among Scotch and Irish landlords: the land was hers, they had nothing to do with it. In the Highlands human beings are of less value than beasts and birds. Occasionally, when their misery is at its worst, their landlord gives them meal or blankets or seed, and abroad is praised for his charity. He spends thousands on building roads and harbors that add to his own comfort, and his philanthropy is extolled far and wide. But if the crofter's miserable cottage and patch of ground interfered with the same landlord's sport, the crofter was evicted, no matter how faithfully he had paid his rent, how carefully he and his father before him had worked his tiny farm. For years the crofter might pay road taxes, and not even a path was made to his township so long as there was question only of his and his fellow-crofters' convenience. Fishermen might land their boats as best they could; if their wants alone had been considered, the Islands would still be without a pier or a harbor. Until within the last few years everything has been done for the landlords, absolutely nothing for the people.

As for the alleged sterility of the soil, so high an authority as the Duke of Argyll has said that the soil of the Highlands is not naturally barren. The large farms and the laird's cultivated fields prove that he is right. As a rule, the poorest land has fallen to the share of the crofters, and crofts are so small that they have long since been overworked. Of course, there is always a chance of bad seasons. But with more and better land the crofters' harvest every year would not be starvation. It is the same with the fisheries. There are artificial as well as natural reasons for their failure. The fishermen are without boats for deep-sea fishing, without piers and harbors. Only the other day a practical example of their needs was given, when the forces sent to quell the disturbances in a fishing township of the Lewes were obliged to land ten miles off, for want of a harbor.

Through long years of oppression and misery the people have preserved their independence of spirit and natural shrewdness. To-day their landlords tell them their only hope is in emigration. The people's answer is, that until the land at home is cultivated, there is no reason for them to go into a strange country. When the Highlands are fully populated, then it will be time to think of emigration for their sons and daughters. The fact is, the late agitation in the Highlands is but an outcome of the same land war which is raging in Ireland, Wales, and England. The Crofters' Bill of 1886, with its many concessions to the crofters, the visit of the Royal Commissioners, with its enormous reduction of rents and cancelling of arrears, show which side is armed with justice. The Irish have never been so pitilessly rack-rented as the Highland crofters. For years the latter have been burdened with excessive rents and heavy taxes; they have had no fixity of tenure, no chance of redress; they have been the slaves of their landlord and his factor. They have seen their land laid waste and their kinsmen banished. The past oppression is the true explanation of the present sufferings. Charity may tide over the immediate need of the crofters, but until every clause of the Bill of 1886 is enforced, and new and more comprehensive bills are passed; until landlords cease to be slave-drivers, and Highlanders are, for the first time in history, free men—there will be heard the same cry of destitution in the Lewes and throughout the Highlands. N. N.

CARDUCCI AND DANTE.

ALASSIO, January 25, 1888.

LAST year the Italian Government decided to found, in the University of Rome, a professorship of Dante exegesis, in addition to those which had existed for many hundred years in some of the provincial universities. The debates in Parliament showed that the idea of the founders was a political one, and that while this chair was intended to be the highest official literary position in Italy, it was at the same time to be a permanent protest against the claims of the Papacy to temporal power. With the immediate and unanimous applause of the whole country the appointment was given to Giosuè Carducci, not only because his anti-papal feelings were well known, but because—*pace* Mr. Howells—he is the greatest poet of modern Italy, and at the same time (strange as it may seem) the greatest literary critic. At Bologna, where for many years Carducci has filled the chair of Italian Literature, and where he is the centre of a circle of poets and literary men who have great influence in Italy, strong objections were made to his departure, not only by the University, but also by the inhabitants and the municipal government. For a long time he seemed to hesitate, partly attracted by the position itself and the residence in the capital, partly kept back by the entreaties of his friends; but chiefly because the ideas which he had received after thirty years' study of Dante were different from those of the founders of the chair. He believed that Dante should be treated from the point of view of art, and not from that of contemporary politics. He therefore finally refused it. But the same reasons did not hold when it was decided to put the professorship for a while into commission, and ask four leading Dante scholars to give short courses during the present year. While the others accepted, the Senator Francesco Perez not only refused, but wrote a very foolish letter to justify his refusal, on the ground that, as the author of 'La Beatrice Svelata,' he should have been offered the post originally.

The first lecture of the course was given by Carducci on the 8th of January—"The Work of Dante." As might have been expected, occasion was taken to make a political demonstration, for Carducci was well known as a Republican by conviction (although he does not always carry his doctrines into his poems) and as a free-thinker. In the present delicate relations between the State and the Church almost anything may warrant a demonstration in the eyes of ultra patriots; and even the blindest could see that Dante was a determined opponent of the temporal power of the Popes. Ardent patriots in this century, from Balbo to Mazzini, twisting the meaning of Dante's words, had made his name the watchword in the struggle for Italian unity, although they might as well have chosen Sordello. The real claim of Petrarch, the great seer into the future, was forgotten. To such an extent was this carried that a great critic was able to write:

"Dante had a strange destiny. He was a Monarchist, and has been made out a Republican; he was a Catholic, and has been made out a Protestant; he was a Virgilian, and has been made out a Romanticist; he wanted the German Empire, and has done more than any one else to found the Italian nationality. The Italians treated him as he treated Virgil: they have taken him as a guide, and have constrained him to march in front of them."

This was, perhaps, allowable during the period of struggle, but it is time to restore Dante to the pure atmosphere of art. So Carducci thought when he felt obliged to refuse a professorship founded for political reasons, and so he found himself obliged to say in a strong passage of his discourse.

He had explained his views with regard to Dante in some essays published as long ago as 1874, and his state of feeling may be seen from one of his best sonnets in his latest volume, the spirit of which may perhaps be given even in an unrhymed version:

"Dante, whence comes it that my vows and voice,
Adoring thy proud lineaments, I raise;
That o'er thy verse, which made thee lean and wan,
The sun may set, the new dawn find me still?

For me Lucia prays not, nor prepares
For me Matilda fair the saving bath;
And Beatricë with her sacred love
In vain ascends to God from star to star.
I hate thy Holy Empire; with my sword
I should have thrust the crown from off the head
Of thy good Frederick in Olona's vale.
O'er Church and Empire, both now ruins sad,
Thy song soars up, and high in heaven resounds—
Though Jove may die, the poet's hymn remains."

Carducci thus began his discourse:

"From the rock where a few ruins on the surface of the soil show us the site of Canossa, from this white, bare, and lonely rock, enlivened neither by shades of groves, nor songs of birds, nor murmur of falling water, if we look about to mountain and valley, we perceive on one side a spur of the Apennines, the rock of Bismantua which Dante once climbed; on the other, in the pleasant Emilia, between Enza and Parma, the waste of Selva Piana, where the most beautiful *canzoni* of Petrarch were written; far off on another side Reggio, happy sojourn in youth of Ariosto; and, lower down towards the Po, Guastalla, the courtesy of whose princes lightened the sadness of Tasso. We cannot help thinking that it was not without some sort of fate that these memories of the poetic glory of Italy were collected around the rock and on the plain where the rupture between the Church and the Empire seemed to have the air of a fatal drama, the rupture from which came the liberty of the communes, that force of the Italian people which flowered in the arts and in poetry. . . . Papacy and Empire, their discord and their power, were passing away when Dante was born—Dante who does not pass away."

Carducci then goes on to relate in detail the characteristics of the period in which Dante lived; the expiring efforts of the Empire; the struggle of the Papacy under Boniface VIII. to become imperial, and the subsequent captivity of Avignon; the decline of chivalric poetry, French, Provençal, and German; the appearance of the two great Catholic theologians, St. Thomas Aquinas and St. Bonaventura, and of new saints like St. Francis of Assisi; the building of churches in Florence and elsewhere dedicated to the Virgin; the popular movements in Florence, and the rise of Italian tyrannies.

Here the lecturer, speaking of these memories of the victory of the popular party, of the spirits excited by liberty, of the pride of the citizens of the Free Towns desirous to vie with the knights, compares the state of Italy with that of Europe after 1815 in the era of Romanticism. There were the same disappointed hopes, the same reaction against the brutal reign of force and against carnal and material philosophic theories. There was a revival of spiritual religion, of the arts, especially of painting, and of poetry, particularly of the "dolce stilo nuovo," of which Dante was the greatest exemplar.

When the romanticism of Dante had finished with the 'Vita Nuova,' he became the first lay philosopher of the Italian people in the 'Convito,' "the importance of which for the history of culture is, that a layman dared bring philosophy from the religious schools and introduce it into civil life; the value for the history of thought, both of the poet and of Italy, lying in the fact that Dante brought into science his own conscience and a civic enthusiasm, and to impersonal scholastics, a dead thing, gave his eloquence, sometimes magnificent and solemn like his thought, at others ingenuous and sincere like his passion." Although the philosophy of the 'Convito' is in general theological, yet with Dante, as with the Greeks, philosophy is the loving use of wisdom; he, however, like the Romans, preferring the practical part—the moral and historical lessons:

"Depending from the 'Convito' are the treatises on Vulgar Eloquence and Monarchy, in which moral philosophy, applied to language, becomes poetics according to the theories of the Middle Ages; and according to these, as well as to the theories of the Greeks, when applied to affairs of state becomes politics."

Man has two loves, one temporal and one spiritual; for complete happiness in both he needs two guides and leaders—the State, or, according to Dante's idea, the Empire, and the Church. The Empire, he thought, had been established and recognized by God, inasmuch as Christ had not only humiliated himself to be born of Humanity, but had subjected himself to the census of Augustus, and submitted to death by the judgment of Pontius Pilate. This same theory of a dual government, temporal and spiritual, may be seen running through the 'Divina Commedia.' It is impossible to deny the grandeur of this ideal conception of the peace of the world in an alliance of Christian states under the presidency of the Emperor; but it is difficult to see in it more than the vision of a great poet dwelling longingly on the ideals of the past, as Homer did on those of heroic Greece.

"In any case, there is no need to seek in the monarchical maxims of Dante a beginning of Italian unity, except so far as it might be comprised in the unity of Christendom. The love of country and the national idea flame out in the poet's deep feeling of the glories and miseries of Italy, in his feeling of the Empire as a Roman Institution, as the Italian law and constitution. . . . The 'Monarchia' is the final scholastic expression of mediæval political classicism; and to seek there for what is now called the pagan or atheist state would be an injustice to Dante, according to his ideas. But let us boast—and that is no small thing—let us sincerely and surely boast, that Dante is our master and father in the preservation of the Roman tradition for the renewal of Italy, that he was the purest and most tremendous judge and witness for centuries of the bad government of Churchmen, and of the moral necessity for a change. This he did as poet. For Dante was above all things a very great poet—a great poet because he was a great man, and a great man because he had a great and heroic conscience."

All that the poet had previously written or thought or done was summed up in the 'Divina Commedia,' which was composed between the death of Beatrice and that of Henry VII. It is a representation of the last vision of the 'Vita Nuova,' the working of the moral and allegorical system of the 'Convito,' the glorification of the 'Vulgar Eloquence,' and the consecration of the 'Monarchy.' In the verses of the *dolce stilo nuovo*, Dante addressed himself to those faithful in love; in the 'Convito' to the lords of Italy; in the Latin treatises to clerks and doctors; in the 'Commedia' the poet sings to the whole people, and to all peoples.

"Its chief characters are three—Dante, Virgil, and Beatrice. The action is the present active moral and intellectual world, reflected and realized with unmeasured power of fancy on the stage of the future life, where thought has no limits except those that a creative poet with a harmonious mind chooses to set. Beatrice proceeds from the 'Vita Nuova' and from knightly and mystic poetry; but in the vision at the summit of Purgatory the cult of woman becomes apotheosis, and Beatrice transfigured is the supreme representation of the civilization of the Middle Ages. Virgil proceeds from the classic doctrine of the 'Convito'; he is no longer the magician of the Middle Ages, nor even the poet of the schools—he has become the representative of ancient civilization. Between antiquity and the Middle Ages, between Virgil and Beatrice, Dante is man, mankind, who passes with all his passions—who loves and hates, errs and falls, repents and rises, and, purged and regenerated, is worthy of mounting to the perfection of being."

So close is Carducci's argument, so powerful his style, that it would be impossible to represent the rest of his analysis of the great poem except in a careful translation. One of the concluding passages of the lecture, with reference to the inherited character of the poet, deserves to be cited:

"The lineaments of Dante's face bear witness to his Etruscan type, that type which still obstinately endures throughout all Tuscany, mixing with the Roman type and overpowering it. He boasted himself to be of Roman blood; and his representing his family as an old Florentine one, without titles of nobility, coming from great landed proprietors, and, up to a certain point, without names derived from a foreign tongue, makes it credible that there should be a continuous descent of country people in cities and regions less affected by Germanic intermixture. But Germanic blood happened to run in his veins from that lady who came to Cacciaguida from the Allighieri of Ferrara, of an ancient noble family in a city renewed by Longobard stocks, and which gave to her descendants a name of German origin. Thus to the artistic working out of the Christian vision Allighieri brought the character of mystery from beyond the tombs, from a sacerdotal race which seemed to have lived through tombs and in tombs, the Etruscan race; his straightforwardness and tenacity to life from a great civil race, the Roman, whose poetry was its *jus;* his audacious freshness and frankness from a new warrior's race, the German."

E. S.

Correspondence.

INTERCOLLEGIATE SPORTS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Beyond question, the friends and patrons of Harvard University most heartily endorse your comments upon President Eliot's report, especially your condemnation of intercollegiate athletic contests, and your expressed hope that the government of that institution will, without delay, take the lead in discontinuing them. Harvard can afford to do this, and, whatever other colleges may do, she will gain in students, in scholarship and usefulness.

Apropos of this. The other evening there happened to be present together here several persons, some of them old Harvard graduates, who were discussing the present status and tendency of Harvard student life, and its influence upon the future usefulness of her alumni. Much feeling was exhibited and surprise expressed at the timidity or supineness shown in dealing with this acknowledged and serious evil, which compels parents who have knowledge on this subject, and take an intelligent interest in the welfare of their sons, to choose some of the smaller colleges for their education, much as they would prefer Harvard on account of the better facilities and the more liberal and rational system of elective studies obtaining there.

H S.

Washington, D. C., February 13, 1888.

A SMALLER BLAIR EDUCATIONAL ACT WANTED.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Will you let me call your attention and that of your readers to a state of affairs which demands the action of Congress, and in the meantime the notice of the charitably disposed? It presents a legitimate field of action for a "small educational bill" for a small section of the South on the part of the general Government, and one concerning which there seems to the writer no reasonable objection that can be offered.

The Navy-yard at Pensacola, Florida, now virtually closed, is situated upon a tract of land known as the Naval Reservation, belonging to the general Government, and including in its entire limits an area of over 4,000 acres. There is living upon this tract a population of nearly 1,500 souls, tenants at the will of the Government, with few exceptions wretchedly poor, and with over 400 children, of the proper

age for school, about equally divided between whites and blacks. For these children no school facilities exist. The parents are too poor to afford any teachers, the State of Florida has no jurisdiction over the districts (the inhabitants not being legally citizens of the State), and the Navy Department has no funds that can be used for this purpose. The larger majority of the younger married people have grown up without school advantages, and are deplorably ignorant and helpless. The people are attached to their homes, and will not willingly move, and their occupations as pilots, fishermen, and occasional laborers at the Navy-yard and elsewhere afford them no more than a bare existence.

The Bureau of Education has no funds at its disposal for any such purpose, and there seems no relief possible unless Congress acts. A bill is to be introduced for the purpose of making a provision of facilities for elementary education; and in the meantime a school-room can be temporarily arranged at the Navy-yard, if donations can be given for the pay of teachers and provision of books. Any donations sent to Surgeon J. W. Ross, U. S. N., at the Navy-yard, Pensacola, Fla., will be properly applied for this purpose. C. H. S.

WASHINGTON, D. C., February 9, 1888.

THE BACK-TRACK IN EDUCATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The world does move backward sometimes and in some places, and here we have a specimen in the shutting of the doors of Adelbert College to women. Women had enjoyed the privileges of the institution for some fifteen years. They had proved themselves equal in all respects to the men, and, if we may judge from the number of honors they have taken, their scholarship has been of a much higher average. They must have enjoyed better health than the men, as their absences from college exercises have averaged rather less than half as many as those of the men, it is said. There have been no flirtations, no giddiness, no nonsense of any sort on their part. The women have been of the highest character, from excellent families, who went to college because they desired to study and to know. They had come to be well treated by their fellow-students, and it is thought that it would never have been otherwise had not the Faculty, by their obvious hostility to the women, set the men against them for a time in 1884, so that their situation was made very uncomfortable for a year or so. But this had passed away, and everything was going well with them.

The President of the College through whose agency the women had been first admitted, and who had been their firm friend, resigned in 1886, and the trustees had accomplished nothing in eighteen months towards filling his place. They claimed that the presence of women in the college made it impossible for them to secure any fit man for the presidency. No doubt this did embarrass them. They had two embarrassments, in fact, either of which might well have appalled very able and brave men. It had been repeatedly given out in the newspapers, and in private conversation by the trustees, that the trustees were determined that the new President must be a distinguished political economist who would teach the *doctrine of high protection to American industry*. That was embarrassment number 1. The new President must also be a *man who would turn out the women*—embarrassment number 2.

One would think it would be hard to find a capable man who would unite these two qualifications. But they found their man at last in the person of a Presbyterian clergyman of the city of thirty years' standing. Neither the trustees nor the President had condescended to offer any argument in favor of turning out the women. In 1884, when the Faculty memorialized the trustees in favor of this measure, the trustees appointed an able committee who scoured the whole country for facts, opinions, and testimonies on the subject. The result was a strong report and a strong vote in favor of continuing the privileges of the College to women. Not an argument was then urged from any quarter for turning out women which would receive a moment's consideration from any intelligent man. The only things which looked like arguments were, that there were some passages in Greek and Roman writers which the professors felt embarrassed in reading before women, and that there was danger that so many women would come that the men would be scared away, and Adelbert would become a woman's college. But it did not require even such arguments to enable the changed Board of Trustees and their new President to go ahead with their scheme.

Cleveland has upwards of two millions of dollars invested in higher education in Adelbert College and Case School of Applied Science. But no woman may longer receive any benefit from these endowments, though there are less than a hundred men in the two schools. A LOOKER-ON.

CLEVELAND, O., February 4, 1888.

CASES IN POINT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your correspondent "C. C. N." (Feb. 2, 1888, p. 93) calls for "instances where the observing faculty of Darwin brought him false information." Well, "C. C. N." himself claims that Mr. Darwin's observation of the effect that classical education had on his observing and reasoning faculties brought him false information.

"C. C. N." asks, "Who is that naturalist, philosopher, or scientist, who, having been trained in early life by means of a scientific or optional system of education, developed in after life a better working mind than Mr. Darwin's?" In the same number of the *Nation* in which this inquiry is made appears a lengthy estimate of the life and work of Prof. Asa Gray, who, while perhaps not possessing a "better working mind than Mr. Darwin," is yet a sufficiently good example of non-classical education to satisfy those who do not believe that a classical training is positively necessary in order that a person may become a close observer, a correct reasoner, and a clear and forcible writer.

Respectfully, E. G. S.

ALBANY, February 13, 1888.

REDEEM THE GREENBACKS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Of the many methods proposed for disposing of the Treasury surplus, none seem to me so entirely satisfactory for present purposes as would be the final redemption and cancellation of the unsecured paper currency of the country. The withdrawal of the Government notes would at this time create no contraction of the currency, as every dollar redeemed would be replaced by a coin dollar otherwise lying idle in the Government vaults. If it be objected that the people prefer the convenience of the paper currency, answer can be made that instead of issuing the actual coin in redemption of the greenbacks, silver certificates could be used. The redemption of the greenback currency would be one step towards the simplifying of our monetary system, which is now unnecessarily complicated; and, with these notes out of the way, the Government credit would be much stronger in the event of its again becoming a borrower.

As the *Nation* has not, I think, advocated this course, I presume there are objections to it which I believe its readers would be glad to learn.—Very respectfully, "PENMAN."

PHILADELPHIA, January 30, 1888.

[Secretary Manning recommended this disposition of the Treasury surplus in one of his annual reports. One hundred millions of gold is held as a reserve against $350,000,000 of greenbacks. Consequently there would not be a coin dollar for every greenback dollar redeemed. But in course of time there would be a specie certificate, gold or silver, in circulation for every greenback returned, or, at all events, as many as the business of the country should call for.—ED. NATION]

WAGES VS. PRICES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In to-day's Philadelphia *Press* I find the following extract from the St. Louis *Globe-Democrat*:

"A statement of the relative wages paid in a woollen mill employing 221 hands in Providence, R. I., and a mill of the same kind and size in Bradford, England, shows over 100 per cent. in favor of the American operatives. It is by such figures as these that the arguments of the free-traders in this country are easily and conclusively refuted."

Is it necessary to say that the mere comparison of wages in the United States with wages paid in Great Britain and other countries, without a knowledge of the purchasing power of such wages, but lead astray those interested in the comparison? As Great Britain obtains beef, bread, cotton, etc., from this country, and yet retails the same at less cost to her working people than the working people in this country can obtain them, why not give the prices paid for them in London, Boston, New York, Philadelphia, etc., and thus enable the great body of voters to intelligently decide for themselves whether their interests lie in an exorbitant tariff tax or a safe and fair inducement for the employment of capital in manufactures, etc., and not be led astray by the cry of pauper labor in Europe?—Respectfully yours,

WAGES.

BETHLEHEM, PA., February 10, 1888.

POST-REVOLUTIONARY MOVEMENT OF SLAVES SOUTHWARD.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your paper of January 26, p. 75, in criticising a letter from Washington on the condition of our negro population, which appeared in the *Frankfurter Zeitung* of December 24, 1887, some of your statements are incorrect. The correspondent writes "that the civil war was a struggle between the sons of slave-owners and the planters to whom their fathers had sold their dark commodities." In commenting on the above and following passage, you wrote:

"This is a corollary to the misleading statement that 'in 1790 the negroes were distributed throughout the country, and were almost exclusively slaves,' but that 'during the first quarter of the century the inhabitants of the Northern States gradually sold their slaves to the South, where climate and the nature of the agricultural products increased the value of negro labor'—all of which sounds as if this countryman of Von Holst had drawn his facts from the pro-slavery pamphlets of Buchanan's Administration. The results of his observation, however, are better than those of his reading."

After quite a thorough study of this question

a few years ago, I came to the conclusion that there had been such a trade in negroes, and that it was known to exist by the people at the North during the period of gradual emancipation. For example, in the Philadelphia *Union* of August 7, 1818, I found the following:

"SLAVE TRADE.—The brig *Bliss*, Captain French, with 39 human beings on board doomed to abject and ignominious slavery, left Perth Amboy on Saturday morning at daylight. It is understood that they will be landed above New Orleans, near Baton Rouge, at a plantation belonging. . . . The citizens of Perth Amboy and New Brunswick ought not to have permitted this shocking trade in their vicinity."

In *Niles' Register*, February 8, 1817:

"Some inhuman speculator at New York has disburthened the prison of that city of 70 or 80 negroes by procuring their imprisonment to be commuted for transportation. . . . The corporation has very properly ordered the vessel containing this gang of thieves to proceed without the limits of the city."—*New Orleans Paper.*

In Court of Errors of New Jersey, 2 Halsted Reports, case of Gibbons vs. Morse, November Term, 1821—testimony of Richard Adams: ". . . that Wm. Stone was engaged in purchasing negroes that season; . . . saw near 50 negroes on board vessel at South Amboy . . . Van Ort also purchasing blacks; . . . they were with the negroes that were destined for New Orleans; that John C. Marsh also was engaged in buying negroes, . . . there were two or three cargoes of negroes sent off that season."

It was charged in the case of the *Mary Ann*, 8th Wheaton, p. 380, Supreme Court of the United States, that the vessel had 36 negroes on board from New York and Perth Amboy for New Orleans. This case was decided on the pleadings.

The following extract is from a letter of a member of the New Jersey Legislature to a clergyman in Baltimore, printed in the Baltimore *American* of November 11, 1818:

"NEW BRUNSWICK, Nov. 7th, 1818.

"DEAR SIR: I am here on my way home from attending the Legislature, which have passed a bill to stop the inhuman traffic in colored persons from this State. There were 14 or 15 of these unhappy blacks at South Amboy which the villains could not get off by water in time to escape the new law, but, having notice of it, they took them in waggons across the State towards Pennsylvania with a view to get them to Maryland."

But even more convincing than these concrete cases are the expressions of the Legislatures of the different States. In 1786, in Vermont, there was passed an act entitled "an act to prevent the sale and transportation of negroes and mulattoes out of this State." The seventh section of the Rhode Island act of 1798 is: "Courts may allow unfaithful slaves to be transported to any part of the United States." New York in 1788, 1802, 1808, 1817, and 1819, and New Jersey in 1798, 1812, 1818-'19, 1820, passed laws against the sale of negroes out of their boundaries. If these laws had not been violated, there would have been no necessity for changing them.

Proof that quite a number of negroes were exported from the North is also found in the United States census reports. Take New York:

In 1790 total colored population was	25,978
In 1800 " " "	31,320
In 1810 " " "	40,350
In 1820 " " "	39,367
In 1830 " " "	44,945

Why was there an actual decrease of 2½ per cent. for the decade 1810-1820, when for the ten years preceding there had been an increase of 35 per cent.? That the New York negroes did not go to the other Northern States is evident from the following table:

In 1790 total colored pop'n in Northern States...	66,957
In 1800 " " " "	82,248
In 1810 " " " "	101,268
In 1820 " " " "	109,795
In 1830 " " " "	109,773

Free negroes were prohibited from entering the Southern States. They could not have gone to Hayti, Liberia, or Upper Canada, for these colonizing enterprises were not at that time in operation. The Western States had but a handful of negroes, and these probably came from Virginia. To the South, then, several thousand negroes must have gone as slaves.

LEIGH BONSAL.

BALTIMORE, February 3, 1888.

[The evidence adduced by our correspondent is interesting, but it seems to relieve the people of the North as a whole of the charge intimated by the correspondent of the Frankfort *Gazette*. It shows, what might have been expected, that gradual emancipation offered a great temptation to speculators to profit by the higher market in the adjoining slave section; but also that this traffic, made easy near tide-water, had to be carried on surreptitiously and under the ban of public opinion, and was restrained up to the last moment by successive statutes in token of the good faith of the emancipation acts. As for the United States census statistics concerning the blacks under our slaveholding régime, we regard them as worthless in a discussion of this kind.—ED. NATION.]

DONNELLY ANTICIPATED.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As the announcement is made that Mr. Donnelly's long-expected book is soon to appear, we shall doubtless very soon see the sprouting of a plentiful crop of decipherers; indeed, the rage for elucidating mysteries that do not exist, and for finding literary mare's-nests, may threaten the popularity of Buddhism and Browningitism. As a promising subject on which the novice in deciphering might try his eyes, let me recommend 'A Tale of a Tub,' in which Swift, foreseeing the possibility of Donnellys in the future, has actually given this clue to them. I wonder that the passage has not been quoted before:

"Night being the universal mother of things, wise philosophers hold all writings to be fruitful in proportion that they are dark; and, therefore, the true illuminated (that is to say, the darkest of all) have met with such numberless commentators, whose scholastic midwifery has delivered them of meanings that the authors themselves never conceived, and yet may very justly be allowed the lawful parents of them; the words of such writers being like seed, which, however scattered at random, when they light upon a fruitful ground, will multiply far beyond either the hopes or imagination of the sower.

"And, therefore, in order to promote so useful a work, I will here take leave to glance a few innuendoes that may be of great assistance to those sublime spirits who shall be appointed to labor in a universal comment upon this wonderful discourse. And, first, I have couched a very profound mystery in the number of 0's multiplied by seven and divided by nine. Also, if a devout brother of the rosy cross will pray fervently for sixty-three mornings, with a lively faith, and then transpose certain letters and syllables, according to prescription, in the second and fifth section, they will certainly reveal into a full receipt of the *opus magnum*. Lastly, whoever will be at the pains to calculate the whole number of each letter in this treatise, and sum up the difference exactly between the several numbers, assigning the true natural cause for every such difference, the discoveries in the product will plentifully reward his labor." (A Tale of a Tub, section x.)

Swift discloses so much of the secret that an adept decipherer like Mr. Donnelly will not condescend to so simple a puzzle; but it is to be hoped that some of his callow disciples will work it out. Then by easy stages they can pass up to higher achievements, such as proving that Galileo wrote the 'Divine Comedy,' or Darwin 'In Memoriam.'

WILLIAM R. THAYER.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., February 6, 1888.

DR. SPARKS AND THE WASHINGTON LETTERS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your last issue (p. 117) refers to an article by Mr. W. H. Smith in the *Magazine of American History*. In this article he gives examples, to borrow your words, of "the sickening way in which Jared Sparks tampered with Washington's private letters." These examples are drawn from the correspondence of Washington with Col. Bouquet, which forms one of the numerous volumes of the Bouquet and Haldimand collection of manuscripts in the British Museum. Some years ago I had the whole of this volume carefully copied, and gave the copy to the Massachusetts Historical Society, in whose library it now is. I had previously collated the letters with the letters purporting to be the same, published by Dr. Sparks. Great differences appeared, but it seemed to me evident that they were not in general due to changes made by the editor. The letters in the British Museum are in Washington's own handwriting. Dr. Sparks could never have seen them. It was not till long after the publication of his 'Writings of Washington' that the Bouquet and Haldimand papers, hitherto unknown, were discovered and purchased for the British Museum by its agent, the late Henry Stevens of Vermont. Dr. Sparks must have printed the letters, not from the autographs, but from drafts entered by a secretary in Washington's letter books.

Dr. Sparks says in his preface: "It was Washington's custom in all his letters of importance first to write drafts, which he transcribed. In making the transcripts he sometimes deviated from the drafts, omitting, inserting, and altering parts of sentences; nor did he always correct the drafts so as to make them accord with the letters as sent to his correspondents. These imperfect drafts were laid aside and from time to time copied by an amanuensis into the letter-books. . . . For the reasons here mentioned, it is probable that the printed text may not in every particular be the same as in the originals—that is, the corrected copies which were sent to his correspondents." He adds that this is especially true of Washington's earlier private letters, including those written during the French war. In this category are the letters to Bouquet.

It is true that the above does not explain all the variations from the original which may be found in Dr. Sparks's edition of the 'Writings of Washington.' He was the most scrupulous of men, but, as an editor, he fell into serious errors of judgment, due largely to the fact that when his work was in preparation the functions of the editor of historical documents were ill-defined, and notions of his duties were entertained widely different from those which happily prevail now. Dr. Sparks, too, had views of his own touching his duties and responsibilities. He once told me that in publishing Washington's letters he felt himself bound to correct their errors and put them into the form in which the writer himself would have wished that they should appear before the public. He was convinced that he ought to suppress anything that was ungrammatical, undignified, or

in any way ill suited for publicity. So, for example, when Washington wrote "Old Put," he made him write "Gen. Putnam." Nobody will now deny that these changes were most unfortunate, but nobody who knew Dr. Sparks will doubt for a moment that, mistaken as they are, they were made in the most conscientious good faith. FRANCIS PARKMAN.

BOSTON, February 11.

Notes.

'TAXATION IN AMERICAN STATES AND CITIES' is the title of a work to appear next month from the press of T. Y. Crowell & Co. The author is Prof. Richard T. Ely of Johns Hopkins, a member of the Maryland Tax Commission.

'Harvard Reminiscences,' by the Rev. Andrew P. Peabody; 'On Society, Literature, and Politics,' essays by the late E. P. Whipple; and 'The World's Verdict,' a novel by Mark Hopkins, jr., will be published directly by Ticknor & Co., Boston.

G. P. Putnam's Sons announce 'The History of the Town of Fairfield, Conn.,' by Elizabeth H. Schenck; 'The Story of the City of New York,' by Charles Burr Todd; 'The Story of the Thirteen States,' by Helen Ainslie Smith; 'The Story of Holland,' by J. E. Thorold Rogers; 'Charles Sumner and his Work,' by his former private secretary, A. B. Johnson; 'Hints from a Lawyer; or, Legal Advice to Men and Women,' by Edgar A. Spencer; 'A Hard-Won Victory,' by Grace Denio Litchfield; and 'Lajla,' a story from the Norse, translated by Ingerid Markhus.

'Judith,' an Old English epic fragment, edited by Prof. Albert S. Cook; and Schiller's Ballads, edited by Prof. Henry Johnson, with variants and notes, the text based on Goedeke's, will be published by D. C. Heath & Co., Boston.

Ginn & Co. issue immediately 'An Epitome of Anatomy, Physiology, and Hygiene,' including the effects of alcohol and tobacco, by H. H. Culver; and 'The Modern Distributive Process: Studies of Competition and its Limits, of the Nature and Amount of Profits, and of the Determination of Wages in the Industrial Society of To-day,' by John B. Clark and Franklin H. Giddings.

J. B. Lippincott Co. have in press 'Stanley's Expedition for the Relief of Emin Pasha,' compiled from his letters by M. Wauters; 'Half-Hours with the Best Foreign Authors,' in four volumes, by Charles Morris; 'The Merchant of Venice,' being the seventh volume in Horace Howard Furness's Variorum Edition of Shakspere; a 'Cyclopædia of Diseases of Children, and their Treatment, Medical and Surgical,' by Dr. J. M. Keating; 'Pleasant Waters,' a story of Southern life and character, by Graham Clayton; and 'Over the Divide, and Other Verses,' by Marion Manville.

A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago, have in press for early publication 'Witnesses to Christ; a Contribution to Christian Apologetics,' by William Clark, M.A., Professor of Philosophy in Trinity College, Toronto.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. announce the next issue in their series of "American Statesmen" to be Mr. Roosevelt's volume on Gouverneur Morris. They have also in preparation a 'Life of Amos A. Lawrence,' by his son, the Rev. William Lawrence; and 'Reincarnation,' by E. D. Walker, who treats in a popular way the doctrine of metempsychosis.

'Black Ice,' by Judge Tourgée, will shortly be issued by Fords, Howard & Hulbert.

There are, either in the press or in the course of preparation, a number of important works on Africa by English, French, and German authors. Among the latter are the following to be published by Brockhaus: 'In the Interior of Africa, or Explorations of the Kassai during the Years 1883-85,' by Wissmann, Wolf, Von François and Mueller; 'The Exploration of the Tschuapa and Lulongo,' by Kurt von François, in which are related his journeys with the Rev. Mr. Grenfell; and 'The Sudan under Egyptian Rule,' with an Appendix containing letters of Emin Pasha and Lupton Bey to Wilhelm Junker during the years 1883-85. This last, edited by Dr. Richard Buchta, forms a supplement to 'Emin Pasha's Letters,' also to be published by Brockhaus, and to which we have already referred in these columns.

The February list of Wilhelm Friedrich, Leipzig, includes 'El Dorado,' by F. A. Junker von Langegg, a history of gold-seeking in northern South America in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries; 'Tunis und seine Umgebungen,' by Schrenck-Notzing and Dr. Kleist; 'Die Andessprachen in ihrem Zusammenhange mit dem semitischen Sprachstamme,' by Prof. Rudolf Falb; the second volume of Schweitzer's 'Geschichte der Skandinavischen Litteratur;' a metrical version of the complete works of the Russian poet Nekrasoff; 'Goethe's Werther in Frankreich,' by Ferdinand Gross; 'Psychologische Studien zur Sprachgeschichte,' by Dr. Kurt Bruchmann, in intimate relation to which is Dr. Rudolf Kleinpaul's 'Sprache ohne Worte'; 'Die Spartanische Verfassung bei Xenophon,' by Dr. Bruno Fleischanderl; 'Das Verhältniss des Neugriechischen zu den Romanischen Sprachen,' by Hans Müller; and 'Hellenisch, die allgemeine Gelehrtensprache der Zukunft,' by Dr. August Boltz—a recommendation of Greek as a savants' world-language.

Volapük is making steady progress, though not so great as some of its more ardent promoters would lead us to believe. At the annual meeting of the French association for its propagation, the secretary stated that in his opinion the number of disciples should not be reckoned at more than 40,000, which is about the number of dictionaries sold. It has been placed as high as 200,000. Some French, German, and Italian business houses put at the head of their letters "Spodobs Volapüko" (we correspond in Volapük), but none of the great houses have yet done this. The language has now 13 journals and 172 societies, an increase of 67 during the year, while public courses of instruction are given in such widely separated places as Tiflis in the Caucasus and Salt Lake City, as well as in the universities of Munich and New Orleans. An Arabic grammar and a Japanese dictionary in Volapük are about to be published. Out of 181 students who applied for examination in December, 116 took the diploma *Spodal* (*correspondant volapükiste*). An *Annuaire Général* of Volapükists will be published as soon as 20,000 addresses have been received, the number now being nearly 15,000. The President's address closed with the announcement that a great international congress was to be held in Paris in 1889, and that a Volapükaleür, or Bureau of Information, had already been opened in the Boulevard Montmartre.

A French version of Mrs. Burnett's 'Little Lord Fauntleroy,' called 'Le Petit Lord,' by Eudoxie Dupuis, has recently been published in Paris with Mr. Birch's original illustrations. As the French law makes no distinction of persons, allowing copyright to a foreigner as to a native, it would be well for all writers of juvenile books to secure themselves in France.

The eclectic translation of Hugo's poems has been followed in Bohn's Library by the 'Dramatic Works of Victor Hugo,' translated by Frederick L. Slous and Mrs. Newton Crosland (London: Bell; New York: Scribner & Welford). Of Hugo's many plays but three appear in this volume, "Hernani" and "Ruy Blas," translated by Mrs. Crosland, and "Le Roi s'amuse," by Mr. Slous. Hugo's prefaces are also rendered into English. Perhaps these three plays are best adapted to make the French dramatist's merits plain to English readers. "Ruy Blas" (with the excision of the fourth act and of the character of *Don César*) still holds our stage; Mr. Lawrence Barrett not long ago attempted an ill-advised revival of the old Macready version of "Hernani"; and Mr. Booth is often seen and to great advantage in the "Fool's Revenge," which Tom Taylor adroitly carpentered out of "Le Roi s'amuse." The mastery of stagecraft displayed in "Ruy Blas" and "Hernani" is easily visible through the translation; and the clumsiness of the conduct of the intrigue in "Le Roi s'amuse" is as plainly apparent. The lofty language, the marvellous vocabulary, the lyric elevation, the perfervid picturesqueness of speech, which, in French, may almost veil the psychologic feebleness of the characters, cannot possibly be reproduced in English. The task is hopeless, and no one can be blamed for failure. A comparison of the blank verse of Mrs. Crosland and Mr. Slous with the original Alexandrines shows that the translators have done their work carefully and conscientiously.

We have received the first volume of the edition of Shakspere to which Mr. Irving has lent his name ('The Works of William Shakespeare, edited by Henry Irving and Frank A. Marshall, with Notes and Introductions to each Play by F. A. Marshall and other Shakespearian Scholars, and numerous Illustrations by Gordon Browne.' New York: Scribner & Welford, 1888). Mr. Irving's part seems to consist only of a brief essay upon Shakspere as a playwright, which does no more than affirm that he was one and honored his own profession. The introduction to each play is short, but sufficient, and contains a sketch of its literary and stage history and an estimate of its character, slightly but firmly done. At the end of each play is a body of verbal notes, explanatory and illustrative, and copious enough for all readers. To this is added a list of the words used only once in the play, and of the few emendations adopted or proposed. The volume is well printed, and bold type is used for the catchwords of the notes and elsewhere, to the convenience of the student. The illustrations are poor. The editorial work is well grounded and its spirit admirable. The plays in this volume are "Love's Labor Lost," "Two Gentlemen of Verona," "The Comedy of Errors," "Romeo and Juliet," and "Henry VI., Pt. I."

The reprint of Sir Henry Thompson's essay in the *Nineteenth Century* for May, 1885, on 'Diet in Relation to Age and Activity,' which was commended in No. 1111 of the *Nation*, has been issued anew from the tenth English edition by Cupples & Hurd, Boston. We hope its circulation may yet be increased ten-fold for the public good.

We were glad to speak of Dr. Jerome Walker's 'Anatomy, Physiology, and Hygiene' for schools as almost faultless. The same author has prepared 'Health Lessons: A Primary Book' (D. Appleton & Co.), to which similar praise may be given. It is for the entertainment and instruction of young children in a method that is novel, and with an execution that is admirable. The motive is, temperance is health, but there is no preaching, and the

doctrine is imperceptibly absorbed by the little readers along with the elementary physiology and the pleasant talks about children's dolls and their daily doings.

The venerable Dr. John S. Butler, late Superintendent of the Connecticut Retreat for the Insane, has just published (Putnams) a little essay on the 'Curability of Insanity' that appeals quite as strongly to laymen as to physicians. Inasmuch as in 1844 there were not 2,700 inmates of lunatic asylums in the United States, and as in less than forty years afterwards there were nearly 52,000 such patients, while it is estimated that more than one person in 550 is so afflicted, or that the total number is 92,000, the importance of the subject may be appreciated. The essence of Dr. Butler's teaching is that individualized treatment is as necessary in insanity as in any other disease, and that its exercise is limited, as all personal effort must be, by the number that can be personally reached. Dr. Butler firmly believes that strictly recent insanity is in many cases radically curable, and to that end he combines many moral elements with those agencies that are more commonly known as medical, prominent among them being the higher form of home-life so utterly unattainable in the vast institutions where the inmates are herded in crowds. There are ten hospitals in this country where the insane patients range from 1,000 to 1,800. We cannot follow here Dr. Butler, writing from fifty years' knowledge of his subject, but we commend him to all who will give an hour to learning about their unfortunate fellow-men. One remark, however, must be quoted, for to many it will awaken a new train of thought: "In many of the insane the power of observation is active, and the understanding has a considerable range of exercise, while the affections exist as warmly and the sensibility is as acute as in a state of perfect mental health." And this applies to the chronic and incurable cases as well as to those approaching restoration.

The *Curio* puts out a double number for January and February, which has an interesting New York paper, by John Preston Beecher, on Poe, illustrated by cuts of all the houses in which Poe is known to have lived in this city. He frequently changed his lodgings, and so we have five cuts of the humble domestic architecture of 1845. The sketch is unfavorable to Poe, and goes to show that Griswold told the substantial truth of the matter in his much-maligned memoir. Mr. Beecher adds a few anecdotes to the further discredit of Poe, but it is the part of charity to refrain from quoting them, especially as he has them by hearsay, though only at one remove. Among the other contents we note the pedigree of the Appleton family.

Madame de Pompadour is handsomely dealt with as a bibliophile and as an artist and art patron by M. Gustave Pawlowski in *Le Livre* for January. He both uses and supplements the biography by the brothers Goncourt (of which a magnificent illustrated edition was brought out by Firmin Didot during the holidays), and the 'Femmes Bibliophiles' of Quentin-Bauchart — surpassing the latter in particular by a tolerably minute analysis of the 8,000 volumes which formed the library of the royal favorite. He recalls to her credit her founding of the École Militaire and of the Sèvres factory, the protection she gave to the savants and men of letters before the Revolution. She was passionately fond of the theatre; being "musicien exquise, cantatrice adorable, danseuse ravissante, artiste dramatique," herself. She did not waste fine bindings on the novels in her collection, which were commonly merely stitched or simply bound in calf or in vellum. She practised engraving in *eau-forte*. La Tour's charming pastel of her in the Louvre, never satisfactorily engraved, is here reproduced in photogravure, in a blue monochrome. The accessories of the portrait illustrate the side of her character dwelt on by M. Pawlowski.

A third *livraison* was added last year to the 'Bibliographie des travaux historiques et archéologiques publiés par les Sociétés savantes de la France,' by Robert de Lasteyrie and Eugène Lefèvre-Pontalis, issued under the auspices of the Minister of Public Instruction. Arranged in an alphabet of the departments of France, this part reaches into the letter G (Garonne, Haute). The 552 quarto pages so far published, therefore, can scarcely embrace more than one-fifth of the probable volume of the completed work, for the publications of the learned societies of Paris (which amount to about 22 per cent. of the total number of French academies) still remain to be included in the work under the Department of the Seine. The titles of the articles recorded to the end of part 3 number 17,375. The fourth part, which is promised to appear soon, will include the Department of Hérault, and will complete the first volume. In the eyes of the American bibliographer there is a sad waste of space in this work, in that the name of any publication of a society is repeated for each volume that has been printed. This useless repetition is especially noticeable in cases where for several pages in succession there are no entries of contents under any of the volumes of a series, but for each volume the title is reprinted in three or four lines of type, the only difference between the entries being in the number of the volume, the date, and the pagination, which differentiation could have been readily and clearly expressed in from one-half to one line of type. This waste of labor and expense could have been better utilized in preparing and printing temporary indexes (to accompany each part) to the thousands of valuable historical and biographical references contained in the work, which now are practically not available because of the peculiar arrangement of the book, nor will they be until the completed work is followed by an exhaustive general index. Each part is furnished by Hachette & Cie., Paris, at a price of four francs.

The Greek Government is considering the plans for two new museums in Athens—one a museum of casts, to serve as an annex to the Central Museum, on the Patissia Road, the other a second museum on the Acropolis. The first of these, if well carried out, will be invaluable to students in Athens as a means of comparing the sculptures there with the Greek works scattered among the various European collections. The second is rendered necessary by the large number of fragments discovered recently on the Acropolis, with which the present museum is now overcrowded. We understand that only objects of secondary importance are to be placed in the new building; but we are decidedly of the opinion that it would be wiser to clear the Acropolis entirely of modern structures, centralizing the objects discovered there in a department of the Central Museum which could be devoted exclusively to them.

Among the fragments recently discovered in the excavations at the eastern end of the Acropolis is a marble head, which is said to bear a striking resemblance to the head of the Apollo in the western pediment of the temple of Zeus at Olympia. Those who believe the sculptures of that temple to have been the work of Athenian artists regard this discovery as important evidence in their favor. In the northwestern part of Athens, near the road leading to the Academy, six graves were recently discovered while workmen were laying gaspipes. These seem to be of the Roman epoch, but are apparently richer in contents than the majority of graves of that epoch in Athens, as the slight description received speaks of various small objects in gold and glass, ten lekythoi, a terracotta figure, etc.

The little harbor of Zea, which will be remembered as one of the stations for ships of war at the Piræus, is to be dredged and surrounded by a wall or embankment. In its present condition this harbor is of little or no service, as its entrance is so shallow and rocky that only small boats can pass through; yet it is one of the most interesting and instructive bits in the whole peninsula of the Piræus, partly because of its picturesque shape and position (it being an almost perfectly round bowl with steep sides and a narrow opening which looks directly down the Saronic gulf), but principally because around its sides are still to be seen the old stone ways, slanting down under the water, on which the ships of war were drawn up and housed. Whatever good may come of the new work, the wall is certain to spoil the character of the spot, and its builders will hardly be able to resist the temptation which the great stone blocks, already cut and at hand, offer them.

—A popular little treatise on 'Weather' (Appletons) has lately been prepared by the Hon. Ralph Abercromby, in which the intelligent reader will find much of interest and information concerning a subject that, like a few others, is always with us. Mr. Abercromby has for some years made the weather of Great Britain a special study, and has recently extended his experience by making a meteorological tour around the world. As a fruit of this preparation, he gives us a book that is to be commended for its simple, deliberate style, freedom from technicality and unnecessary theorizing, rational description, classification, and explanation of atmospheric phenomena, and rich store of illustration from the weather maps of many parts of the world. Great Britain naturally has the larger share of the book, but the weather of our own country is also described and illustrated in good proportion, entirely sufficient to warrant a careful reading of the whole on this side of the Atlantic. On the other hand, the less satisfactory parts of the book are the occasional lapses into an irrational classification, as of anti-cyclones; the presentation of certain insufficient explanations, as of cyclones; and on the whole an old-fashioned conservatism, characteristic of nearly all British meteorologists, as evinced in a timid treatment of several well-founded theoretical explanations, which might have a more careful consideration in a work that "endeavors to explain the general principles involved" in the science of the weather. Still, the book is a good one, and will find much more of welcome than of criticism. It would do an immense amount of good if it were read by all members of those two not insignificant fractions of the community—the ignorantly pious who pray for rain in a time of drought, and the ignorantly credulous who follow the predictions of the various Wigginses of the country; for the chief teaching of the book is that weather is governed by natural, and in great part discoverable, forces, like everything else.

—The first number of the Cornell University *Studies in Classical Philology* is Professor Hale's pamphlet on the "*Cum*-constructions; their History and Functions. Part I. Critical." In this essay Professor Hale belabors the

Hoffmannian doctrine of absolute and relative time with the same doughtiness and downrightness, the same familiarity of illustration and fervor of diction, and (candor compels us to say) unnecessary expenditure of words, that characterized his previous onslaught on the Sequence of Tenses. This absolute and relative theory has been sedulously propagated in this country by certain popular Latin grammars, and although the doctrine has not won universal acceptance, and in fact has been vigorously objected to by Professor Fischer in his elaborate article on *cum* in 'Harpers' Latin Dictionary,' still Professor Hale has felt himself called on to do battle against it, and rid the grammatical territory of it for ever. Certainly, whatever grain of truth the theory may have in it, the nomenclature is extremely unfortunate. If *cum* with the subjunctive had been called the circumstantial *cum* or the characteristic *cum*, and the old *cum* causal had been sent to the right-about, one might have seen analogies in the circumstantial participle, which runs parallel with the subjunctive *cum*-constructions, and in the relative of characteristic with its potential subjunctive, and one might have said with Coleridge, "Like most Germans [Hoffmann] is not altogether wrong, and like them also is never altogether right." But "absolute" and "relative"—why, there is no such thing as absolute time; and to call absolute time that form of relative expression which insists so often on correlation (*tum . . . cum*), ought to have been a trial of faith to any one except those American grammarians whose standard of excellence is the immediate incorporation of the latest German theory. But there is no novelty about "absolute" and "relative" now, and Professor Hale has been at the pains of hunting these spectres up hill and down dale—Hoffmann's original statement, Lübbert's historical justification of Hoffmann, and Hoffmann's indignant rejection of Lübbert's justification of him—until one becomes somewhat weary of "das Seiende" and "das Nichtseiende," and "the transmutation of an aorist" into "a subjectively posited present completeness." However, that is not Professor Hale's fault, but the fault of the Germans, and the essay ends happily. *Conclusum est contra Hoffmannianos*, and for all this "scholastic metaphysic" we are to have in Professor Hale's next paper the constructive part, and it takes no prophet to tell that we are to be delivered from the bondage of those two fiends Absolute and Relative by the same heavenly maid, Parataxis, to whom we owe our riddance of the iron yoke of the Sequence of Tenses.

—Of more interest to the general reader is the second number of the same series, "Analogy, and the Scope of its Application in Language," by Benjamin Ide Wheeler, in which the Professor of Comparative Philology in Cornell has undertaken to present "a coherent classification of the generally recognized products of the action of analogy on language." Professor Wheeler, being a neogrammarian, claims for his school the development of the method; for while the method itself is as old as grammar, while συνεκδρομή and assimilation are not of yesterday, "the doctrines of analogy arose as the complement to the doctrine of the strict order in phonetic development"; and what sober-minded people, who do not object to the use of analogy in moderation, have considered to be the danger of the resort to analogical stimulant whenever phonology resists the digestive process—this is considered by Professor Wheeler not a danger, but a duty. "The investigator of the history of forms must to-day make free use of analogy just in proportion as he deals strictly with the laws of sound." The neogrammatical engine is built of iron and gutta-percha. The more rigid the iron, the more elastic the gutta-percha. To our thinking, "free use" is an ill-chosen expression, unless "free use" means (what it does not always mean) "right use." That Professor Wheeler's array of illustrations is interesting, is even fascinating, every one will admit; and the cautions that he gives will, perhaps, serve to put young scholars on their guard, as the examples that he gives will certainly put them on their mettle. Of analogy in syntax little is said, for the subject has attracted fewer workers, and it is curious that Professor Wheeler's colleague, Professor Hale, does not seem to allow the same play to the influence of analogy that might have been expected from his neighborhood.

—Next May the Royal University of Bologna (Università degli Studii, as its title is in all the old documents) will celebrate its Eighth Centenary. It has some claims to being the oldest University in Europe, for it is said to have been originally established by the Emperor Theodosius the younger in 425. But its present legal existence dates from the end of the eleventh century, when it began to become well known for its excellent law schools, although the great Irnerius did not flourish until the middle of the twelfth century. The date is, perhaps, not exact, but it is approximate, and has been probably chosen to add additional lustre to the Exposition and the other fêtes at the same time. Formal invitations to be represented at the Centenary have been sent by the Rector to foreign universities, including those of the United States, and it is to be hoped that our colleges will interest themselves in the *docta Bononia*, the *Mater Studiorum*, to assist at this Jubilee of a University where the Roman Law was first properly explained; where Dante and Petrarch studied; where S. Carlo Borromeo once presided; and where, in later times, Cardinal Mezzofanti was Librarian, and Galvani made his discoveries. What should be an especial attraction for some of our learned institutions is, that Bologna, up to very recent times, continued the not infrequent practice of the Middle Ages of appointing women professors. Not to go back to the great celebrities of early times, we may recall Laura Bassi (of whom there is an amusing account in the 'Lettres Familières' of the President De Brosses), who, after having been made Doctor and Professor of Philosophy, gained a great reputation as Professor of Experimental Physics, which she taught for over thirty years, until her death in 1778; Clotilda Tambroni, Professor of Greek, who, after being ousted by the Revolution, was restored to her Chair by Bonaparte in 1794; and Anna Moranda Manzolini, the latest of them all, who was Professor of Anatomy. The busts of these learned ladies still adorn the halls of the University. Bologna follows the example of most European universities in not having a permanent president, but of one elected for a year, or term of years, from among the professors. The present President is the well-known Italian geologist and naturalist, Giovanni Capellini. Among the other celebrities of the University are Count Aurelio Saffi, the survivor of the Roman triumvirate of 1849; Carducci, the poet, who is Professor of Italian Literature; Doctor Olindo Guerrini, better known as the poet Stecchetti, who is the Librarian; and the critic Ernesto Masi. The great German chemist Hofmann graduated at Bologna as a Doctor of Philology, to which study he devoted himself until Liebig persuaded him to become a chemist.

—It was not alone by the University that Bologna made good her claim to be called learned. Apart from the School of Art, which is more ridiculed by modern critics than it deserves, the Musical Academy of Bologna, of which Vernon Lee has written a charming account in her 'Studies of the Eighteenth Century in Italy,' is the most famous in Italy, and Bologna is still accustomed to influence, if not to guide, the musical taste of the country. Under the auspices of this Academy, and the Presidency of Verdi and Boïto, there will be open from May until October an International Exhibition of Music and Musical Instruments and Apparatus, both ancient and modern. One feature will be a series of concerts and operatic performances, representing the continuous history of Italian music. In some of these, ancient instruments will be used again, on which the pupils of the Academy are now diligently practising for the occasion.

—Like all the great solemnities of the French Academy, the reception of M. Gréard, January 19, had points of interest entirely unexpected, as well as others which were more obvious. The *récipiendaire* was a moralist, an administrator, a republican, and a representative of the great complex institution which is called the University. The Comte de Falloux, the member to whose seat he succeeded and whose *éloge* he was called upon to pronounce, was a Catholic, a royalist, a minister of the Second Republic, and the successful promoter of the famous "loi sur l'enseignement" of 1850 which bears his name, and which has been compared to the Edict of Nantes and to the Concordat; which is, moreover, declared by what are called the Liberal Catholics to be the most favorable law of the present century for the Church, and which was certainly the point of separation of the French Catholics of that period into two hostile parties. The Duc de Broglie, the *directeur* of the Academy, whose duty it was to welcome the new member and to reply to his address, is the representative of an old family, famous in war and diplomacy in the great days of the ancient monarchy, the head of the ministry of the "seize mai," so abhorrent to republicans, and before all else an Orleanist. The contrast in the orations of the day was as striking as in the three personalities in presence of each other. M. Gréard's *éloge* (for it is not the least admirable quality of this fine address that it should be in reality a eulogy of the predecessor who differed from him so essentially in opinions and beliefs and aspirations) is written with simplicity and moderation of thought and of language, but with a vigor and courage of expression that never degenerates into an attack upon the opinions of others, and never forgets the dignity due to the maintenance of his own. The literary beauty of this address is no less worthy of admiration than its moral elevation, and it is no exaggeration to call it a masterpiece. The Duc de Broglie's reply was an eloquent protest against the opinions of the day on matters of education under the control of the state—too eloquent, indeed, for the simplicity of conviction—and seemed to call for the applause which is said to have followed his oratorical climaxes, not so much because his hearers appreciated the force of his arguments as because they already shared his opinions. He is a writer of much ability, and circumstances gave to this portion of his oration a certain present interest which gave occasion for many brilliant passages; but, following M. Gréard's address, his reply seems incomplete and fragmentary, as though he had been disconcerted by an opponent who never laid himself open to attack, and never placed

himself in a position of defence. The honors of the occasion remain with the new member, who seems rather to confer new lustre upon the Academy by his entrance than to receive it.

—At the session of the French Academy of January 26 three elections took place, viz., that of the Comte Othenin d'Haussonville to succeed Caro ; of the Admiral Jurien de la Gravière to succeed Viel-Castel, of M. Jules Claretie to succeed Cuvillier-Fleury. It was only over the second of these seats that any prolonged contest was made, three ballots being necessary before the successful candidate obtained the required majority of seventeen votes. Thirty-two members were present, four being absent and four seats being vacant, including that of M. Eugène Labiche, who died three days before. M. d'Haussonville's election was foreseen, though the greatly superior merits of M. Janet, his principal competitor, were obvious. Since the death of Chantelauze early in the month removed the most deserving among his possible competitors, M. Claretie's election was also to have been expected, although he was probably, in everything but votes, the weakest of any of the candidates.

AN ENGLISH HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES.

History of the United States: From the Foundation of Virginia to the Reconstruction of the Union. By Percy Greg, author of 'Across the Zodiac,' etc. 2 vols. London: W. H. Allen & Co. 1887.

In an evil hour the *Saturday Review* said that Mr. Greg ought to write a history of the American civil war "in space sufficient to do it justice"; and the *Spectator* added: "Then we shall be able to judge between him and the historians whom he really but informally contradicts." Mr. Greg not only took the *Saturday Review* at its word, by proceeding to write a history of the civil war "in space sufficient to do it justice," but he enlarged his borders so as to embrace the entire history of the American people, and to "contradict the historians" in the past as well as in the present.

If he had confined his ambitious undertaking to the field suggested by the *Saturday Review*, he would have found readers and admirers and, possibly, believers; for the civil war, while its participants live, must be partisan rather than historic, and the more foolish and unfair a partisan book is, the more certain it is to secure a partisan patronage. But there is a common ground upon which all Americans stand, and the Southerner of to-day, with his misfortunes and sorrows still upon him, will not purchase the glorification of Lee by derision of Washington; and the Englishman of to-day, while he may or may not agree with the estimate which the elder Pitt put upon the Americans of 1775, unconsciously reëchoes the little-known speech which George III. made, greatly to his credit, when John Adams presented his credentials as American Minister at the Court of St. James's. Moreover, Southerners have risen above partisanship in many notable instances. Their "war articles" in the *Century*, as the product of the defeated actors in a prolonged and decisive civil war, we deem to be the fairest and most truthful military annals that the historic world contains.

The basis upon which this great work rests is thus stated by the author in his preface:

"I am fully aware that both the general views and many of the particular statements of this work will excite surprise, so vague and incorrect is the current notion, or what I might call the received tradition, of American history. But the most startling of these statements [that is, the "particular statements"] will be found fully avouched by the most partial American authorities. Throughout the First and Second Books I desire it to be understood that my version of facts agrees with Bancroft's and Palfrey's. Where it does not, I have invariably given my authority. In relating facts discreditable to Revolutionary statesmen, generals, and soldiers I have intentionally and even closely followed American writers." "I have given in general, not the authorities on which I have most relied, but those most accessible, and above all those which, as the reluctant admissions of hostile witnesses, are finally conclusive."

These didactic sentences have a certain coherence of sound, and seem, indeed, to have been cast in an historic mould. In reality, they present an extraordinary jumble of ideas, and demonstrate in the fewest possible words the utter unfitness of the author for his task. When Mr. Greg wrote, "The admissions of hostile witnesses are finally conclusive," he probably had in his mind a misty recollection of some rules of the common law which hold certain matters to be final and conclusive as against certain parties; but if he had known anything whatever of the law of evidence, he would have known that, even in the law, the admissions of *witnesses* bind nobody and are never conclusive; and that every writer who ever wrote on the law of evidence classes the admissions of *parties* as the most suspicious and unsatisfactory kind of evidence. For reasons of public policy there are matters and things in the law, termed estoppels, which are deemed final and conclusive; but, as Lord Coke said, about three hundred years ago, "estoppels are odious and not to be favored in law," and he added: "An estoppel closeth a man's mouth to *alleage the truth.*" What shall be said of a man who, in this age of the world, sets out to write a history upon a supposed legal principle which, if applicable, would shut out the truth?

It will also be observed that Mr. Greg promises his readers "statements" some of which will be "particular" and some "startling," and that he immediately adds, "*my version of facts* agrees with Bancroft's and Palfrey's." It is true that he qualifies this by saying that, where his does not agree with theirs, he has "invariably" given his authority. But all of the authorities which he cites in reference to the Revolutionary period are not a dozen in number, and can probably be found in a hundred private libraries in New York alone. We will now illustrate whence these "startling" historic "statements" come.

Three of the Revolutionary statesmen and generals concerning whom Mr. Greg produces "the most startling" of his statements are John Adams, Franklin, and Washington. In 1770 Col. Preston was tried for murder in having unjustifiably ordered his troops to fire upon the people in Boston. He did what any sensible man would have done in like circumstances—he retained the most powerful and influential advocate that he could procure; and that advocate was John Adams, who defended Col. Preston with characteristic intrepidity, strength, and skill, obtaining his acquittal. So much the world knew; but it is now informed that there was such "*organized terrorism* maintained by the malcontents of whom John Adams was a principal leader" that "no colonial barrister *dared* [*sic*] defend the accused unless Adams would set the example"; "that not one or two timid gentlemen, not even a mere majority, but the whole bar of a province like Massachusetts" were compelled to "flinch from their first duty as advocates and citizens," "and abandon the defence of men arraigned on a capital charge; above all when the life and honor of a loyal gentleman and soldier were in question." "Adams saw and snatched his opportunity—if *he had not planned and prepared it.*" "By releasing innocent necks from the halter, he might unravel that which might one day be twisted for his own," etc. No authority is cited for these "particular statements," but they are proved in this way: Col. Preston was "a loyal gentleman and soldier"; "it has never been the practice of loyal men, least of all of British officers, to invoke the aid of seditious lawyers." Therefore, Col. Preston retained Mr. Adams to defend him because nobody else would. A "large minority at least of the profession sympathized with Preston," and "professional honor required every barrister not engaged for the prosecution to accept a brief for the defence." "Nothing but intense and well-founded fear" could have induced them not to discharge their professional duty. Therefore there must have been such "organized terrorism" that "no loyal advocate could have appeared for the accused without palpable and fearful peril."

Mr. Greg proves with equal success in one brief chapter that Franklin was a "rebel," a "sinecurist," a "Puritan," a "plebeian," a "receiver," a "fur," a "vir trium literarum," a "thief," an "offender," an "accomplice," a person of "exceptional views of truth, honor, and honesty," a "culprit," a hypocrite who professed a "passionate shrinking" from rebellion, yet was among "the bitterest, most determined, and least scrupulous of the secret promoters of separation and civil war." He is also shown to have been a person of very moderate ability. "His ethical platitudes may compare favorably with those of Martin F. Tupper ; his elementary experiments in physics hardly place him on the level of Rumford." But there is another "level" which he attains in the same paragraph: "Franklin stands on the level of many other sinecurists," and that seems to be as high (to Mr. Greg's perceptive faculties) as he ever got.

The ability, character, and patriotism of Washington fare very badly in Mr. Greg's hands. We take a single instance of the way he writes "history" concerning him. Major André, according to Mr. Greg's "version of facts," was to meet Arnold on board the *Vulture*. But Arnold sent for him to come ashore, and he came under cover of darkness. The conference lasted till daylight, and then Arnold prevailed on him to remain on shore until the following night. At 10 A. M. the plans of West Point were concealed in his boots "at Arnold's request," and a pass was given him in the name of John Anderson "for Arnold's security," and Smith, who had brought him from the *Vulture*, was desired to put him on board after dark. But when evening arrived, Smith refused to do this. Here was a fine opportunity for Mr. Greg to make a point against the whole American people, and, like John Adams, he "snatched his opportunity." "André was thus," says he, "compelled by *Americans* [Arnold and Smith] to repass the American lines and return to New York by land." Mr. Greg then descends to a foot-note on the character of Smith, and, by his own peculiar historical process, establishes a number of things: That Smith "was acting as a spy in Washington's service"; that "it was by an *American officer* [Arnold] that André was brought, against his will and in defiance of his stipulations, within the American lines"; that "it was by an *agent of Washington* [Smith] that he was twice detained within the lines," "and induced to adopt a disguise"; that "Smith was responsible for the disguise, for its necessity, for every incident of the case except the original treachery which brought André within the lines"; that "in the

one critical fact of disguise" André "was *the dupe of Washington's own agent*"; and, finally, Mr. Greg, by another application of one of his legal ignorances, reaches the astounding folly of saying that André "*was the dupe of Washington himself*"!

Having thus established the historic facts, Mr. Greg indulges in some very fine legal reasoning. For instance, he says of André, who skulked into the American lines after dark for the corrupt purpose of bribing the officer in command: "Technically, André was protected by a flag of truce and the passport of the American Major-General in command [Arnold]." "Technically, André was an envoy!" Mr. Greg then makes a number of his "most startling statements." It was Washington's "determination that, guilty or innocent, the prisoner should die." "The nomination of the court-martial" "fixes a clear and paramount responsibility on the Commander-in-Chief"; "its President was his devoted creature [General Nathaniel Greene], a man utterly devoid of education, literary or social, a blacksmith till called by the outbreak of war from the forge to the field; necessarily as ignorant as any British private of the distinctions and even of the principles of military law." Washington knew that he himself would be regarded, "and justly," "as judge and executioner." His offer to spare André if Arnold was given up was an "infamous proposal," which only served to refute "'the tyrant's plea of necessity.'" "His vengeance still insatiate," he "descended to a stratagem *worthy of his intended victim*," Arnold. "He hired a gang of scoundrels under the command of one Champe" to enlist in Arnold's command. (See, in this connection, Colonel Lee's most interesting account of the heroic Sergeant, Champe's, escape, Chap. xxx., Lee's Memoirs.) "They were formally enjoined to bring him alive and unhurt within the American lines"; but Washington was "far too experienced a soldier" to believe that they would, and attempts of this kind have always been regarded as "*thinly veiled schemes of assassination.*" But "the plot failed, and Washington's hired kidnappers escaped the gallows by a hasty flight." It will, nevertheless, grieve every lover of true and impartial history to hear that an historian whose business it is to correct American "traditions" is himself guilty of two "versions of facts" which cannot possibly be reconciled. At page 307 he says of Washington, that "no officer" who served upon the court-martial could "have acquitted André" "without placing himself in direct and flagrant antagonism to that *cold*, unforgiving, implacable spirit." At page 374 he returns to "André's murder," and speaks of Washington's well-known "*outburst of rage*" on hearing of the massacre of St. Clair's troops as "recalling that which sealed the fate of André."

There is another branch of historic evidence in Mr. Greg's work which should not pass unnoticed. Our readers will remember in the quotations the repetition of the word "gentleman." That snobbishness runs through the book, and the uses to which it is put become as amusing as a vulgar absurdity can be. Thus, of Arnold:

> "A chivalrous gentleman and soldier might have found reason to resign his commission in the American service, but while he retained it would have felt that nothing could release the obligations it entailed. Unhappily, Arnold belonged to that class of New England officers who, as their chief bears incidental but decisive witness, were not gentlemen!"

Of our American historian:

> "Mr. Bancroft ventures without authority to accuse Clinton of the unsoldierly falsehood of multiplying the number of prisoners [taken at Charleston]." "It will be needless in future to quote or refute the allegations or invectives of an experienced diplomatist who never learned that British officers and gentlemen of station and repute like Clinton's do not lie!"

In the first of these instances, Mr. Greg refers to gentlemen in the abstract. In the second, he grows more intense, and comes to the British gentleman. But after quoting Brooks's account of his attack on Mr. Sumner (and nothing else) as authentic history, he enlarges his geographical borders and says loftily: "Brooks was as utterly incapable of falsehood or equivocation as a typical *French* or English gentleman." But Franklin, the Puritan, the plebeian, the "fur," the "vir trium literarum," rouses Mr. Greg almost beyond endurance, so that he well-nigh bursts all geographical restraint as he exclaims: "Franklin was summoned, and, while withholding the name of the thief, avowed himself the receiver, and took upon himself, with an audacity astounding to the boldest of French, *English*, or GERMAN gentlemen, the whole responsibility of the transaction."

History, in this age of the world, holds itself liable to be investigated at any point, and to have its decisions reversed upon any subject. But accepted history can be overthrown only by patient research, newly discovered evidence, overlooked material, or vigorous deductions upon strictly scientific methods. This book is a history without an historian. It does not contain a particle of original research; it does not bring to light a single document, letter, note, or order. At a period when history is struggling towards the region of absolute truth, and is striving to depict historic events in the light in which the actors saw them, such a book is a crime against history. Its animus is mischievous—to arouse ill-feeling between America and England, and awaken resentments between the North and the South. Its purpose is contemptible—to display the childish vanity of a writer ignorant of his subject and utterly untrained for his pretentious task. There are dozens, if not hundreds, of young newspaper attachés in London and New York who, if they had been told by the editor to read up on history and get something from the English point of view for the Sunday edition, would have done the work better and furnished it week by week. Mr. Greg is one of those weak writers who can maintain a vivid style so long as they can fabricate the facts to be described, but who flounder and drag when they are harnessed to real events and characters, just as there are weedy colts which can cut prodigious capers in the pasture, but which go to pieces as soon as they are brought to the test of real work. His petty blunders, inaccuracies, and mistakes we make small note of. He designates the Boston Tea Party, or riot, as "robbery," not from a vicious or libellous motive, not because he thinks the tea was stolen, but because he does not know what the word "robbery" means. The masterly movements of Greene which saved the army and ultimately led to Yorktown, he classifies as "Disasters of Greene." One would suppose that a novelist writing a history would at least make it entertaining; but there is not a picturesque description, a graphic narration, a fine personal characterization in the two volumes. The book could not be more false if it were a fiction; nor more stupid if it were—a history.

MORE NOVELS.

Paul Patoff. By F. Marion Crawford. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Marzio's Crucifix. By F. Marion Crawford. Macmillan & Co.

April Hopes. By W. D. Howells. Harper & Bros.

Captain Macdonald's Daughter. By Archibald Campbell. Harper & Bros.

Frau Wilhelmine. [Conclusion of The Buchholz Family.] By Julius Stinde, translated by Harriet F. Howell. Charles Scribner's Sons.

WHEN *Valentine*, tearing himself away from *Verona* and *Proteus*, declared that home-keeping youths have ever homely wits, he uttered a word of warning to the story-tellers of coming generations. Those of our own time are not slow to heed it, and to Marion Crawford it is a guiding star. Had he chosen a hermitage for a home, and there dwelt apart, there is no knowing what marvels he might have evolved from his inner consciousness, yet the home-keepers cannot regret that he elects to see and to describe the wonders of the world abroad. For the home-keeper, of necessity largely in the majority, is provided with an inner consciousness similar to his neighbor's, and in his heart is an eternal longing for change, an unquenchable devotion to something afar from the scene of his sorrow, or his joy, or his middle state which is the most enduring and unendurable. Since he cannot have change in fact, he wants it in fiction, and deep should be his gratitude to the travelled youth who temporarily fills the void. To this noble end Mr. Crawford labors diligently, and in 'Paul Patoff' covers himself with glory. He makes Constantinople his *pied-à-terre*, running to and fro over the Continent of Europe and the British Isles. He busies himself chiefly in clearing up a case of strange disappearance, and enlists in the investigation a delightfully mixed company of Russians, English, Turks, Ethiopians, and Jews, all leavened by one American on whom devolves the duty of telling the tale. Incidentally these representatives of foreign Powers involve each other in small but trying troubles, to extricate them from which a kiosk on a hill at Therapia is burned, and several very valuable lives are imperilled. The outline of the story, founded on the question how and by whom was Alexander Patoff spirited away from the Mosque Saint Sophia, is thoroughly clear and good. Like the plot of the ideal play, it can be coherently told in five minutes. The evolution moves on steadily through a series of ingenious incidents of which only one or two are hackneyed or capricious. The weak point is Paul Patoff's slowness to suspect and follow up a very obvious mark for suspicion, the veiled lady whom Alexander had affronted in the Valley of Roses.

The people are well conceived for carrying on the plot, and, if some are imperfectly drawn, allowance must be made for their diversity. Paul, who ought to be the solidest figure, is the most shadowy. He suffers from insinuations which come to nothing. He conceals the extremes of Slav nature attributed to him, bearing his trials impassively as a Stoic and with the dogged honesty of an Englishman. His sweetheart, Hermione, is a little wearing. It is always difficult to sympathize with the feminine conscience which manifests itself in a desire for wider experience—that is, for more men—after its owner has accepted the love of her first lover. A love affair between her and Balsamides Bey would have been most interesting. He had a way of overcoming obstacles more terrible than a girl's conscience, which, for ruthless audacity, is incomparable. If Balsamides is not a real Turk, he is an impossibility. He could never have been born of Frank parents and hardly of a Frank's imagi-

nation; therefore he must be regarded as the result of close and intelligent observation. He appears to be as thoroughly a Turk as the inhuman Mme. Patoff seems not to be an Englishwoman, unless she was a crazy Englishwoman—a theory which the reader would comfortably accept were it not for the quasi-scientific arguments against it. These arguments are part of the deadwood which obstruct the flow of the narrative, and may easily be accounted for when we remember that the novel was published first in monthly instalments. Further sops to the demand for copy are discernible in lengthy journalistic descriptions, and, worst of all, in the gratuitous sermons. A man of Mr. Crawford's versatility should deny himself the lazy luxury of expanding indefinitely a few verses of Ecclesiastes. It is true that he guards himself against such criticism by constant reminders that the story is told by no literary fellow, but by a plain, blunt man, for the amusement of a woman. His safeguard effectually betrays him. It is not in the nature of a Griselda to put up with preaching when she is dying to know what became of Alexander Patoff, and whether Hermione married Paul or didn't. The reason for these blemishes is very plain, and, seeing that such digressions are blemishes, it would be wisdom in writers of serials to revise their work before publishing it in a book.

In 'Marzio's Crucifix' there is hardly a superfluous page. It is short, yet not hasty, strong, and well-finished. A superficial impression of the Italian people, gathered from fiction written in English, is that they spend the days in posing for artists and the nights in perpetrating crime, for which pursuit a slouched hat and black cloak are as necessary as is the incisive stiletto. Mr. Crawford breaks away from this picturesque melodrama, and writes about a Roman family of the middle class whose dull round of existence is temporarily disturbed by one of those storms which occasionally convulse the quietest families in Italy and elsewhere. Marzio, the head of the house, is the exciting element; and the greatest strength of the story is in his portrait. He was a troublesome person to get along with, and is still more troublesome to describe without prejudice. Mr. Crawford sets forth impartially the best and the worst in him, and makes a wildly contradictory nature thoroughly comprehensible. Marzio really was the victim of excessive imagination and very bad temper. When busy designing or executing a chalice or a crucifix, his imagination had legitimate employment, and he was harmless. Once permitted to stray from his work, it became unmanageable and wrought the man into a species of frenzy against the King and the Church, against all existing conditions; an abstract, impotent rage which hardened into hatred of his brother Paolo, the priest, and angry suspicion of his own wife and daughter. He is too weak to initiate the social revolution of which he dreams, and, though he believes himself a born leader, is nothing but a vain babbler in wine-shops and a terror to his household. But, as Marzio is almost wrecked by his imagination, so, in a moment of temptation to kill his brother, he is saved by it, and one hopes that his passionate gratitude for his escape may lead to permanent reformation.

The social questions involved in the analysis of Marzio's character are cleverly discussed, showing that in the author's mind there exists no confusion of the terms liberty and license, freedom and anarchy. The love-affair of Lucia and Gianbattista, which Marzio's imagination and bad temper together failed to interrupt, is very pleasant and healthy; its tenderness being rather heightened than diminished by the practical texture of all their visions of happiness.

Love's young dream is the theme of Mr. Howells's 'April Hopes,' and he cannot be said to lend enchantment to the old story. Still, since to lend enchantment to anything in heaven above or on earth beneath is no part either of his theory or practice, he should not be blamed for neglecting to do not only what he scorns to attempt, but would resent being accused of. The spirit of truth is an admirable spirit to animate a novelist, yet, if zealous cultivation of it implies the annihilation of all other spirits, including the spirit of charity, the erring novel-reader will grow restive, and end by longing for nothing so much as for a few pleasant lies. If any one word can characterize Mr. Howells's attitude towards Dan Mavering and his sweetheart, and all the Boston people interested in their uncertain loves, it is uncharitableness. It is not only that he never permits himself to be "to their virtues very kind," but he is never "to their faults a little blind." Far from it, he digs fathoms deep for them, he tosses them to and fro in broad daylight, he gives to the molehill of frailty the prominence of a mountain of depravity. The section of Boston society thus, as it were, excavated need not tremble at the exposure. Not an evil passion is disclosed, much less a deadly sin. It is fairly sound, root and branch, though not exactly swelling with sap. The worst revelation is that of a tendency to dry rot, and of an alarming parasitical growth of censoriousness, spite, double-dealing, hypocrisy, and affectation round the trunk of Puritan righteousness. Besides, it is cleanly shorn of pretensions to that intellectual supremacy in which the world rightfully or wrongfully has long cherished a belief. The attacks of Mr. Howells's truth-telling demon on this belief have been insidious and persistent, and now we know that we long worshipped false gods. That is to say, we know it while under the influence of Mr. Howells, just as we know, while mentally in his company, that it is wrong and foolish to erect a standard of ideal perfection, to aspire to it, to struggle towards it, and gloomily suspect that such a proceeding is not compatible with common sense or ordinary intelligence.

'April Hopes,' like all the author's works, is, in a conventionally moral sense, above reproach; but its tendency to blight germs of spirituality is hardly less harmful to character than is the corrupting influence of novels which describe the base or vicious sides of life. No one is the better of its trivial worldly wisdom, while the young and impressionable are apt to be the worse. The pleasure it gives is almost entirely dependent on the possession by the reader of what may be called the literary sense. That sense is deeply gratified by the irony so delicate that its frequent ill-nature is condoned by the accurate expression of habits of manner and speech, of secret thought, and even of the haziest intellectual perception. The gain to fiction from the author's allegiance to that division of literature is not so great as the loss to metaphysics. All his exceptional qualities, not excluding his wit, would shine more brilliantly in abstract exposition. Not one demands fiction for its exhibition except that which makes his dialogue a marvel of vivacity and cold blood. If human beings were nothing but machines for ever rattling off superficially cynical frivolities, Mr. Howells could draw them with absolute perfection.

The author of 'Captain Macdonald's Daughter' seems to share Mr. Howells's conviction that the moral health of the world would suffer from a slight suppression or merciful veneering of the congenital imperfections of those unhappy ones whom they pounce on for dissection. Nan Macdonald is original sin incarnate. Her father was the devil in the alluring disguise of an officer in her Majesty's service. He, after a short but uniformly iniquitous career, departed this life, leaving his daughter for inheritance a bundle of I. O. U.'s and all the objectionable impulses and dishonest propensities conceivable. The forlorn little wretch, romantic, silly, and an incorrigible liar, is placed in circumstances finely adapted to perfect her natural traits. Whenever she slips, and she is always slipping, her dread of the scorn of her Scotch relatives plunges her deeper in the mire. When she tries to rise, the hereditary shackles tighten, and down she goes into hopeless depths of shame. If we grant predestination, inexorable fate (and to grant these is what rigid adherence to the doctrine of heredity comes to), then Nan Macdonald could be only that which she is represented—her father's daughter. But, in fairness to her, more stress should be laid on what she tried to be than on what she couldn't help being. Such a view of the requirements of justice would, however, probably appear to the author a weak concession to sentiment, a pandering to falsehood. She guarantees the presence of some sort of palliative virtue by telling us that many people liked Nan, and that one man loved her. The lover is faint-hearted and singularly tactless even for a man. When Nan seems to give him up to another woman, at a sacrifice of her own affection, it is much more consistent to assume that her wicked heart had really devised an effective way of getting rid of him.

Nan's history is a very depressing one, and that implies that it is neither weak nor trivial. It is indeed told with strength and assurance, and one regrets that the author so resolutely ignores those aspects of truth which may be dilated on without driving humanity to despair of itself. The construction is faulty; the interest being broken by the transition from Scotland to Virginia. One never gets a comprehensive view of scene and people, but must be content with fragmentary glimpses. Several of the Virginia episodes are useless and irrelevant, and the scenes in the Scotch manse are more a collection of anecdotes fathered on one family, than a harmonious picture of domestic life.

Any shreds of respect for the race remaining after reading 'April Hopes' and 'Captain Macdonald's Daughter' disappear as we follow the conduct and gossip of 'Frau Wilhelmine' in the concluding portion of 'The Buchholz Family.' The comfort here is, that all these dull, sordid, contracted creatures are of one nationality. Since the Germans have taken Stinde to their bosoms and proclaimed him the prophet of their middle class, far be it from a foreigner to protest that they are in any respect more attractive than he has painted them. Any one in doubt about the meaning of the word vulgar is commended to 'The Buchholz Family,' where it is amply and exactly defined. The vulgarity is not only in their customs, which are disgusting, but in their thoughts and feelings. Their standards are low, their judgments narrow, their motives mean. They have no manners, and they, the women especially, talk to each other with brutal coarseness. The civilities of life are unknown to them, the proprieties ignored, and the decencies outraged. They are envious, spiteful, meddlesome, and mercenary, and they thank heaven that they belong to the cultivated classes! If the Buchholz family appeared to the Germans what they really are, it is natural to suppose that the family would not have been received with

such favor. If Stinde thought they were at all offensive, he could not have so thoroughly identified himself with their vulgarity. Therefore an outsider must accept his work for what it seems to be, a close transcript of an actual phase of life of which he is a part. If the author can remotely conceive of the impression on the foreign mind made by Frau Wilhelmine and her tribe, he must write for the purpose of exciting inveterate repugnance for the whole German nation. The book is most admirably translated, so that no injustice is done to the charms of the original.

The Elements of Political Economy. With Some Applications to the Questions of the Day. By J. Laurence Laughlin, Assistant Professor of Political Economy in Harvard University. D. Appleton & Co.

Professor Laughlin has estimated with admirable judgment the relative importance of the main principles of political economy, and has presented these principles in a clear and compact form. This done, the economic questions now before the public—socialism, taxation, the national debt, free trade and protection, bimetallism, the banking system, the labor problem, and coöperation—are discussed ably and authoritatively, the author rarely losing that judicial tone which should characterize a science text-book. There are, of course, individual topics respecting which each reviewer will disagree with Professor Laughlin; yet in almost every instance his position is that which the consensus of living political economists may be said to uphold.

Nevertheless, in spite of these merits, the book will hardly fill the niche for which it was intended. As stated in his preface, Professor Laughlin's aim has been so to present the economic principles which underlie our public questions that they may be understood "by the average American youth, whose education is restricted to the high school or the academy." To this end each chapter is accompanied by a list of questions intended to stimulate the thought of such pupils, and many subjects are presented graphically by means of diagrams and charts. Yet these expedients, however well considered, do not succeed in making the book popular. The writer is by nature an abstract thinker, and though his arguments do not lack for facts, and telling facts, these are drawn from the reading of history and not from talking with ordinary men about ordinary affairs. Even in a less degree are they facts which go home to the ordinary boy. There are, if one stops to think of them, a vast number of things which come within the range of a boy's experience which have economic significance, and which can be made the basis of a popular study of the elements of political economy.

Turning now for a moment to the doctrines of Professor Laughlin's 'Political Economy,' one finds most to criticise where he would expect to find least. If there is any question upon which the author is regarded as an authority, it is that of bimetallism. Yet in his chapter upon it, in accounting for the recent fall in the value of silver, after mentioning the common theory that it was due to the action of Germany and the Latin Union, he continues as follows:

"The real cause, in my opinion, however, was the *great abundance of gold.* Since 1850 one and one-third times as much gold has been produced as in the three hundred and fifty-seven years from the discovery of America down to 1850. . . . Countries whose transactions were large and increasing wanted, naturally, the money which was least bulky and most valuable. These people have always had a preference for gold over silver. At any rate, the abundance of gold allowed France and Germany to discard silver, and gold took its place. It is like the case of a people living on a cheap diet, such as potatoes, who, when they find that wheat becomes cheaper and more abundant, take the wheat and give up the potatoes. Then the potatoes, no longer being in so great a demand, fall in value. So it is with silver. Gold took its place as money, and silver was discarded."

This argument surely is not very convincing, even to a monometallist. The phenomenal increase of the world's gold supply is not the fact of the last decade, but of the two decades following the gold discoveries in Australia and California. During these the abundance of gold caused the disuse of silver—not, however, by making it depreciate, because in fact it appreciated. The wheat-and-potato-illustration is even worse. When wheat becomes more abundant, the decreased use of the potato is due to the fact that it has become relatively dearer. As between silver and gold, silver has become, not relatively dearer, but relatively cheaper. Nothing in political economy could be plainer than that the decline in the value of silver during the great silver-mining era since 1872 has been due to the abundance of silver, and nothing else. The value of silver, like the value of other products of labor, depends upon the probable cost of reproduction. The diminished cost of producing silver fully accounts for its fall in price. This diminished cost of production is due, as Mr. Geo. F. Becker, United States Geologist, points out in a recent pamphlet, "in part to new discoveries, but much more to the increased facilities for transportation and the consequent cheapening of supplies in the mining districts."

But this faulty argument stands alone in the volume. Professor Laughlin's views are conservative, and his reasons for them are generally of recognized strength. The most interesting of his financial views is his apparent belief in a multiple standard for long contracts. The argument in favor of it is of course obvious. Our unit of value would represent not a certain quantity of gold, but a certain quantity of each of the staples of commerce—corn-meal, flour, brick, lumber, beef, pork, potatoes, wheat, etc. In this way, a dollar would always represent the same purchasing power. The practical difficulties in the way of adopting such a standard are, of course, equally obvious. Professor Laughlin recognizes these; but, in discussing the plans of the International Bimetallic League, he makes the pertinent suggestion that "as the object of the League is to furnish a steadier standard for deferred payments, a much easier way to effect this, and one which any single nation can follow by itself, is to establish a multiple standard."

Christendom, Ecclesiastical and Political; from Constantine to the Reformation. The Bishop Paddock Lectures for 1887. By John Hodson Egar, S.T.D. James Pott & Co.

The six lectures contained in this volume are of interest in several ways. They are the first fruits of an endowment made in the year 1880 by Mr. George A. Jarvis of Brooklyn, N. Y., to found and maintain a lectureship in the General Theological Seminary of the Protestant Episcopal Church. This foundation is to be known as the "Bishop Paddock Lectureship," and is to be welcomed as promising, under wise administration, the same sort of usefulness which has been reached in England by the Hibbert and Bampton trusts. The subjects of these lectures are to be "such as pertain to the defence of the religion of Jesus Christ as revealed in the Holy Bible and illustrated in the Book of Common Prayer against the varying errors of the day." Among the various special topics whose defence may be undertaken by the lecturers is the historical reformation of the Church and her rights and powers as a pure and National Church. It is under this provision that Dr. Egar selected his topic.

The book is interesting further as showing what may be accomplished by a bright man with insufficient tools and materials. There is no evidence that Dr. Egar is acquainted with the German language; his works of reference have been few in number and general in character; as a contribution to modern critical scholarship his work cannot command serious attention. Its very considerable value lies in the clearness of its aim, the general accuracy of its conclusions, and its power of seeing the real point at issue in the midst of conflicting and often irreconcilable opinions. Although he is the avowed exponent of a church calling itself "Catholic," Dr. Egar is willing to give all due credit to movements within the church universal, which the members of his particular sect are not usually too ready to approve.

His fundamental proposition is that the history of the Church cannot be understood without constant reference to the conditions of public life around it. This may seem a truism to any trained scholar, but our author has done well to call attention to the points at which the usual text-books of Church History fail in this respect. He brings us back to a reflection which we are always in danger of forgetting, that the Church is made up of human beings, and that the highest demand we can make upon the Church of any day is that it shall take a stand upon moral and religious things a little higher than that of the community in which it stands and of which it is a part. The senseless abuse of the Church in any age for being what the standards of that age make it, is the object of his repeated attack. Especially valuable is the defence of the mediæval clergy against the attacks of their enemies, both contemporary and modern, who have judged them by wrong standards. The contemporaries were wrong, because they had a standard which would have required priests to become angels, and the moderns have been wrong, because they have accepted contemporary criticisms as if the sins imputed to the clergy had been sins in the modern sense. The author might have strengthened his reference to Peter Damianus by quoting that reformer's own confession that the Milanese clergy were in all respects models of virtue—if only they had been free of the abominable sin of Nicolaitism, a sin which, in Dr. Egar's view, meant nothing more than that they were honestly married to respectable wives.

In minor matters we might find many things to criticise. For instance, it is very doubtful whether Charlemagne was ever, even in sport, a scholar of the *schola palatina.* It would probably be a little difficult to show that the *missi dominici* were in any sense "the originals of our Circuit Courts and Circuit Judges." The explanation here given of the vexed question, why Charlemagne allowed himself to be crowned Emperor at the time and place at which the coronation actually happened, if, as Einhard tells us, he did not wish to be crowned, is as unfortunate as most other explanations which have been attempted. Dr. Egar thinks that Charlemagne's objection was to the coronation *by the Pope;* but why in the world a man of Charlemagne's immense resources of mind and materials should have put up with a ceremony of which he did not approve, and which he might have repudiated with the

greatest ease, is very hard to see. In our opinion the case is only one of the endless number in which persons, especially in the Middle Ages, when raised to positions of great importance, found it decorous or profitable to protest that they never desired such elevation, and only consented to it because of a profound sense of duty. Such protestation might be regarded as almost a formula at every mediæval promotion. So with regard to the "vacancy" of the Eastern throne, because to the Frankish mind a woman could not hold the empire. We see no real evidence that Charlemagne would not have assumed the title when he got ready for it if the doughtiest Roman that ever lived had sat upon the throne of Constantinople.

The whole account of the process by which the Bishopric of Rome became the Papacy of the West is given with a great deal of discrimination. Perhaps a little too much weight is laid on the assumption of power by the Papacy, without quite enough emphasis on the corresponding acceptance of this assumption by the churches of the West. There are of course notable cases of protest, but on the whole the churches of the West were in no condition to offer the kind of resistance to the papal aggressions which these encountered in the East. The real reason for this lies, it seems to us, in the absence of great cultivated communities in the West such as were found in every eastern country. The Papacy grew because it was needed, and when it was no longer needed it was thrown away.

Nothing could be better than Dr. Egar's account of the relation of Leo I. to the Council of Chalcedon. Doubtless the opinion of the Pope prevailed there, but the Romanist is not content with that statement; he insists that it prevailed because of the regard for the Roman Bishop as such. We are here given the truer view that it prevailed because it happened to be that of the dominant party at the moment. The action of the Council in elevating the Bishopric of Constantinople to an equality with Rome, shows conclusively that it was in no danger of following the lead of the West in servility to Rome.

We are grateful to Dr. Egar for having put so clearly and concisely the essential points in the great question of the relation of Church and State in the Middle Ages.

Register of the University of Oxford. Vol. 2 (1571–1622). Part I. Introductions. Edited by Andrew Clark, M.A., Fellow of Lincoln College and Vicar of St. Michael's, Oxford. Part II. Matriculations and Subscriptions. 8vo, pp. 423. Printed for the Oxford Historical Society, at the Clarendon Press, 1887. 8vo, pp. 467. New York: Macmillan.

Alumni Oxoniensis: the Members of the University of Oxford, 1715–1886, their parentage, birthplace, and year of birth, with a record of their degrees. Being the Matriculation Register of the University alphabetically arranged, revised, and annotated. By Joseph Foster. London: Joseph Foster, 21 Boundary Road. Vol. 1, pp. 401. Abbay–Dyson. 1887. Vol. 2, pp. 406. Eade–Kyte. 1888.

THESE two works supplement each other, and, when completed, will be of the greatest value not only to genealogists, but to all others who wish to trace the lives of the graduates from the great English University. The 'Register,' of which the first volume was noticed by us at its appearance, is the official reproduction of the manuscript records, a necessary undertaking to prevent the loss of these indispensable authorities. Part i of this volume gives the official life of the University during the period named, the requirements for the degrees, the ceremonies in taking them, the methods by which they were obtained, all of which were carried on with formalities and to an extent of which our modern graduates can have but a slight conception. In Part ii the list of matriculations is continued in chronological form, with the county in which the student was born, his age, and the quality or social standing of his father. The sons of the nobility are easily distinguished; the son of a knight (*eques* or *miles* or *eques auratus*) is distinct from that of an esquire, *armigeri filius*, or of a gentleman, *generosi filius*. Lastly, the son of a commoner is *plebeus* or *plebei filius;* but, as the editor points out in the preface to Part ii, page 25, there is reason to think that the paternal status was often understated in the matriculations. There was a scale of fees, proportioned to the father's quality, the highest in rank very properly paying the most. Hence economy would suggest a prudent modesty on the part of the applicant, who afterwards, in asking for his degree, could suddenly remember that his family was more distinguished socially. The editor states that he has noticed on the records numerous instances of this transformation, and of course there must have been many more cases where this enforced humility was maintained throughout.

No index is given to Part ii and no notes upon the persons named. It is to be the official register, invaluable as far as it goes, but not a biographical dictionary. Undoubtedly the enterprise so well begun will be speedily brought to a prosperous conclusion.

The 'Alumni Oxoniensis' of Mr. Foster is the counterpart of the foregoing work, as it is an alphabetical register of the graduates for a certain period, and condenses under each man's name the entries personal to him, matriculation and degrees, and in most cases undertakes also to give his preferments, clerical or other. It will be noticed that Mr. Foster's period, 1715-1886, is one calculated to be of great service to the modern Englishman, but it entirely omits that earlier time in which Americans have a joint interest with their cousins. This work is avowedly based upon the transcript of the Oxford matriculations made by the late Col. Joseph Lemuel Chester, and we may well be proud that an American was the means of stimulating Englishmen to make available these records. Mr. Foster has, of course, had the vast additional labor of collating the different entries, and of adding to them the items relating to the post-collegiate life of the graduates. In such matters he stands without a rival, and this enterprise will further extend his fame and renew the obligations under which he has placed the literary community. He intends to complete this register in four volumes at a guinea each, and it is to be hoped and expected that many libraries in America will be enrolled among his subscribers.

Face to Face with the Mexicans. By Fanny Chambers Gooch. With 200 illustrations. Fords, Howard & Hulbert. Pp. 584.

MRS. GOOCH might easily have won for her book a distinct place in the list of modern works on Mexico. She has a considerable body of material that is really fresh and not badly handled. It is a pity that she chose to hide this away in the great mass of second-hand or worn-out wrappage to be found in her bulky volume. If she had left out entirely her chapters on the legendary history of Mexico, on the general history of the Mexicans, on their Government and their statesmen — writing for which she is inadequately equipped—and had printed only her descriptions of domestic life and social customs, her account of the modern literary movement, and her very welcome collection of the more popular songs of Mexico, we should have had little but praise for her work. Even then, however, it would have been necessary to put the reader on his guard against the extravagant laudation of the leading writers of Mexico. Their literature is not exactly on a par with that of the Elizabethan age. Poetry composed "on the spot, without a moment's preparation," though it commanded Mrs. Gooch's admiration, is probably not of the highest order. Then, too, we get a disagreeable impression of servility, on the part of the author, in her contact with the exclusive society of the capital. She often appears too much in the guise of a reporter admitted on sufferance within the charmed circle, and bound to praise everything to the top notch. In this respect, her book is in strong contrast to that of Mme. Calderon de la Barca, of which, in some ways, it pleasantly reminds us. The wife of the Spanish Minister could meet the finest people of the land as an equal, and was in no danger of being patronized or becoming subservient. This danger Mrs. Gooch has not wholly escaped. She makes a characteristic mistake in supposing that Bernal Diaz's history has never been translated into English (p. 376). It is very amusing to find that she has also been made a victim of that adroit prelate, Bishop Riley. To appeal for contributions to aid him in "his great work," and to print a commendatory letter from his pen, is to betray great ignorance of his actual situation and prospects. The majority of the illustrations are good. Many of them, however, are spoiled in the printing, and some of the old plates which the publishers have picked up are so antiquated that they picture things no longer in existence.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Baton for a Heart. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co. 50 cents.
Academy. Vol. II. Syracuse: George A. Bacon.
Bankers' Almanac and Register, for 1888. Homans Pub. Co.
Benjamin, J. P. Treatise on the Law of the Sale of Personal Property. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Bercy, P. La Langage Française. Part 2. W. R. Jenkins. $1.25.
Cooke, Carrie A. The Art of Living. From the Writings of Samuel Smiles. Boston: D. Lothrop Co.
Cutter, W. P. and Julia P. Life, Journals, and Correspondence of Rev. Manasseh Cutter, LL.D. By his Grandchildren. 2 vols. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co.
Foster, J. Alumni Oxoniensis: The Members of the University of Oxford, 1715–1886. Vol. II. London: Joseph Foster.
Gooch, Fanny Chambers. Face to Face with the Mexicans: The Domestic Life, Educational, Social, and Business Ways, Statesmanship, and Literature, Legendary and General History of the Mexican People. Fords, Howard and Hulbert. $4.25.
Harmonia: A Chronicle. Macmillan & Co. $1.50.
Heilprin, Prof. A. The Geological Evidences of Evolution. Philadelphia: A. Heilprin.
Hill, G. B. Wit and Wisdom of Samuel Johnson. Macmillan & Co. $2.
Howells, W. D. Their Wedding Journey. With an Additional Chapter on Niagara Revisited. Illustrated. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Ingleby, C. M. Essays. Edited by his Son. Trübner & Co.
Jones, L. A. An Index to Legal Periodical Literature. Boston: Charles C. Soule.
Kinney, C. Lyrics of the Ideal and the Real. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co.
La Neuvaine de Colette. W. R. Jenkins. 50 cents.
MacAlister, J. Catalogue of the Pedagogical Library and the Books of Reference in the Office of the Superintendent of Public Schools, Philadelphia.
Maclaren, Dr. A. The Epistles of St. Paul to the Colossians and Philemon. A. C. Armstrong & Son. $1.50.
Martineau, J. A Study of Religion: Its Sources and Contents. 2 vols. Macmillan & Co. $6.
Morley, J. Aphorisms: An Address Delivered before the Edinburgh Philosophical Institution. Macmillan & Co. 50 cents.
Newman, W. L. The Politics of Aristotle. 2 vols. Macmillan & Co. $7.
Owen, Catherine. Gentle Breadwinners: The Story of One of Them. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Palmer, Lady Sophia. Mrs. Penicott's Lodger, and Other Stories. Macmillan & Co. $1.
Perowne, J. J. S. The Doctrine of the Lord's Supper. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. 60 cents.
Raffensperger, Mrs. A. F. Patience Preston, M.D. Boston: D. Lothrop Co.
Schaff, Dr. P. Church and State in the United States. [Papers of the American Historical Association. Vol. II. No. 4.] G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 23, 1888.

The Week.

THE Republican press is left in a bad box by the attitude of the Republican Senators towards the Blair bill. The more stupid party organs had been abusing the Southern Democratic Senators who opposed the measure on constitutional grounds as "the States'-rights, fire-eating leaders of the South," when that gun was effectually spiked by the States'-rights speech of that Union soldier, Northern Republican Senator, and possible Republican candidate for the Presidency, Gen. Hawley. The more sensible papers had been calling Mr. Blair an ass and his bill "absurd," "demoralizing," and "preposterous," and yet, when the roll was called, two-thirds of the Republican Senators followed the New Hampshire leader in voting for it. An occasional Republican paper, like the Lewiston *Journal*, still tries to defend the bill as one which ought to become a law, but it finds itself met by the negative votes of both the Republican Senators from Maine and the unanswerable speech against the measure by Senator Hale. In short, if a Republican paper attempts to argue that the bill ought to pass, it has to encounter the demonstrations by Republican Senators like Hawley, Plumb, and Hale, that it ought not to pass; while if it argues that these speeches show that the bill ought not to become a law, it has to try and explain the inexplicable fact that two-thirds of the Republican Senators voted to make it a law. From either point of view, the task of deducing from the incident the lesson that the Republican party is the only one fit to grapple with important public questions, appears equally difficult.

The accounts of the Canadian Fisheries Treaty with Great Britain, which has been signed, are too meagre as yet for any extended comment. It seems at this writing as if nearly everything which Americans have asked for had been conceded, and especially the mode of measuring the extent of territorial sovereignty along the shore, which is now to follow the line of the land, at headlands as well as elsewhere; and, we presume in deference to the greater carrying powers of modern guns, the limit is to be four miles seaward instead of three. The treaty will doubtless be well received in England, where people care nothing about the dispute, but do not want to quarrel with the United States. In Canada, if we may judge from the attitude of the press, the Ministerialists will accept the arrangement, and the Opposition denounce it, but the former will probably carry the day. That it will, however, if it be what it is reported to be, strengthen the annexationists, we think there is little doubt.

It is, of course, dangerous to predict what the Republicans in the Senate will do with the Treaty; but if we may judge from the utterances of the organ in this city, after having had time to hear from Washington, they are not going to admit that it is a good treaty for the United States without a struggle—like the Divinity Professor at Oxford who warned his class that a certain passage in the New Testament "was probably spurious, but not to be surrendered without a fight." What seems now to be foreshadowed is, that Senator Bayard's claim that it is "a permanent and satisfactory settlement," must be disputed, if only to cut down his "self-appreciation." The legal right of the American Commissioners to act as negotiators will probably, also, be again examined, and the question whether the State Department meant, in negotiating the treaty, "to antagonize the Congressional policy of retaliation," will also be inquired into. Then Pat Ford has still to be heard from. Until he has had his say, one can hardly tell what kind of treaty it is. The following parallel throws some light on the situation:

[*Tribune*, February 16.]

If the authority quoted by our Washington correspondent is to be relied upon, the treaty will be satisfactory to Americans. In fact, it is stated that we have got about all we asked for. The headland theory contended for by Canada has been abandoned, and that question will be settled according to the usage that prevails among the principal European nations, and our fishermen are to have their commercial rights in Canadian ports. If this is correct, the outcome of Mr. Bayard's undertaking will be much more gratifying than we have had reason to expect.

[*Tribune*, February 17.]

The State Department under the present Administration has been a centre of British-American diplomacy. What is regarded by the Secretary himself as a conspicuous triumph for America may be in reality a compromise and a surrender. The submission of the convention to the Senate will revive the controversy opened last December respecting the constitutional power of the President to appoint the Commissioners. The subject is one which the Senators can hardly fail to consider when the treaty is laid before them.

The wailings of the London correspondent of the *Tribune* over the transmission to the London *Daily News* of extracts from his newspaper, showing the confidential and even deferential relations existing between the Blaineites and the Irish dynamitic party headed by Pat Ford of the *Irish World*, are very amusing reading. He almost wept over these revelations in his Sunday's despatch, and begged the editor to say that there was "an error in transmission," or say something which he could show his English friends which would let him out of his scrape. We think his sufferings do him much credit, but we fear they are due rather to the social annoyance the Ford alliance causes him than real holy horror of Ford and his doctrines. Not a word of comfort does the *Tribune* give him, however, and he will have to continue to face the music at his five o'clock teas, and his dinners, and his private smokes with the Prince of Wales, because Blaine cannot be elected without Pat Ford's help, and Pat is an awful ogre in English society. The correspondent's situation is as full of horror as that of the man who went with Thackeray in a cab to dine at the Duke of Devonshire's, and was ashamed of the cab, and wanted to send it away quickly, but had to undergo the torture of an offer from Thackeray, in the presence of the hall porter and the footmen, to toss up a sixpence to see who should pay the fare.

The members of the Reading Investigating Committee of the House must have been astonished when they got Mr. Corbin before them. The *raison d'être* of the Committee is to show that the Reading Company is doing something for which it ought to be ashamed of itself, and that it ought to take the back track as soon as possible. Most of the questions put to Mr. Corbin were leading ones pointing to that conclusion. What a surprise it must have been when he said to them: "If there is no more coal mined from the Schuylkill region until we are compelled to mine it by discharging men who have come to us in our trouble and stood by us to make way for the strikers, no more will ever be mined while I have influence enough to prevent it." This was very manly, and hence very unpalatable to the questioners, but the following interrogatory and answer must have knocked them all in a heap:

"Do you mean to say, and to go on record as saying, that for that, and that only, you will not take them back?"

"Yes, emphatically, I want that to go on record. They left me and I gave them notice. It will be a pretty cold day when I disc harge men who stood by me when I needed help, for men who deserted and attempted to ruin me."

When Turgot was made Minister of Finance, Voltaire, after watching him awhile, exclaimed: "Here is a man." Something like this must be the idea that common people will arrive at after reading Mr. Corbin's testimony.

The chivalry of South Carolina has come to a sorry pass if Mr. Tillman of Edgefield District is a present representative of it. Mr. Tillman is chairman of the Reading Investigating Committee. On Thursday he asked President Keim a string of irrelevant and insulting questions charged with the rankest demagogism, which Mr. Keim very properly declined to answer. The next day he repeated the operation on President Corbin, with no better results, although Mr. Corbin did tell him, when he called for a statement of the Reading Company's assets and liabilities, that it was none of his business. Mr. Tillman was ably seconded by Mr. Anderson of Kansas, who wanted to know, among other things, where Mr. Corbin had his washing done. Mr. Corbin's refusal to answer this question put a stop to an interesting line of inquiry, such as, how many shirts he sent to the wash each week, whether he paid his washing bills promptly, and whether his washerwoman used Pearline or Ivory Soap. Then Tillman took up the wondrous tale, and asked when the Reading Company paid its last dividend. Mr. Corbin said in 1876. "And it will be a cold day when it pays another," added this representative of a chivalrous

people. Imagine John C. Calhoun bullying a witness in this fashion! "I supposed," said Mr. Corbin, "that this was a fair investigation. I did not think you came here to personally abuse everybody connected with the Reading Railroad Company, and to call them thieves and robbers." Mr. Tillman denied that he had done this, and made the obviously exaggerated statement that he (Tillman) "was a gentleman, and could answer for what he had said or done." Then Mr. Corbin took out of his pocket a clipping from the report of the previous day's proceedings, and read an extract from Tillman's blackguardism towards President Keim, and asked him whether that was a correct report; but Tillman declined to answer.

The passage read by Mr. Corbin was reported in the New York papers as follows:

"Where do you expect to get your money to pay the interest on your bonds? Where do you expect to get your money to keep you out of bankruptcy again? It seems to me that you are robbing the stockholders of your company, and robbing the public, to pay fat salaries to a set of officers who appear not to know anything about the companies they are supposed to serve at all. The miners may starve, the public may pay two prices for coal, but the officers are paid big salaries to know nothing or very little, so far as this Committee can find out. Now, I would like the witness to answer how such a state of things can exist. There is said to be honor among thieves; how far this applies to the case of these officers, I don't know.

When this Committee makes its report, we trust that some member of the House will be brave enough to move a vote of censure upon the Chairman for insulting the witnesses, and upon the whole Committee for permitting him to do so.

The *Tribune* still continues to publish interviews with Republicans who are determined to have Blaine whether he wishes it or not. Gen. Hovey of Indiana says he will be "nominated by acclamation." Senator Riddleberger says "Virginia is sure for him." It quotes the *Irish World*, too, as protesting strongly against Blaine's withdrawal, and urging the Republicans to nominate him again as a condition of Irish support. The Pittsburgh *Times* also wants him; so do the Rochester *Democrat*, the Burlington (Vt.) *Free Press*, and several other newspapers. All this has to be taken in connection with the following remark on the editorial page:

"Finally, the Mugwumps and free-trade Independents manifest a disposition to dance on Mr. Blaine's political grave, as they think, and to boast that their individual hostility has killed him, and will kill any other candidate who does not please them. This is not unlikely to incline Republicans to inquire whether a genuine Republican can possibly support any candidate whom they would not assail as malignantly as they have assailed Mr. Blaine."

It is of course hard to say what the foregoing extract means, but probably that if the Mugwumps show signs of supporting any Republican nominee other than Blaine, the Blaineites will "knife" him. This has been long anticipated, and in fact is very likely to happen. No Republican can be allowed to carry any State in which Blaine was beaten, especially this State.

Mr. G. W. Childs of Philadelphia has been frequently urged, during the past two years, to accept a nomination for the Presidency if it were offered to him. He has more than once declined to entertain any such proposal, but as it has been repeated since Mr. Blaine's Florence Message, he has refused it again, but how differently from Mr. Blaine! The latter simply says his name "will not be presented" to the Convention, and this is all. Mr. Childs, on the other hand, says: "As to declining and refusing to be a candidate for President, his mind is firm and unalterable"; and "he repeats his refusal to be a candidate or to be voted for, and adds that he would be compelled to decline the office, honorable and exalted as it is, if by any chance, in the chapter of unforeseen events, he should happen to be elected." This is the way to decline an office when a man really means to decline it. There is here no room for doubt or misunderstanding about Mr. Childs's position. No pleadings or tears from Pat Ford or any other admirer will move him one inch. There will be no use in preparing "acclamation" for him, or hiring "shouters" for him in the Convention. There will be no first, second, or third explanation of his utterances. We ought to add that this refusal makes Mr. Childs an almost unique figure in American history. We believe Gens. Sherman and Sheridan are the only other Americans who have declined a Presidential nomination with this clearness, decisiveness, and unshakable firmness.

Declining the Presidency has various shades and classifications which the public are not slow to recognize. For example:

MR. CHILDS	Would not accept the Presidency if actually elected.
GEN. SHERMAN (in 1884)	If nominated in spite of his declination, the Convention will hear something that will be disagreeable.
GEN. SHERIDAN	Would not accept a nomination if tendered to him.
MR. BLAINE	His name will not be presented to the Convention, but he congratulates the party that he got 200,000 votes more than Folger did in New York.

Other varieties will appear from time to time as the day of the Convention draws near. The most common will be that of the candidate who will not allow his name to be used unless the nomination is "spontaneous." The number of those who will not feel hurt or discomposed in the least degree if they are not nominated, includes all the rest.

The *Farmers' Voice* of Chicago, a sixteen-page weekly, is pouring hot shot into the tariff. The number of "inequalities" in that arrangement of taxation that the *Voice* discovers is almost equal to the number of dutiable articles. The greatest inequality of all, however, is the general fact that the farmers pay about two-thirds of the cost of maintaining a system of "protection" and get nothing in return. The *Farmers' Voice* publishes at length the memorial of the Farmers' Alliance of the State of Nebraska, which declares, among other things, "that our agricultural products are sold in the open markets of the world in competition with the cheapest labor in the world, while the manufacturer, through the operation of protective tariffs, receives a bonus of 25 to 100 per cent. on his goods." Why does not William Walter Phelps send these benighted people a copy of his speech showing how a home market is secured to the American farmer by the tariff? Evidently these Nebraska agriculturists are in a parlous state. They do not understand that the home market might be taken away from them by foreign wheat-growers if they did not pay an average tax of 45 per cent. on all the dutiable goods they buy.

Mr. William Lloyd Garrison made an address before the West Side Club at Providence a few days ago on the subject of the Treasury surplus and the tariff. "The last ditch of protection," said Mr. Garrison, "is the low wages scare," and then he gave the following bit of testimony, which is very much to the point:

"My friend John Graham Brooks, who went to Germany with protective proclivities, was astounded at the explanation given him why the manufacturers wanted a tariff. 'We need it,' they said, 'to protect us against the highly paid labor of England.' 'Say that again,' said Mr. Brooks. 'I don't understand you. Where I came from we ask protection against the low wages of England.' It took but little reflection for him to see that the German had good reason to fear the Englishman. The talisman of success remains with the nation paying the highest wages, and consequently commanding the cheapest labor."

This tallies remarkably with the facts brought out in Consul Schoenhof's recently published report to our Department of State, showing that the American workingman in the textile industries commands higher wages than the English, because, as a general rule, he does more work in a given time, and that he does not really get as high wages by comparison as his superior efficiency entitles him to. In other words, if both American and English operatives were paid by piece-work, the pay of the former would be relatively greater than it is.

We must say that the wool editor of the *Tribune* ought to look after his duties more carefully, for whereas the leading article on Monday was a powerful attack on Mr. Mills of Texas (whom the *Tribune* commonly calls "Premier" Mills, to distinguish him from other Millses who are not premiers), on account of his speech at Providence on the wool tariff, another article in the same paper, discussing our trade with Australia, says:

"A most discouraging feature of the trade is that there is no home trade for returning vessels, beyond three or four cargoes of wool a year. 'If we could import Australian wool,' says one of the traders, 'and could have a home trade equal to the outgoing one, we could make our round charters much cheaper and the out-bound rates of freight lower, and could soon take a fair share of trade. The Australian wools are long and fine, entirely different from those here; they are the finest staple of the world. But, owing to the lack of return trade, rates are higher; at the present time, therefore, the share of the United States trader in manufactured goods is not 10 per cent. of what goes to the colonies. Hence our great disadvantage. We could to-day charter vessels on the basis of forty-five shillings per ton, out and back, if we had the return business, but with no home freight it costs thirty shillings out alone.'"

Is it not plain that this is a covert attack on the tariff, and that it was smuggled into the paper without the knowledge of the wool editor? Is it not as clear as A B C that if the wool tariff were repealed so that we could import those Australian wools, so long and fine and so entirely different from our own, "the finest staple in the world," we might increase our trade with the "huge island continent" of the antipodes to an enormous extent? And is not the suggestion equally plain that an increase of trade with Australia would be a good thing for the country? Such misleading insinuations ought not to be allowed—certainly not in the same issue of the paper that chastises "Premier" Mills for wool and woollen heresy.

The speech of Mr. Mills at Providence vindicates his title of "Premier" to satisfaction. He promises that the wool tariff shall be abolished if the Committee of Ways and Means can accomplish that end. This is the first hearty and uncompromising statement that has been made by high authority since the President's message was delivered. It promises a real reform and a reduction of the surplus on correct principles. Protecting manufactures with one hand and raw materials with the other is such a travesty of common sense that the human mind recoils in the effort to grasp it. Protection had been going thirty-five years in this country before anybody thought of putting a tariff on wool; or if anybody had thought of it before, the various Congresses from 1789 to 1824 had cast it out as too ridiculous to be considered. In the last-named year, wool secured recognition for the first time, and from that time to this it has been the principal marplot of the revenue system, with the curious result, as Farmer Grosvenor showed in his book, of crippling wool-growing and woollen manufacturing equally and uniformly, so that the highest prices of domestic wool have always been in the low-tariff periods and the lowest prices in the high-tariff periods. Now if "Premier" Mills and his colleagues succeed in casting out this evil spirit, they will render the greatest possible service both to tariff reform and to industrial progress.

One of the funniest outcomes of the agitation against poverty is a claim of copyright, or rather trade-mark, in the name "Anti-Poverty Association," made by Dr. McGlynn. He has moved for and obtained an order to show cause why Henry George's men, Post and Croasdale, should not be restrained by injunction from using the name for their new association. Should he fail, though McGlynn may suffer, the Anti-Poverty cause will not, for the attack of two such organizations on this monster evil of human society must be more effective than that of one only. But, of course, it will cost more to abolish poverty through two organizations than through one.

Henry George's long statement of the causes for the separation of himself and McGlynn contains nothing new. It merely amounts to a confirmation of the report that they have parted company because McGlynn and a few others wished to run a Labor candidate for the Presidency this year on the general plan of the "Butler business over again," and George refused to be a party to such a trick. It is made very plain now that McGlynn and his allies formed the plan as a means of subsistence, and that George opposed it on the much more creditable ground that it would be a fraud upon the public and an injury rather than a benefit to the workingmen. The fundamental cause for the separation undoubtedly is that the Anti-Poverty humbug has ceased to pay, and something else must be found to give its promoters a living. Some of them are now charging the McGlynn faction with misappropriation of funds, but that is a charge which can be brought with equal force against all the charlatans and adventurers who have been figuring as leaders in the movement.

The Hartford *Courant* furnishes a notable comment on the taxation of moneyed capital. The law of Connecticut requires that mortgages shall be taxed against the mortgagee, even though the mortgaged land may be in another State. The Connecticut Tax Commission last year recommended that this class of mortgages should be exempted from taxation, because the property which made the mortgage good was out of the jurisdiction, and also because the tax could not be uniformly collected, there being no means of finding such mortgages unless the holders voluntarily returned them. After a hot debate the Legislature rejected the amendatory bill. And now the *Courant* records that the public authorities of the town of Simsbury, "after full discussion and consideration," have deducted this class of mortgages from the grand list. In other words, they have voted "to suspend a State statute." The *Courant* thinks that it is more likely that the law will be repealed than that proceedings will be taken to coerce the town of Simsbury.

"Party before Country" is the title with which the Milwaukee *Sentinel* introduces an article on the gross partisanship of the Democrats in the House of Representatives, who are reported to contemplate the passage of a bill admitting into the Union New Mexico—at the same time with Dakota, Montana, and Washington. "The population of New Mexico," says the *Sentinel*, "is a kind of population that is not yet fit to assume the responsibilities of Statehood. A majority of its people are ignorant Mexican greasers, speaking no language but a patois of Spanish and Indian. They are utterly unfit for any form of American government, except such as exists under the Territorial condition. New Mexico should not be made a State until the greaser element of its population ceases to be predominant, or has been educated so that a fair proportion speak and read the English language." We heartily agree with this view, but must remind our Milwaukee contemporary that thirteen years ago, when the Republicans had more than a two-thirds majority in the Senate and House of Representatives, both branches passed a bill for the admission of New Mexico, the measure only failing because the Senate amended the House bill so late in the session that adjournment came before an agreement was reached. The *Sentinel* thinks that the Democrats show themselves "partisans whose sole consideration is party," when they propose to admit as a State "the greasers of New Mexico, whom they feel sure can be made to support the Democratic ticket." But what were the Republican members of the Forty-third Congress, who, when the Territory was far less fit to be a State, voted to admit "the greasers of New Mexico," who they then felt sure could be made to support the *Republican* ticket? Will the redeeming process of outnumbering the greasers only end in Democratic supremacy? And if so, must New Mexico always be kept in a Territorial condition?

Mr. Pearson, the Postmaster, had the good fortune to receive a valuable testimonial of efficiency from Tammany Hall last week. The Committee on Organization passed a resolution calling for the Postmaster's removal, on the ground that he is "outrageously mismanaging his office," that his letter-carriers "are notoriously underpaid and overworked," that "any unfortunate letter-carrier who has complained of unjust treatment has been ruthlessly rejected from his place," and that the man who is responsible for all these evils is Mr. Pearson, "than whom, excepting in Russia, a greater autocrat does not exist." Precisely what the provocation for this impassioned outburst is, was not indicated during the debate, but any one familiar with the processes of the Tammany mind will have no doubt that the trouble has sprung either from the loss of a place in the Post-office by some Tammany worker, or the refusal of Mr. Pearson to put some such worker in a nice berth. Tammany's hunger for possession of the New York Post-office has been increasing steadily for three years, and at times it becomes too painful to be borne without loud outcries.

Dr. Morell Mackenzie reiterates his belief that the Crown Prince's disease is not cancer, and that no trace of cancer has ever been detected by microscopical examination. Other accounts are contradictory, but the fact remains, and it impresses the public both in Germany and elsewhere probably more than the reports of the doctors, that the Prince grows somewhat worse from month to month, and that a more formidable operation than the last one is now talked of. He may yet recover, as the whole civilized world hopes he may, but he has not as yet entered on the road to it. Prince William, his son, has taken occasion—we presume, in view of the situation—to deny publicly, as slanderous, the charge that he is a mere soldier, and has a feather-headed longing for war for war's sake,

VOTING AGAINST THEIR CONVICTIONS.

THE Senate came to a vote on the Blair bill on Wednesday week, and passed it by a vote of 39 to 29—a marked change from the two previous records of 33 to 11 in 1884 and 36 to 11 in 1886. Allowing for pairs, 43 Senators were for the bill and 33 against it. Of the 39 Republican members of the body, 26 were for the bill and 13 against it. Of the 37 Democratic Senators, 20 were against the bill and 17 for it—a clear majority even of the Democratic Senators from the old slave States, in whose special behalf the bill has always been urged, being against it. In other words, if the decision had been confined to the Republican Senators, the bill would have passed, 26 to 13, or by exactly a two-thirds vote; while if it had been confined to the Democratic Senators, it would have been rejected, 20 to 17.

Gen. Hawley, Republican Senator from Connecticut, closed his powerful speech against the bill on Tuesday by expressing the "wish that every Senator would vote upon it just exactly as he feels about it." Mr. Hale, Republican Senator from Maine, who made a vigorous assault upon the bill the next day, closed by declaring his belief that many of those Senators who had heretofore voted for the bill were now beset with doubt and fears, and, if they cast their votes in accordance with their present belief, would be arrayed against it.

The Blair bill is, in its far-reaching consequences, one of the most important measures passed by the Senate since the war. Two-thirds of the Republican Senators voted or were paired in favor of its passage, yet it is notorious that of these twenty-six there are not more than six who honestly believe in the wisdom of the measure, or who sincerely desire its enactment into law. It has been supported on the Republican side during the discussion by its author in several characteristically "cranky" speeches; by Mr. Bowen of Colorado, a weak Senator, in a weak speech; by Mr. Stewart of Nevada, in a curiously illogical speech; and by Mr. Evarts of New York, in one of those remarkable utterances which lend weight to the recent remark of one of his Republican colleagues that he "never knew Mr. Evarts to have clear ideas on any subject." Mr. Hoar of Massachusetts has advocated Federal aid to Southern education, in one form or another, for many years, and may be credited with representing his honest convictions in his affirmative vote.

But Senator after Senator voted publicly for a bill which they had privately admitted ought not to become a law. Here are a few illustrations:

A Republican Senator from a New England State told another Senator early in January that he "had become convinced that the bill was unwise, unnecessary, and wholly vicious, but he felt constrained to vote for it in deference to the sentiment of his State." It became clear within a month, through the tone of the press and the letters of educators, that the bill was not endorsed by the public sentiment of his State. He then said that he should vote for the bill "out of deference to his colleague," who had always supported the policy, and he did so vote.

The two Republican Senators from another State agreed in the opinion that the bill was a bad bill and ought not to be supported, but they voted for it because somebody had got the Legislature of their State to pass resolutions endorsing the measure, although these resolutions were rushed through without consideration, and represented no intelligent public sentiment.

A Republican Senator from a Western State recently said: "When I first came here I felt very strongly that it was the duty of the Government to lend its aid in the education of the colored people. I feel somewhat so yet; nevertheless, I confess to a very great feeling of doubt as to the propriety of passing the bill." He voted to pass it.

A Republican Senator from another Western State recently said: "There is much good sense in the arguments urged against the bill, but a vote against it would be regarded, without explanation, as adverse to the cause of education. I cannot place myself in that position." He voted for the bill.

A Republican member of the Judiciary Committee, to a suggestion as to the unconstitutionality of the bill, answered: "What's the use of talking about the question of constitutionality? If the people want the bill, let them have it." He voted for the bill.

A number of other Republican Senators, who had voted for the bill once or twice before, have admitted over and over again during the past month that they "were sick of the bill, and thought it ought not to become a law, but could not find excuse for reversing their former action." They all voted for it, not possessing the manliness shown by Mr. Spooner of Wisconsin, who was not ashamed to admit by his vote that he had learned something during the past two years.

The decadence of the Republican party has never been more strikingly shown than in the passage of this bill by two-thirds of the Republican Senators, although not above six of the twenty-six who voted to make it a law believe that it ought to become a law. Fancy a Republican Senator in Lincoln's day finding it necessary to implore his party colleagues to vote upon a bill just exactly as they felt, and then seeing them vote the other way! Fancy Senator William Pitt Fessenden voting for a bill "out of deference to his colleague"! Fancy Senator Charles Sumner voting for a bill which he believed to be a bad bill because the Legislature of his State had been inveigled into a hasty endorsement of it! Fancy Senator William H. Seward of the "irrepressible conflict" period deliberately voting for a bill, which he had once carelessly favored, after he had become convinced of its pernicious character, because he lacked the courage to explain his change of mind! Fancy Senator Salmon P. Chase ridiculing the idea of talking about the constitutionality of a bill!

It is not believed that the Blair bill can become a law. But why? Only because the Democratic party controls the lower branch of Congress and the Executive Department. It is not thought that the bill can get a majority in the Democratic House; if it should squeeze through the House by a combination of most of the Republican members with a minority of the Democrats, the greatest confidence is expressed that the President, who interposed his veto to the Texas Seed Bill a year ago, would in the same way block the equally unconstitutional Blair bill now.

"I am willing to see the bill defeated by any of the constitutional means," said Gen. Hawley in concluding his speech, "whether by the House, by the Senate, or by the President." It has passed one of these stages by a two-thirds vote of the Republican Senators. If the Republicans controlled the House, it would pass the second stage. If the Republicans had elected their candidate to the Presidency in 1884, it would pass the third stage, and become a law. In other words, the salvation of the nation from what Gen. Hawley properly considers a measure to change the whole theory of our government, is found in the fact that the Republican party was beaten in the election four years ago.

OUR UNHAPPY CONSULS.

THE efforts of Mr. Belmont during the last Congress to improve the consular service—efforts which, we understand, are to be repeated during the present session—entitle anything he may say on the subject to the most respectful attention. It seems to us, however, judging from his article in the *Forum*, that the Chairman of the Committee on Foreign Affairs hardly appreciates the seriousness of the evils which he aims to correct, or perceives how radical must be any measures able to remove them. Mr. Belmont's chief points are (1) that the salaries paid our representatives, as compared with those of other nations, are inadequate to secure the services of competent men, and (2) that our system of paying a large proportion of the consuls by fees instead of salaries, as well as permitting those so paid to be engaged in trade, tends to produce a dishonest rivalry between contiguous consulates, in order, by winking at fraudulent invoices, to attract the patronage of shippers, and hence increase the fees. The latter evil might, indeed, be abolished by the means proposed; but increase of salaries, the system of appointment remaining the same, would, it seems to us, only make the places more valuable as spoils, and hence still further diminish fixity of tenure.

We may seem to be advocating a Utopian remedy when we say that the first condition of an honest and efficient service is permanence of tenure; and the second, the adoption of some method by which appointment shall no longer be given to the henchmen or dependent relatives of politicians. These are, indeed, commonplaces of civil-service reform, but, from ignorance of the duties of consuls, the public fails to perceive that while, in all other branches of the public service, the realization of these principles is *desirable*, in the consular it is *essential*. With ordinary ability and industry, anybody can become a respectable postmaster or department

clerk, while it requires unusual faculties and training to make a good consul. But the main reason is that consular officers have innumerable opportunities to defraud the Government and the mercantile community, which are rarely found in other branches of the civil service. Frauds enough, no doubt, occur in connection with whiskey prosecutions, and star-routes, and post-traderships; but there is practical security against these in the fact that they are committed almost within sight of the newspapers and the business public, while consuls act thousands of miles away, and though they may be watched by their official superiors as carefully as circumstances permit, they are almost entirely free from the much more effective scrutiny of the public.

If a man could enter the service with the confidence he would have if in the employ of a private firm, that he would keep his place during good behavior, the temptation to ill-conduct of any kind would be more than counterbalanced by fear of detection and consequent dismissal. But our system directly encourages dishonesty, first by appointing men of all degrees of incompetency or inexperience in mercantile affairs, and then by saying to them, in effect: "At the end of four years (more or less) you will be kicked out of your position. Your capacity and devotion to the interests of the Government and of your countrymen individually (if you should display such qualities) will make little difference in your fate. Your honesty (if you are honest) will not keep you in; your rascality (if you start that way or yield to temptation) will hardly be detected and acted upon before the end of that time. Even if you should be dismissed on this account a little sooner than you would otherwise be, your friends would believe that it was all 'politics,' so that your future in private life would not be injured. So, you see, by being conscientious you have nothing to gain, and, as you will soon learn, everything (save *self*-respect) to lose."

Now this is a devilishly good argument, even if the newly appointed consul were fresh from a divinity school; how much more so if, as is generally the case, the man has been "on the make" for years or decades before his appointment, and has got the place after a long-continued competitive examination in political unscrupulousness. It used to be said, not by the enemies, but by the friends, of a certain ante-bellum Governor of a Northern State, whose election, owing to accidental circumstances, was held to be of advantage to the party at large, that, being offered at the close of his term his choice between a European legation and an important consulship, he chose the latter "because he was poor, and needed to lay by something." As the salary was far from large, it is obvious that there must have been large pecuniary advantages incident to the position, or his praiseworthy purpose would have remained unfulfilled. At that period, indeed, the home authorities gave the consuls a very loose rein; their accounts were passed with little or no examination, and opportunities for illicit gain, if not more numerous, were at least much less exposed to detection than they now are. Cases were known in which consuls' accounts of thousands of dollars per annum were allowed on forged vouchers and receipts of mythical shipwrecked seamen—a speculation which to-day, owing to improved inspection facilities, might turn out less profitable. But all who have been brought in contact either with ex-consuls (the honest ones), or with persons engaged in foreign trade, are aware of the practically innumerable ways in which consuls still can (and do) cause loss of money and vexation of spirit.

The consular career of a Tilghman or a Badeau occasionally becomes notorious through the newspapers; but purely commercial annoyances require too much explanation to make it worth the while of the press to discuss them. In many cases, too, it is impossible to convict a consul of a dishonest motive, although the aggrieved party may feel sure that his only object was blackmail. If convicted of error in interpreting the law, the excuse of ignorance, in a person often without experience or training, is very plausible.

In conclusion, we venture to suggest to Mr. Belmont a reform the operation of which would be so slow that the politicians would have ample time—a generation or more—to get used to it, yet which would eventually purify and immensely improve the service. The law provides for twelve consular clerks, who hold office during good behavior. The supposed object of this provision was to train young men to fill consular offices; but observe how beautifully it works. When a clerk is appointed to a consulate, he loses the benefit of the good-behavior clause, so that, after a few years, he is turned on the world in even worse condition than the political consul, for the latter may, meantime, have "made his pile," and at any rate can return to that station of life from which the Government saw fit to call him. The clerk's alternative (if he is allowed one) is to remain for ever at a salary of $1,200 a year, which is hardly a future to attract a man of conspicuous ability or energy. Our proposal is simply this: that when a consular clerk is promoted to a consulship, and is subsequently removed, he shall resume his former status. The consequence of this would be the gradual increase in the number of consular clerks, until the Government would be enjoying the services of an unnecessarily large number. The public, however, would not permit competent men to be idle in the service, and would insist that a larger proportion of them should be appointed to consulships. And eventually, we think, the reform sentiment would be so strong that appointments of untrained men would be as rare as they now are in the military service, in which the Government schools serve the purpose which the institution of consular clerks was intended to accomplish for the consular.

BROKERS' GLOOM.

Among the interesting social phenomena of the day none is more curious than the influence which the prevalence of gloom among stock-brokers has on the general community, touching the condition of trade and finance. When business is dull for any great length of time in Wall Street—that is, when very few people are purchasing railroad stocks, and there is consequently a heavy falling off in brokers' commissions—a feeling is very soon diffused through the whole community that times are very bad, and the future very dark, and the need of economy very pressing. Nothing suffices to make head against this gloom. The retail trade of the city may generally be very good; the exports, and, *pace* Mr. Blaine and Mr. Edmunds, the imports, as heavy as usual, or heavier than usual; work may be abundant, wages high, the banks full of money, but if the stock-brokers groan, the rest of the population are apt to feel pains in their own bones.

This is the more curious because everybody who thinks much about the matter knows very well that dulness in Wall Street, whatever its cause, means actually that but few stocks are changing hands. It does not mean that many stockholders are eager to sell, but simply that very few are eager to buy. It does not mean that any stockholder is in pressing need of money, or has any difficulty in borrowing money, or is in any way distressed in mind, body, or estate. Nor does it mean that the investors are not investing, but keeping their money lying idle, because simple investment furnishes but a small part of a broker's business, and may be as good as ever in the gloomiest times without at all diminishing the gloom. What makes bad times in Wall Street is the absence of speculation, or the purchase of large quantities of stocks with the view of selling them again immediately, or very soon, to somebody else, who, in turn, also means to get rid of them as soon as possible. This process of quick transfer from hand to hand of course might be active to the verge of riotousness, without indicating anything positive with regard to the real condition of general business. As a matter of fact, it has mostly been witnessed after a period of prolonged prosperity, which has begot a speculative spirit, and furnished people with plenty of money to speculate with. But it is not a process which in any way increases the wealth of the community. Consequently, its disappearance does not indicate any diminution in the wealth of the community. What hinders it just now, we imagine, is simply a dread of Wall Street as a gambling-place in which the cards are marked, or the dice loaded, and in which neither skill nor experience has any special value. But the only persons out of pocket by its absence are the brokers, who get their commissions on all transfers, whether the buyer or seller makes any money by the transaction or not.

But the brokers, it may be said, are but a small body; why, then, should any diminution in their income produce a widespread impression that the times are hard, and make even the owners of assured fortunes feel reluctant to spend money? Well, the reason probably is that they are the class whose influence is most felt in what may be

called the market for luxuries. There is an aleatory quality about their incomes—that is, a tendency to great extremes, and a liability to sudden changes—which seems to beget in all men exposed to its influence a strong disposition to lavish expenditure. Another feature in their earnings, too, which operates in the same way, is that the same amount of labor may bring in either a very small or an immensely large return. It takes very little more time or thought to sell $1,000,000 worth of stock than $10,000, but the gains in the former case are one hundred fold greater than in the latter.

The general result is that the brokers, taken as a whole, are the most free-handed class we have. No class makes itself more markedly felt at Delmonico's, the theatres, the carriage-maker's, the tailor's, the wine merchant's, the jeweller's, the furrier's, the horse-dealer's, and the clubs; and when the best customers begin to retrench in all these places, a loud lament over the times soon begins to be heard in the land. The late Lorenzo Delmonico used to say that he could always tell whether business was good in Wall Street by listening to the popping of the corks in his restaurant, and we may be sure they always popped more for brokers than for anybody else. Now a falling off in the demand for luxuries affects general opinion about the state of trade much more quickly than a falling off in the demand for the ordinary necessaries of life. The reason is that there is about all consumption of luxuries a good deal of éclat. They are rarely enjoyed secretly, or even privately. The man who fares sumptuously every day wants the world to know it, and invites many to share his pleasure with him. A fine carriage and horses, too, or a fine house, are public proclamations of affluence. So are diamonds and other precious stones. So is a large wardrobe. When any individual who has been in the enjoyment of these things lays them aside, or refrains from them, or groans over the possession of them as something he cannot afford, all his friends perceive it and speculate as to the cause of it. When many do it at the same time, the air gets filled with sounds of woe from all the purveyors of good things.

It is useful at times to remember this close connection of speculation in stocks with good living, when one hears lamentations over the condition of the market, and to remember also that the market may be terribly dull, even for long periods, without much worse results than temporarily depriving a body of capital fellows of yachts, and horses, and carriages, and French cookery, and good claret and champagne.

THE ENGLISH TROUBLES.

Although it is still improbable that the Tory Ministry in England will dissolve Parliament and lay their policy before the voters any sooner than the expiration of the customary term, nevertheless the signs that they may be driven to it multiply. The Liberal Unionists on whose support their ability to avoid a dissolution depends, still held firm at the last division, but things are occurring which must in some degree shake their resolution. The various boroughs into which the city of London is now divided have hitherto stood by the Conservatives on the Irish question pretty steadily, but the result of the election in Southwark appears to have astounded both parties. The Liberal majority there has jumped, on a new registration, from a little over 100 to more than 1,100 in a vote of 6,000. In one of the Edinburgh divisions Mr. Buchanan, who was returned at the last election as a Liberal Unionist, has been converted to Home Rule by the coercion policy in the interval, and resigned his seat in order to give his constituents an opportunity of passing on his change of opinion. He, too, has been again elected, showing that the majority of the voters have followed him into the Gladstonian camp.

These things, it is true, are merely "straws," but they are straws of great significance, and they are making a deep impression on the mind of English politicians; all the deeper because the news of them came almost simultaneously with the great oratorical triumph achieved in the House of Commons by the Liberals through Gladstone and O'Brien—Gladstone's speech in particular being reported as one of the finest, if not the finest, he has ever made. The scene in the Commons when Balfour had to face a torrent of fierce and, it is said, very skilful invective from his late prisoner, O'Brien, is represented as extremely dramatic, and was one to which Balfour's light, chaffing, cynical tone was singularly unsuited in the eyes of a democratic public.

In truth, Balfour is now probably beginning for the first time to realize the value of the advice Lord Hartington gave the Ministry—not to proclaim the National League under the Coercion Act, but reserve the powers which this act gave for positive and well-defined criminality, such as outrages, and boycotting, and actual resistance to the officers of the law. The proclamation of the League, and the consequent prohibition of its meetings, led through the inexorable logic of events to the very thing from which the Liberal Unionists naturally shrunk—the prosecution of political Parliamentary opponents before magistrates removable at the pleasure of the Crown. It is now two hundred years since any English minister has ventured to pursue criminally politicians for saying things which the Opposition in the House approved of and agreed with. This Balfour has not only done, but has sought to aggravate it by treating them as ordinary criminals, and subjecting them to such indignities as prison rules permitted. In other words, he has infused a spice of personal hatred and contempt into his treatment of men who vote against him in the House of Commons, and whom the Liberal party support.

This reintroduction of ferocity into party politics in the England of to-day is, of course, an immense blunder, but it is a blunder which the proclamation of the League made necessary. If the Ministry had not used vigorously the powers given them by the Coercion Act, the desperate fight they made for its passage would have seemed a piece of great folly. But they might have confined themselves to pursuing small criminals. When they proclaimed the League, they had to attack orators and editors, and when they began to attack orators and editors who had an English party at their back, they inevitably recalled the old Tory methods of the days before the Reform Bill, when Leigh Hunt had to go to jail for calling the Prince of Wales a "fat Adonis." The meeting between Balfour and O'Brien in the House—that is, between the prisoner and his jailer—was therefore not only a dramatic, but a disagreeable scene to most English Liberals. O'Brien is, to be sure, a noisy and excitable person, but he is sincere and self-sacrificing, and it shocks people to have him treated as a common pickpocket because a jaunty young aristocrat like Balfour disapproves of his language on the platform.

The charge that O'Brien's and Blunt's language excited common people to the commission of crimes and offences is an old charge, which the Tories have always in every agitation brought against their political opponents. In every agitation there are ignorant or impulsive men who resort to violence under very slight stimulation from the press or the platform; but Liberals have never, in any country, admitted that this was a good reason for silence. The Republicans at the North were in this way made responsible for John Brown's raid into Virginia, and John Bright himself was accused in 1866, during the movement for an extension of the suffrage, of being dangerous to the public peace. He actually did say that if the popular demands were not conceded, "a great exhibition of opinion" might before long be converted into "a great exhibition of force." He then repelled the charge against himself in a memorable speech in London by saying:

"These opponents of ours, many of them secretly in the press, have charged us with being the promoters of a great and dangerous excitement. They say we are the source of the danger which threatens; they have absolutely the effrontery to charge me with being the friend of public disorder. I am one of the people. Surely, if there be one thing in a free country more clear than another, it is that any one of the people may speak openly to the people."

He then added that he was only warning of their danger men who were living on the side of a volcano, and ended by declaring that "the Tory party was the turbulent party of this nation." He described the turbulence and disorder then as now prevailing in Ireland, and described the naval and military preparations made to put it down, and hurled again at the Tories the taunt that "they had no remedy for this state of things but that ancient, and rude, and savage remedy, the remedy of military force." He also quoted, from an address from a Swiss convention to our Government after the war, a passage which he called "an expression of true philosophy and true statesmanship," to the effect that "unfinished questions have no pity for the repose of nations." This is as true of the existing situation as it was of that of twenty-two years ago.

The Irish question is emphatically one of those "unfinished questions" which have no pity for the repose of nations; and to try to keep it out of sight by putting half-a-dozen agitators into prison dress and making them pick oakum, is a bit of the childishness which has been a characteristic of Tory statesmanship ever since the conservatives of the world began to fight with the printing-press and call for silence.

A WARWICKSHIRE WORTHY.

WARWICKSHIRE, February 1, 1888.

Two days ago a group of some twenty persons were gathered together in the old Church of St. Mary's at Warwick, to do honor to one of Warwick's most distinguished sons. Hitherto, no visible record in the ancient midland town has reminded the inhabitants, or told the thousands of visitors who find their way thither every year, that Walter Savage Landor—of whom it was said that "he wrote English better than any man living, and his Latin was as good as his English"—was born in the solid, red-brick, Queen Anne house just outside the East Gate. Nay, many a dweller in Warwickshire only knows the name as connected with an honored member of the family who now owns the small remnant of the Tachbrook property sold by Landor in 1809 to his brother Henry. Verily, a prophet has no honor in his own country. But at last the great writer's family have taken the matter in hand. The words "Landor, Born 1775," over the door of the red-brick house will henceforth remind the passer-by who it was who saw the light in its panelled rooms, and the beautiful monument erected by his eldest surviving son in St. Mary's Church will perpetuate the memory of a master of English, the fellow-countryman of William Shakspere and George Eliot.

It was Landor's birthday, January 30, that had been chosen for the unveiling of his monument. As the first flakes of a snow-storm shattered down, darkening the great windows of the church, and the scanty knot of friends huddled together in their furs round the stoves in the nave, his own verses, composed on one of his birthdays, and among the best he ever wrote, appeared almost prophetic:

> "The day returns, my natal day,
> Borne on the storm and pale with snow,
> And seems to ask me why I stay,
> Stricken by Time and bow'd by Woe.
>
> "Many were once the friends who came
> To wish me joy; and there are some
> Who wish it now—but not the same;
> They are whence friends can never come;
>
> "Nor are they you my love watcht o'er
> Cradled in innocence and sleep.
> You smile into my eyes no more,
> Nor see the bitter tears they weep."

And yet, as we looked on the little assemblage, we thought it was just such an one as Landor himself would have cared for—very personal, very local. There were his nieces, who held him in warm affection apart from all admiration for his genius; a grandniece and grandnephew. Miss Percy had come from Guy's Cliff, where Landor must have wandered a hundred times about the Saxon Hermit's Cell. Lady Warwick had come from the Kingmaker's Castle to honor him who was known at Oxford as the "mad Jacobin." Two American ladies were there, whose presence reminded us that by our transatlantic cousins Landor has always been more warmly appreciated than by the public of his own country. There, too, were the mayor of his native town, a few neighbors, a few local clergy, a few friends of the family, and, lastly, a link with the warmest friendship of Landor's life, there came the venerable master of the Leicester Hospital (that enchanting labyrinth of black timbers, white panels, bears, and ragged staffs at the West Gate), at once the son-in-law and the nephew of Robert Southey. It was fitting he should be there, and, with a delightful touch of graceful sentiment, he carried in his hand a copy, bound in finest red morocco, of the rare edition of the ten 'Idyllia Heroica,' printed and published at Landor's own expense at Pisa in 1820. This copy the author had given to his friend Southey, and on the richly tooled cover we saw Landor's monogram, and looked with no little interest at a number of Latin notes and corrections in his handwriting scattered throughout the pages.

The little ceremony was simple enough: a few well-chosen words from the husband of one of Landor's nieces, as his surviving sons could not be in England; a word or two from the Vicar of St. Mary's. Then, as the red curtain fell, it revealed a recess of rich, brown-streaked Derbyshire alabaster, sunk deeply in the wall of the tower which Christopher Wren rebuilt, and in the recess the bust of this Warwickshire master of English prose resting on a book, with the simple words below, "Walter Savage Landor, born at Warwick, Jan. 30, 1775, died at Florence, Sept. 17, 1864." As his nephew-in-law well said, quoting a passage from 'Pericles and Aspasia'—those volumes, so full of pregnant sayings, of sonorous and perfectly balanced sentences: "The monument of the greatest man should be only a bust and a name. If the name alone is insufficient to illustrate the bust, let them both perish."

Save for the one exception of our American friends, the little company was, as we have said, eminently local, and we felt that Landor would have appreciated this strong Warwickshire flavor; for he was Warwickshire born and bred. Walter Savage Landor was the eldest son of the head of an old Staffordshire family, who, leaving his property in that county, had settled down to the practice of medicine in Warwick. His mother was one of four coheiresses of an ancient Warwickshire family, the Savages of Tachbrook, a pleasant country village equidistant some three miles from Warwick and Leamington. From his father he inherited the Staffordshire property. From his mother he not only inherited the Tachbrook estate, but that of Ipsley on the borders of Worcestershire, as well as a share of the reversionary interest in Hughenden Manor in Buckinghamshire, better known of late as the home of Lord Beaconsfield. His boyhood was entirely passed in his native county. He was first sent to school at the cruelly early age of four at Knowle, some ten miles from Warwick. Six years later he went to Rugby, while his holidays were spent at the two country houses on the Savage estates, or in the panelled red-brick house at Warwick.

Remarkably gifted, well born, well bred, handsome, healthy, and heir to considerable property, no life could promise better for happiness and success than that of young Walter, whose genius and whose charm exercised a powerful fascination on those who knew him. But all was marred by the ungovernable violence, the incurable unreason of his temperament, which burst forth at times, bringing him into collision with his father, with his masters, with Welsh stewards, with Italian police, with English publishers, with Austrian governors—at home and abroad, in public and in private, all through his long and tempestuous career. The story of his life is about as sad as any the history of letters can show. But all this is only too well known. We in Warwickshire have but to do with the sunnier side of his nature, for some of the happiest days in his stormy later life were those of the annual visit of a month or six weeks that he paid his sister, who lived on in the old Warwick house; and those who saw him on these occasions delight in telling of his kindliness, his courtliness, his affection. All through his years of wandering and exile he turned with a deep and abiding love to his old homes, to "the mulberries, cedars, and fig trees of the Warwick garden; the nut-walk and apricots of Tachbrook." The mulberry tree still lives. But the old red-brick house is now turned into a large public school for girls, and the stately garden where Landor and his sisters picked up mulberries—the garden he would fain have reproduced in Boccaccio's Valley at "aerial Fiesole"—is now a playground for the daughters of Warwick tradesmen and Warwickshire farmers. But the nut-walk at Tachbrook is kept by loving hands just as it was in the days when "Uncle Walter" wandered up and down it on his visits to his brother Henry, the happy possessor of the delicious seventeenth-century house of many gables nestling among the huge elm trees.

A worthy son of the county "that so great spirits has bred," the first English book that Landor bought with his own money at school was Drayton's 'Polyolbion.' One of his first schoolboy poems, written among the peppermint on the bank of the square pool at Rugby, was upon a Warwickshire subject, "Leofric and Godiva," which appeared years after as one of the most perfect of his dramatic dialogues. And his close acquaintance with the neighborhood of his native place, as well as his intense love for Shakspere, induced him to undertake that weighty composition which occupied him during a great part of his life in the Villa Gherardesca at Fiesole—'The Examination of William Shakspeare.' Some years before the work in its present form was actually begun, he wrote to Southey that "he was trembling at his own audacity in venturing to bring Shakspere upon the scene." But what was Landor if not audacious? It must, however, be confessed that, apart from its interest to those who know the accuracy of every local allusion—the red tiles of Snitterfield, the rich, damp meads of Alveston, and so forth—the volume does not compare favorably with the exquisite 'Pericles and Aspasia' that followed it. It is his longest and most sustained attempt at humorous writing; and, as Mr. Lowell remarks in his delightful and discriminating notice of Landor in the current number of the *Century*, we sometimes "cannot help feeling that his humor is horse-play," and "that he now and again misses the true mean that can be grave without heaviness and light without levity."

In Warwick Church, within whose walls lie some of those splendid patrons of letters of the time when England was a nest of singing birds—haughty Leicester, Ambrose, the "Good Earl of Warwick," Fulke Greville, whose solemn monument bears his proudest title, "the friend of Philip Sidney"—it is right that we should have a record of this later Warwickshire worthy. In these days of loose thinking and loose writing, it is good to remember that he has given us pages that will serve as models of pure English prose to all time. And Landor's bust in his native town may awaken the slumbering literary conscience in some who look upon it, and prove an incentive to graver thought, to more moderate and accurate expression, than is the fashion in our slipshod, hurried, feverish writing of the eighteen-eighties.

Massive and stately as his own massive and stately prose, his "leonine" head looks up the nave to that beautiful chancel with its almost

unique roof of double ribs above the founder's battered tomb. Not only is the bust, according to those who knew him best, an admirable likeness, but the artist, Mr. Forsyth, has given with remarkable success the courtly, dignified look of the well-bred man of the old school, the tender, humorous expression about the firm, proud mouth. As we gazed on his face we could well picture him, even in his later broken years, standing bareheaded as he helped his lady friends into their carriages, "full of beautiful, complimentary speeches, of quick and graceful retorts, of simple, old-fashioned presents and attentions." We could imagine, too, his vehement denunciations of modern manners and modern language, his humorous intolerance of slang, his unbounded wrath against such "corruptions" of classic English as "giant trees," "monster meetings," "palmy days," "pluck," "sham," "humbug," etc. He looks, as he felt himself to be, "a sentinel keeping guard over the honor and integrity of the English language." And, though traces of the passionate, ungoverned nature, of the "volcanic temperament," are not wanting, yet the impression left on one's mind by this admirable work of art is as it should be—the best of the man. Kind and tender, generous to a fault, utterly exempt from spite, meanness, or the jealousy of smaller minds, loyal in friendship, wholesome and courageous — such a man was Landor in spite of grave defects. "Caring not a straw for popularity and little more for fame," to use his own words, he went through life striving after the most severely accurate expression of the great thoughts that were in him. "I hate false words," he says, "and seek with care, difficulty, and moroseness those that fit the thing."

Landor has been and probably always will be "caviare to the general." Yet it is much to say of a man that more than twenty years after his death, more than ninety years after his first works appeared, he still holds his own —that his writings are as deeply appreciated by the few as they ever were. It is much that such a writer, such a critic, as Mr. Lowell should be able to say to-day, "He has uttered through the mask of his interlocutors . . . more wisdom on such topics of life and thought as interested or occurred to him than is to be found outside of Shakspere; and that in an English so pure, so harmonious, and so stirringly sonorous, that he might almost seem to have added new stops to the organ which Milton found sufficient for his needs."

R. G. K.

A TALK ON RELIGION WITH RENAN.

PARIS, February 4, 1888.

IT would have been not a little astonishing if, after all the noise made when from time to time a priest entered wedlock, a definitive decision of the Supreme Court recognizing the validity of such marriages caused no commotion in the public calmness. But the stir has been so well modulated that we are tempted to ask: "Where do we find ourselves? Is this placid public the same that so revolted at the *liberalism* of Père Hyacinthe?"—just as, two months ago, when the late President was dismissed without further notice than a month's wages in advance, we were questioning if this wholesome home-made recipe was compounded by the same people who had hitherto believed in no other detersive than revolutions. Decidedly we are undergoing a salubrious evolution, as was expressed by M. Renan in a nutshell when he said to Père Hyacinthe, the day after his marriage: "You will not be understood now, . . . but after your death your example will furnish the model of many romances."

M. Renan recognizes in the edict of the Court of Cassation but a step towards the era of liberty which he anticipates in religion—not that he thinks the Church is on the eve of a crisis, but that time is accomplishing its decrees. I had the good luck, for one who has questions to ask, to find the great philosopher alone in his study. The Collège de France, with its noble court-yard and grand stairways, its atmosphere laden with repose, seems to have been expressly created for the man who calls life a "promenade through reality." His study is the last of an *enfilade* of rooms on the second floor above the libraries and lecture-halls. In the midst of the simple grandeur and luxury of these apartments essentially classic, the visitor feels instinctively that the rumors of the outside world are transiently entertained there.

M. Renan has the strong features of a solid race and of a sedate thinker; his cast of countenance has often been likened to unctuous abbatial dignity. His eyes, quick and searching, close while the words come from his quiet mouth in ample sentences, with a musical completeness, divorced from passion and prejudice, that gives to the communication the charm of truth. It is difficult in that serene presence to discover a likeness to the medallion portrait sculptured some twenty-five years ago, and which, to escape being entirely defaced, had to be removed from the Museum of Narbonne. At that time there were fanatics ready to put to death the man who assumed the responsibility of retelling the precious legends, and of showing us a new portrait of the young martyr, divinely sympathetic, whose supreme love for mankind redeemed the whole world.

"Do you think that the sanction of the civil laws will encourage the Catholic priests to make a decided move towards matrimony?" was my first question.

Turning from his writing-table, heaped with documents for 'The History of Israël,' M. Renan reflectively said: "Few, very few priests will be influenced by the civil interference, for the reason that marriage means divorce from the Church. Church accepts every sacrifice, . . . gives nothing in return. No illusion is possible on the part of the priest who wishes to marry. Obedience is the essence of the hierarchy in the Catholic Church, and is more rigorously enforced than its dogmas. If there is no dogma in the Catholic Church prohibiting marriage to its priests—before Charlemagne's time some bishops were married — the law of celibacy is jealously enforced by a conventional law of obedience. Now the priest is free to marry, and society will greet him like any other citizen. But it is quite natural that his bishop, whom he has disobeyed, should take from him his post; it would be unreasonable not to expect this. If hitherto the position of the married ex-priest has been so irregular in the eyes of society, it was on account of the unsteadiness of civil justice when dealing with religious questions since the Concordat of 1801."

"But don't you think, monsieur, that the Church will eventually make a compromise, and admit of its officers becoming men of family, as we see in other creeds?"

"Doubtless we should rejoice to see such modifications, but we dare not hope for them. Dissenters will arise and repeat the example of Père Hyacinthe; it is the fate of the Church to be ruptured by schisms. But Catholicism is too old a religion to admit of changes. Père Hyacinthe annulled the great influence he might have exerted by preaching that which the French could never become reconciled to—a married priest celebrating the mass."

"This prejudice of a Catholic-born but Voltairian nation was well expressed by M. Guizot, when he wrote Dean Stanley that there were French who disbelieved in God but maintained the celibacy of priests," I said.

"Very true; but the old Catholicism is immovable, and will vary without varying. Its very inflexibility will be the cause of the diminishing of its influence. Confession, so well suited to mediæval ages, is full of dangers in modern society. However, all these changes must be wrought without violent shocks. We have but to follow the evolutions until the old prejudices wear themselves out."

"Then you are not so sanguine as the fascinating Carmelite who undertook the delicate mediation between the Church and the feverish world? Père Hyacinthe is more hopeful: he finds but three changes necessary for Catholicism to resume its triumphant and evangelic march through coming ages—not to enforce belief in the Pope's infallibility, to make confession optional, and to allow the priest to marry."

M. Renan smiled, and, lowering his voice (which for a moment lent the illusion of being in a sacristy), continued: "What is more necessary is liberty—liberty for every man to compress the juice of the religion that pleases him best, to make of it an aliment. The infinite must be free to all, that man may erect structures, ideal and chimerical, according to his heart's dictates. Each one must be allowed to indulge his own romance fashioned as it pleases him, . . . allowed to accept the meaning of God in his own way. Religion is all signification, and depends for its transformation on the degree of culture in societies where it is nourished. For the countryman it is still a necessity; he will be the last to recede from the old forms, for he will require something in its stead. Sunday seems to have been expressly invented for the purpose of social gatherings in the scattered, simple life of country folk. The provinces will for some time require the priest to serve mass and confession; it is an agreeable diversion. In large centres the higher circles make religion a less frequent topic of conversation, and it seldom furnishes the cause of controversy. . . . Catholics and Protestants may spend days together without showing a desire to proselyte. All this I consider propitious to future liberality. . . . We are fast receding from many of the false laws of society as we have done from our beliefs in the supernatural. The question of marriage is incidental. The time may come when, both in religious and civil motives, it will no longer be a stumbling-block. Love will be consecrated without that ceremony we now call marriage, and those unions will be sanctioned by society. The world is already more charitable to those who love purely and disinterestedly; and the woman who is guided by her affection finds judges more lenient than the one who has learned that youth and beauty have a value."

And thus the conversation went on. I listened not to the demolishing of worlds, but to the construction of a fair one—not a world of dreams, but a land M. Renan had visited on his journey to the Promised Land. Emanating from the judgments of M. Renan is the faith in evolution and of the world's perfection thereby. He laughingly alluded to the favorite theory that the dawn and decline of centuries mark distinctive eras in the history of nations. He thinks the division of centuries purely accidental—each might have begun in the year 50; that the influence of Voltaire and J. J.

Rousseau was momentary—they are little responsible for the present current of ideas. Time composes its epochs. Evolution will bring a satisfactory régime in politics when the hand at the helm will be firm and the agents of administration conscientious, when literature will assume a more settled condition and return to its delicacy and refinement, etc.

"One cannot leave you, monsieur, without asking, independent of Eastern languages and obscure literatures, what alphabet brought you nearest the cradle of Christianity?"

"The Germans," he said, pointing to the well-filled book-shelves. "I follow closely the current of German thought. The union of so many learned individualities composes a sum of knowledge without a parallel. The English are masters of a literature that, in poetical philosophy, has reached incomparable heights, but they are not accustomed to critical science, and have not a sufficient historic lore to handle the great problems which are to bring our religion to its starting-point. Oxford and Cambridge turn out some distinguished students, but too many of them are intended to swell the numbers of an aristocratic society living on good terms with the Church; and the clergyman's knowledge of divinity is limited. What is most necessary for him in order to hold an honorable place by the 'squire is a sufficient fear of the devil. But for the last few years the most assiduous have made little progress, and the great problem slumbers."

"And after a life well filled, the consciousness of a duty well done, what is there behind?"

"Mystery, mystery. Speculations on the ultimate end of man are too *mesquins*. . . . For my own part, I believe that he who has sought the right and truth for their own sake will not have done so with loss. . . . There may be fine surprises on the other side. . . . It is better that we should know nothing. Those who do good with a future reward in view have no more merit than the one who invests in an enterprise that promises profitable returns. A good man is not one forewarned."

LE COCQ DE LAUTREPPE.

Correspondence.

RISE AND FALL OF PRICES UNDER THE TARIFF.

To the Editor of The Nation:

SIR: The assertion of Senator Edmunds, supported in *Harper's* by specifications that show the need of extraordinary mathematical dexterity in handling them in order to reach the results there enounced, is one repeated so often and so confidently in the polemic of protection, that it has seemed worth while to compound somewhat carefully the force of the tariff with the general natural movement of prices, in order to ascertain the general direction of the resultant, and to see whether the tariff really deflects that movement downward. Accordingly, I have been at pains to calculate from official data the rise and fall in foreign price of forty-seven principal classes of duty free, and ninety-six principal classes of dutiable articles during the last decade, from June 30, 1878, to June 30, 1887. As far as possible to eliminate transient irregularities, the average of the averages for the first five years has been compared in the case of each article with the average of the averages of the last five years—and with the following result:

Duty free—A total fall of 885 per cent. on 35 classes, an average fall of 25 per cent. (about); a total rise of 155 per cent. on 12 classes, an average rise of 13 per cent.; a net fall of 730 per cent. on 47 classes, an average net fall of 15.5 per cent.

Dutiable—A total fall of 1031 per cent. on 65 classes, an average fall of 16 per cent.; a total rise of 600 per cent. on 31 classes, an average rise of 19.3 per cent.; a net fall of 431 per cent. on 96 classes, an average net fall of 4.5 per cent.

Of duty-free articles the price has fallen thrice as often as it rose and twice as far; of dutiable articles the price has fallen a little more than twice as often as it rose, but only a little more than four-fifths as far. In both cases there has been on the general average a fall; but the rate of fall has been nearly three and a half times as great in case of duty-free as in case of dutiable articles. Since the line of price slopes downward three times as fast in case of duty-free articles, the force of the tariff must have been an upward thrust, and equal on the average to a rise of about 11 per cent. per lustrum, over 2 per cent. per year.

That such a result might have been expected is not, indeed, hard to show, but does not fall within the scope of this communication.

Yours, W. B. SMITH.

UNIVERSITY OF MISSOURI,
COLUMBIA, MO., February 11, 1888.

MR. EDMUNDS AS A LOGICIAN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

SIR: Is not Senator Edmunds's article on the tariff in the February *Harper* somewhat contradictory? The different parts do not fit well together.

The argument seems to be that a high tariff protects American industries by keeping up prices, because, if we lower the tariff—prices will fall? Not a bit of it; but because they will be materially as high as ever! And then the Senator gives prices and makes statements to prove this assertion in the case of certain articles. This truly curious result he attributes to the tax being paid principally by the foreign producer and not by the domestic consumer, and concludes that most probably the United States customs duties on other commodities are derived from a similar source.

"But," says the Senator, "it by no means follows from these instances that a general reduction or abolition of duties upon articles competing with those produced in the United States would not be followed by a fall of prices." It seems more logical to say that if the price of a certain article is independent of the duty *because* the duty is paid by the producer, then the prices of other articles, the duties on which are paid by the producer, would also be independent of the duty.

H. F. REID.

CLEVELAND, O., February 16, 1888.

THE TARIFF AND THE AMERICAN COLONY IN EUROPE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

SIR: Anybody with a little leisure to look about him in Europe is apt to be struck with the fact that there are permanently settled here too many Americans who are badly needed at home—men of leisure and capacity to help on education, the administration of charity, and the improvement of politics. In the older countries, a wealthy aristocracy supplies such men, and such functions are regarded as their natural duty, though, like any other duty, it is often neglected.

Now, is it simply run away from by the Americans alluded to, or are they forced away? Many of them are. Their absence is one of the results of our high tariff. It makes the cost of living in America twice as high as in many attractive places abroad, and many men of fixed incomes that would, under a reasonable system, give them leisure to attend to this important class of duties, are now forced either to sacrifice it at home or enjoy it abroad.

They are of the very class, however, which the man who depends on politics for a living most hates and dreads; so to the many blessings already attributed to the tariff must be added the "protection" of "the boys" against "the gentleman in politics."

Your obedient servant, H. H.

HANOVER, GERMANY, January 26, 1888.

OUR ODIOUS BOOK TARIFF.

To the Editor of The Nation:

SIR: Desiring to obtain a particular book recently, I found it necessary to order it from a London agency. The book was not the latest three-volume novel nor one that Mr. Mudie purchases by the hundreds. In fact, the book was first published a century and a quarter before George the Third "refused his assent to laws the most wholesome for the public good." When the book arrived at the post-office of the town where I live, I was compelled to pay customs dues; and after they were paid, I computed the per cent. and found it to be somewhat more than 27 per cent. upon *first cost, commission, and postage.* These customs dues I found were for the protection of American authors. Failing to see wherein any American author or publisher could possibly be protected, I turned to Johnson's Dictionary to find a possible meaning of the word "protection" that would cover this case. In this I failed, but I found the following, which satisfies all the requirements of the case:

"EXCISE—*A hateful tax levied upon commodities, and adjudged not by the common judges of property, but by wretches hired by those to whom excise is paid.*"

In conclusion, I will say that the book is not printed upon parchment. Y.

A PARALLEL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

SIR: One who remembers the pro-slavery newspaper literature of thirty years ago and reads the protectionist journals of to-day, will note a striking likeness—the same vocabulary, style, spirit, and method. Transpose the words "abolitionist" and "free-trader," and either would serve very well in the other's place.

Both deprecate and dread all questions of absolute right and wrong, and, instead, challenge attention to so-called facts relative to the condition of the laborer under their respective systems, compared to that of the "white slaves" or "pauper laborers" of Europe. The slavery advocate had one more string to his bow—an argument relative to Christianizing the heathen—and could quote from Scripture that the Lord gave Abraham "many servants and much cattle"; but whoever quoted "Thou shalt not steal," and made the application, condemning the appropriation of the products of another's labor, was called a "theorist," a "doctrinaire," precisely as in the protectionist literature of to-day.

The slave-owner took from the slave whatever his labor produced in excess of a bare subsistence. The protectionist compels the freedman to contribute a portion of his earnings to fill the purses of the Ohio wool-grower, the Syracuse salt-miner, and all the various manufacturers who have so hedged him in with tariffs, combinations, and trusts that he cannot

run away from the involuntary servitude. The hoe in his hand, the steel rail on which his cotton starts for Liverpool, are these new task-masters' means of extortion. Lately they have granted him free-trade quinine, with a fall in price from $6 per ounce to $1—an inconsistency, unless with a view of keeping him longer in the world for more extended protection. His former master was liberal with medicine.

In some of its aspects, the philanthropy of the advocates of slavery was broader than that of the protectionists. They were willing to Christianize, in their way, all of Africa, while the protectionist abhors to help the pauper labor of Europe, so long as it remains in Europe, and is beginning to obstruct its coming here. Its coming "under contract" is prohibited. Political economy teaches that this apotheosis of national selfishness is not political wisdom even in a mere economic point of view. But there are some plain people who believe in economic science and also in a higher law; who hold that every man has a natural right to the free use of the products of his labor, either to consume or to exchange wherever he can get the most value, without hindrance from any, whether their claim be founded upon a slave deed or its in some measure equivalent—a "protective" law. Such persons are "doctrinaires," "abolitionists," "free-traders." A. J. Coe.

Meriden, Conn., February 17, 1888.

THE LARD BILL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The editorial note in the last issue of the *Nation* with regard to the Lard Bill now before Congress is a sound statement of the impolicy of the legislation desired. Bills of this character are unconstitutional and absurd. That Congress has no police power, except such as is necessary to enforce or facilitate the collection of revenue, has been repeatedly declared by the United States Supreme Court (New York vs, Miln, 11 Pet. 102; License Cases, 5 How. 504; Passenger Cases, 7 How. 284; License Tax Cases, 5 Wall. 462; Petroleum Case, 9 Wall. 41; Slaughter-House Case, 16 Wall. 36).

It is absurd to contend that such bills are not police regulations. Their purpose, history, provisions, and operation preclude the possibility of an honest doubt on the subject. They are designed to prevent fraud, not to collect revenue. The Oleomargarine Bill, although entitled, "An Act defining butter, and imposing, etc., a tax upon oleomargarine," was referred to the Agricultural Committee, whereas a revenue bill is referred to the Committee on Ways and Means. It provides that a stamp shall be affixed to all packages containing oleomargarine, which is not a revenue stamp, but a warning to the purchaser that the contents are oleomargarine. Its operation is to prevent deception.

All this is proper enough, if enacted by a State, whose duty it is to guard against fraud; but the general Government has nothing to do with police regulations of this character, and it is in the highest degree dangerous to the autonomy and responsibility of the States to suffer such legislation to pass uncriticised.

Yours truly, J. H. L.

St. Louis, February 13, 1888.

BYRON EXPLAINED BY SCHILLER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the noble bit of prose, "On the Use of the Chorus in Tragedy," prefaced to Schiller's "Braut von Messina," the author makes brief but pregnant reference to the deficiencies of a certain order of poets, which may well supplement your recent article on Byron, and may further aid your readers in accounting for his waning reputation. The author, after emphasizing the truth that ideality and reality are properly united in the great poet, who gives his readers no dreamy fancies, however novel or entertaining, but the actual wisdom of the world, separated from its oppressive commonplace, and after despatching with little ceremony "him whom nature has indeed endowed with true sensibility and depth of feeling, but to whom it has denied creative imagination," adds the following, which scarcely a decade later found striking exemplification in Byron:

"Wem hingegen zwar eine rege Phantasie, aber ohne Gemüth und Character, zu Theil geworden, der wird sich um keine Wahrheit bekümmern, sondern mit dem Weltstoff nur spielen, nur durch phantastische und bizarre Combinationen zu überraschen suchen; und wie sein ganzes Thun nur Schaum und Schein ist, so wird er zwar für den Augenblick unterhalten, aber im Gemüth Nichts erbauen und begründen."

Repeated perusal of these lines of Schiller only strengthens my admiration of the profound insight which is the essence of prophecy, and I find in them the most forcible explanation yet presented to me of Byron's transient popularity—his sensational appeals to the fancy, his disregard of all artistic and moral law, his contemptuous mockery of the wisest and most sacred wisdom of the past.—Very truly yours,

Jos. I. Helfman.

Detroit, Mich., February 6, 1888.

Notes.

A parallel series to the "American Commonwealths" is announced by D. Lothrop Co., Boston, under the editorial conduct of Mr. Elbridge S. Brooks, who will himself contribute the 'Story of New York.' The other States as yet assigned seem to have fallen into apt hands—Massachusetts to the Rev. E. E. Hale, California to Noah Brooks, Missouri to Mrs. Frémont, Virginia to Marion Harland, etc. A picturesque and popular style is aimed at.

'Famous American Statesmen,' by Mrs. Sarah K. Bolton, and a 'Life of Lafayette,' for the young, by Mrs. Lydia Hoyt Farmer, are in the press of T. Y. Crowell & Co.

Thomas Whittaker has in preparation "The Contemporary Pulpit Library," a series of sermons by the foremost preachers of the time, Canon Liddon leading off.

Cassell & Co. announce 'John Bull, jr.,' by Max O'Rell, and 'A Pocket Dictionary of Etiquette.'

G. W. Dillingham will bring out an English version of Renan's 'Abbess of Jouarre,' and a dinner receipt-book called 'Savories à la Mode.'

Longmans, Green & Co. issue directly a 'Treatise on Astronomy,' by Richard A. Proctor. It will appear in twelve monthly parts, with cuts and plates.

An 'Introduction to Chemical Science,' by R. P. Williams, is announced by Ginn & Co.

The late Gen. Emory Upton left in manuscript a work on the 'Military Policy of the United States.' The fact that it was unfinished doubtless furnishes the pretext for a resolution introduced in Congress for its purchase by the Government, completion, and publication.

The second annual report of the Librarian of the Enoch Pratt Free Library, Baltimore, shows that thus far only English books have been accessible to its patrons. Some 700 German works are about to be thrown open, after cataloguing, and as many French a little later.

Prof. F. W. Putnam tells, in his late report to the Trustees of the Peabody Museum of American Archæology and Ethnology at Cambridge, of the acquisition of the great Serpent Mound, 1,400 feet long, in Adams County, Ohio, its clearing, sowing, and fencing, and otherwise being preserved while yet made attractive as a public resort.

In the annual report of Gen. Francis A. Walker, President of the Boston Institute of Technology, we read: "Our experience, at least, furnishes no support to the view that, in order to make a school popular, the requirements for admission or continuance must be placed low, or, if the theoretical standard be high, administrative concessions must be freely made to the spirit of indolence or frivolity, or to the demands of sport or of society." The elective system works well, "options which offer the largest capabilities" being generally chosen. Nearly sixty per cent. of the students come from Massachusetts, but the range is very great. The average entrance age is rising and is now eighteen and a half years. Twenty-five women attend the Institute, of whom four are college graduates.

What we recently had to say about intercollegiate athletic contests has brought us some private approbation from college officers, and we trust has evoked more than has been expressed. The general subject of athletics was being at the same time discussed in the *Cornell Era* by the officers of that institution, by request of the editors—all rendering to athletics their due, some inclining to "hysterical demonstrations" on their behalf, and others, more or less guardedly, deprecating the abuse of them. Prof. B. G. Wilder anticipated us in our line of argument, though stopping short of our conclusion. He found the defence of intercollegiate contests reducible to two allegations, viz., "(1) that certain students, 'gifted with an uncontrollable exuberance of energy,' are thereby 'kept out of mischief,' and (2) that the institution is 'advertised' by its victories and even by its honorable defeats." This reasoning he very properly regards as irrelevant. Nor does he seem to favor the plea for special consideration for athletes in examinations (Gen. Walker's "administrative concessions . . . to the demands of sport"), which we find in the *Cornell Sun* of January 9. The *Sun* is naïvely distressed by "the damper on athletics in the shape of dropping athletes." "How," it asks, "can an average student get along in this University if he devotes three or four hours a day in careful training?"

In default of any news in regard to Cornell's share in future college tournaments, we are glad to announce that the University has appointed, as her representatives at the approaching celebration of the University of Bologna, Prof. T. F. Crane of the Faculty, and Mr. Eugene Schuyler, formerly a lecturer before the University.

The double number of the *Library Journal* for September-October, 1887, contains in full the proceedings at the Thousand Islands Conference last summer. It furnishes most stimulating reading, and impresses one anew with a sense of the wide-awake, active spirit which animates the members of the American Library Association. Practical information drawn from experience abounds in the papers read and in the discussions they excited. The value of some of the hints is inestimable—to small libraries in particular. Several leading houses

have provided for this issue lists of works by American authors published by them.

Shakespeariana for February opens with a satisfactory summary account of "Shakspere Music," mention being made especially of the operatic renderings of the several plays. A list of "societies known to be engaged in reading Shakspere" is given on p. 88. One of these meets "in a log cabin in the woods of southern Minnesota, on cold stormy nights in winter, after the ranch work is done." The list is universal as regards locality. It numbers upwards of 110. Philadelphia seems to be the chief seat of the cult—or it may have been more thoroughly reported.

Library Bulletin, No. 8, of the University of California (Supplement to the Report of the Secretary of the Board of Regents) lies before us, a pamphlet of 68 pages, with the title, 'References for Students of Miracles, Plays, and Mysteries,' by Francis H. Stoddard, A.M. The University is to be congratulated upon having so enterprising a laborer on its staff of instructors. The work is excellently done. The first section is taken up with titles of works upon this section of the drama; the second section with editions of plays not English (notably, of course, Latin Liturgical and French); the third section with the religious drama in England. At the end, a large folding sheet gives a conspectus of the contents of all extant English mystery plays. In twelve vertical columns the plays are arranged by sets or groups, from Towneley to Norwich; in forty-eight horizontal lines the contents, from Creation to Judgment. Every possessor of this pamphlet will deem himself lucky. It would be difficult to devise a more helpful guide to the practical study of a vast and intricate subject.

The Astor Library, during the year 1887, as we learn from the annual report of the Trustees, acquired 1,096 books by purchase and 1,379 by gift.

No. 27 of the Bibliographical Contributions of the Library of Harvard University consists of an ingenious reconstruction of a missing book of records, by means of an index and marginal references left by President Wadsworth, by Mr. Andrew McFarland Davis; and of catalogues of the books given to the Library by John Harvard, Peter Bulkley, Sir Kenelme Digby, and Gov. Bellingham. President Dunster, who wrote the Harvard catalogue, at first spelt the donor's name as Hervertus, changing it to Harvardus. The collection embraced almost no works except in Latin or English.

In the latest *Bollettino* of the Biblioteca Nazionale Centrale of Florence, we find mention of the impending publication of C. C. Jewett's Rules for cataloguing ("questo classico Codice") in the *Biblioteca di Bibliografia e Paleografia.*

Students of the Italian invasion of eastern Africa will be profited by Pippo Vigoni's article on "Massaua e il Nord dell' Abissinia" in the fourth supplement to the Milan *Perseveranza* (*Rivista Scientifico-Letteraria*). It is accompanied by a much needed map. The *Illustrazione Italiana*, by the way, is now publishing numerous photographic engravings of views in the forsaken region about Massowah.

A welcome addition to South American cartography accompanies Dr. Wilhelm Sievers's report on the Sierra Nevada de Santa Marta and the conjoined Sierra de Perijá in No. 133-134 of the Journal of the Berlin Geographical Society (D. Reimer). The mountainous region described lies in the extreme northern portion of Colombia, in the State of Magdalena, bordering on Venezuela. The map is on a scale of 1 : 500,000. The expedition was made at the charge of the Society in 1886. The Sierra Nevada is one of the oldest formations of the earth's surface; the Sierra de Perijá much more recent, and an evident member of the Andean system, being a continuation of the eastern cordillera of Colombia. The Sierra Nevada, on the other hand, Dr. Sievers is at present disposed to connect with a mountain chain protracted easterly through the Goajira peninsula and the adjacent islands of Aruba, Curaçao, and Bon-Air, and so on to the Lesser Antilles.

M. Henri Gaidoz, at the opening of the fourth volume of *Mélusine*, pays such a tribute to M. Eugène Rolland (who now withdraws from the collaboration of this folk-lore journal) as any scholar should be proud to receive. M. Rolland's worth, modesty, thoroughness, originality, and fecundity of production are set forth in the most becoming and genial manner conceivable.

The name of the new *Directeur* of the *Revue Bleue*, M. Alfred Rambaud, appears at the head of the number for February 4. A note from the Administrative Board informs its readers that M. Eugène Yung himself, just before his death, selected M. Rambaud for his successor, and that they only confirmed this choice at their meeting of January 25, when they elected him unanimously. M. Rambaud is the well-known writer and professor of modern and contemporary history in the Paris Faculty of Letters. When Jules Ferry became Minister of Public Instruction, he chose M. Rambaud for his *chef de cabinet.* The latter has written the most concise and satisfactory history of the French Revolution for popular use that exists, and a valuable 'Histoire de la Civilisation Française,' of which the second volume, from the Fronde to the Revolution, was published last year, and of which the third, 'Histoire de la Civilisation Contemporaine en France,' is announced for immediate publication. This is his most important work, but he has written much besides in various reviews and elsewhere, principally historical and critical articles, having some connection with France in the early part of the present century. Some of the most interesting of these relate to Russia, which he has visited, and of which he has written a short history, spoken of as excellent. He has even contributed to the *Revue Bleue* (under a pseudonym, as the note which announces his election informs its readers), some of the short stories which occasionally appear in its pages.

Two volumes of the 'Mémoires d'un Royaliste,' by the Comte de Falloux, have just been issued by Perrin (Boston: Schoenhof). It is from the portion of the Mémoires contained in these volumes that the *Correspondant* has been publishing very abundant and interesting fragments during the past year, of which the latest belong to the period of the *Coup d'État.* Faithful Royalist and Legitimist as the Comte de Falloux was, his political revelations have been by no means satisfactory in all cases to other faithful Royalists; but they throw much light upon the past and present dissensions in the party, and especially upon the conduct of its political and religious leaders during a most interesting and little understood period of French history.

We cannot recall a "first number" in any periodical venture which more nearly satisfies the ideal than does the *Technology Architectural Review*, nominally issued on November 15, 1887, by the architectural department of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. "It is essentially a folio of plates, and not of text matter," and reproduces the "mentioned" designs or *projets* made at the Institute, with occasional departure from this limit, as in the present number, where will be found a quarter-scale drawing, by Emmanuel Brune, of the highest technical excellence, after remains of classic architecture at Cori. The very creditable school designs relate to a casino and a fountain for a public park. The execution of these heliotype plates, as of the letter-press, is admirable.

—The fifth volume of Mr. John Bigelow's edition of Franklin's Works (G. P. Putnam's Sons) covers the most of four years, 1772-1775, during which time Franklin was in London as the agent of the colonies—of Massachusetts in particular. He became convinced in his own mind that revolution and separation were inevitable, but he spared no pains by direct representations to the Government and its supporters, and by satirical articles and pamphlets, to expose the situation so that the blame should fall where it belonged. It was during this period that the Boston tea party occurred, followed by the Port Bill. Franklin transmitted to the Bay authorities the Hutchinson letters which were placed in his hands. He landed in America just after the battle of Lexington and before Bunker's Hill. The volume concludes with a draught of Articles of Confederation from his hand. Of peculiar interest is the encounter with Lord Hillsborough over the question of encouraging the settlement of the Ohio valley—a matter which fills nearly one-seventh of the book. The British political economy of that day regarded any development of the interior of this continent as certain to diminish British trade, by raising up a population beyond the reach of commerce. Franklin's successful refutation of this nonsense is still profitable reading. The doctrine of the present day, that American prosperity will be undermined by free exchange with Great Britain, exhibits as wise a jealousy of the seaboard as Hillsborough's argument "to prevent manufactures" did of the interior. Among the scientific topics touched on in Franklin's letters are spots on the sun and the stilling of waves by oil—the last being discussed at some length with evidence from personal experiment and from hearsay. He tells of oil coming to the surface and burning on the surface of some New Jersey rivers, and this is worth remembering now that petroleum is alleged to have been found by boring in Ocean County. He objects to the prevalent hypotheses in regard to the causes of taking cold, at some length and with much sense. The letter of September 30, 1774, introduces to Richard Bache Mr. Thomas Paine, who is "very well recommended to me as an ingenious, worthy young man," who "goes to Pennsylvania with a view of settling there," and would like "employment as a clerk, or assistant tutor in a school, or assistant surveyor," being capable of all, as Franklin thinks. Here, also, is that famous letter (July 5, 1775) to Mr. Strahan, M.P., King's printer, London, ending: "You are now my enemy, and I am, Yours, B. Franklin." That proverbial expression of our civil war, "Wayward sisters, depart in peace," is anticipated by the Dean of Gloucester's appeal to the Government to "let the wayward sisters—the colonies—go" (p. 286).

—Mr. Leonard A. Jones has laid the public, and especially lawyers and legal students, under a debt of gratitude for his admirable 'Index to Legal Periodical Literature' (Boston: Charles C. Soule). It will be an invaluable help, unlocking as it does the treasures, heretofore so largely hidden, of all "the legal journals of America, England, Scotland, Ireland, and the English colonies," as well as

"such articles in the principal literary reviews and magazines of these countries as seemed to belong properly to legal literature," and the proceedings of bar associations, social-science associations, and the Statistical Society. Of the author's really immense labor in preparing this book one gets a livelier idea when he reads that "all the reports of the American courts, some three thousand volumes, have been examined volume by volume, in order to make references to the proceedings in court and eulogies upon the occasion of the decease of eminent judges and lawyers." The book is a handsome quarto (pp. xix, 635), and is printed and bound in very attractive style. Some errors are probably inseparable from such a portentous undertaking as this; one such we notice in setting down "G. S. Hall" as a legal author, and attributing to him a learned, witty, and widely reprinted essay upon "Seals," written by Mr. G. S. Hale of Boston. But such a book as this should not be left with fault-finding as the last word; rather with the most hearty thanks to both author and publisher for so great a help to legal studies—thanks in behalf of all English-speaking lawyers for what will be no less useful in England and its dependencies than here.

—Teachers of Chaucer will gladly welcome Henry Sweet's 'Second Middle English Primer: Extracts from Chaucer, with Grammar and Glossary' (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan). Within the limits of 120 pages the editor has given, we do not say all that one should know of Chaucer's language and versification, but all that one should attempt to teach to an ordinary class. Indeed, the passed Chaucerian will find himself enlightened by the little primer at more than one point. The grammar is meagre, but perhaps ample enough for its purpose. In parenthesis, will Sweet never give up his *Fall-Shake-Bind* conjugation? One might almost fancy that the editor of the Oldest English Texts had never heard of Paul, Braune, and Sievers. Chaucerian pronunciation has been treated at length and with exceeding care. The 'Complaint to Pity' and the first 117 lines of the 'Prologue' have even been transliterated into the editor's phonetic notation. We might take exception to certain views of pronunciation here laid down, but we cannot enter into matters of detail. In the selection of pieces, Sweet has been governed by the principle of avoiding conflict with Skeat's Chaucer volume in the series. That has not prevented him from giving 714 lines of the 'Prologue.' But who could undertake to teach Chaucer from any point of view without giving the 'Prologue'? We commend the primer most warmly.

—The interest in the 'Teaching of the Twelve Apostles,' which has never abated since the publication of the famous Bryennios MS. in 1883, will be still further enhanced by the facsimile edition, just published by the Johns Hopkins University under the editorship of Professor J. Rendel Harris, whose eminent fitness for the work has been shown by his various studies in the 'Didaché.' Of the admirable manner in which Professor Harris has discharged his editorial office some notice may be expected hereafter; but without any disparagement of the importance of the editor's work, the student's eye will first be attracted by the superb facsimile of the MS., and his first thought will be one of admiration of the Cambridge (Eng.) University Press—not unmixed, perhaps, with regret that the honor of this part also is not America's. But while the mechanical execution is indeed worthy of all praise, those who know the inside history of the quest of the Bryennios MS. will not stop here, for these ten plates represent protracted effort, patient waiting, and happy concurrence.

—The East does not yield its manuscript treasures so readily as once it did. The mere mention of the Codex Sinaiticus is enough to fire the heart of the Oriental monk; and when we reflect that the patriarchate which formerly held the Codex Alexandrinus was not rich enough to buy the facsimile when it appeared, and only received it as a present a few months ago, through the intervention of an American scholar and divine, we may begin to understand why the permission to photograph such a MS. as the 'Didaché' could not be procured without resort to diplomacy, and that, when procured, the permission was not immediately followed by performance. However, the Johns Hopkins University was fortunate in its ambassador, Dr. C. R. Hale, who brought to bear not only a fraternal interest in the Greek Church, but a contagious warmth of human sympathy which overcame any prejudices that may have lingered in the minds of the Archimandrite and Patriarch. First came the photographs of three pages of the MS., then a long pause. The MS. was transferred from Constantinople to Jerusalem, and with the transfer the whole matter seemed to have fallen into abeyance. The clerical intermediary was no longer on the ground, and there was no response to the tokens of respect and regard which the American university had sent to his Blessedness the Patriarch of Jerusalem. But the Patriarch of Jerusalem had not forgotten his promise to Dr. Hale; and what the American churchman had initiated was happily completed by the mediation of the secular arm, and the American consul, Mr. Gillman, had the pleasure of transmitting to the university at Baltimore the much coveted photographs, which are so admirably reproduced in this memorable volume. One of the most important lessons of this whole transaction—protracted as it was through more than three years—is the proof that under all the forms and phrase-makings of Oriental life there is to be found a genuine response to true kindness, just as in the wonderful flourishes of Oriental calligraphy we make out name after name to which the Western as well as the Eastern Christian owes reverence and love.

—While it is not held, even in divinity schools, that the moral teaching of clergymen is *invariably* sound, it is taken for granted, even by laymen, that moral questions appear to them through a clearer medium—that to them the ethical light is less refracted, so to speak, by "practical considerations," than it is to ordinary persons. The only (so far as we know) clerical opponents of international copyright are Dr. E. E. Hale, and the Rev. Olney I. Darling; the latter's views we find expressed in the *Universalist Quarterly* for January. Mr. Darling believes that the authority competent to decide on the value of an author's labor is not himself, but his readers—not the producer, but the consumer. Every writer, he says, has the benefit of a local monopoly, and this is not only all he ought to have, but it is sufficient (combined with other, non-pecuniary rewards) to produce all the literature that is needed. On the other hand, the thousand-to-one proportion of the public, who write no books, ought not to have their mental food artificially made dearer. The argument that protection against unremunerated, alias "pauper," labor is needed by native authors is the only one which Mr. Darling thinks it worth while to combat, and we may add that it is the only one which seems to obtain any attention from the politicians, who, though very unwillingly, admit that brain-workers cannot logically be excluded from the benefits of "the American system."

—We are surprised, however, that none of them have advocated the bounty plan, which would be much more democratic and "American" than international copyright, both because the foreigner would get no benefit from it, and because its rewards would be more generally distributed. An aristocratic form of the bounty system exists in Norway, where certain authors, in compensation for losses attributable to the want of international copyright, receive from the national treasury a fixed annual sum. This, of course, would never do here, because it sets up a foreign standard of merit, inasmuch as only those authors whose books have been reprinted abroad can claim such compensation. Now the American system cares nothing about such persons as are unpatriotic enough to have commercial dealings with Europe, but it may be supposed, figuratively speaking, to have at heart the interests of native authors, citizenship being taken as the sole test of merit. To one Holmes, or Parkman, or Howells, there would be hundreds of Texas historians, and Michigan poets, and *Ledger* novelists, if the Government would pay on each copy sold a bounty equal, let us say, to the proposed bounty on sugar. Besides, this plan would reduce the surplus without reducing the tariff, and would offer an encouragement to education, especially in those States where, owing to the lack of it, authors are scarce. Senators Blair and Platt and Sherman are, we believe, themselves authors, so we confidently commend our plan to their careful consideration.

—The opening article in the *Contemporary Review* for February is a singularly clear and convincing exposition of the relative conditions of "Islam and Christianity in India." It is unsigned, but the author is evidently a person who has a thorough knowledge of his subject, gained not from books, but from personal observation and study of the Indian character. Starting with the statement that every fifth Indian is a Mohammedan, he asserts that 90 per cent. of these fifty millions are Indians by blood and Mohammedans either by birth or by conviction. The apostles of Islam came preaching "the haughtiest, the most clear-cutting, and the least elevated form of monotheism ever taught in this world" to a people hopelessly bewildered amid a chaos of faiths. That the laxity of sexual ethics in the new faith was no source of attraction is shown by the multitude of Hindu women who accept of it, though each thereby "loses her hope of heaven and the security of her position on earth both together." Considering all the advantages which the Mussulman missionaries have, especially in being Asiatics, the slowness of their progress, barely fifty thousand converts in a year, is difficult to account for. The chief obstacles are the dogged resistance of the priesthood, and the saturation of the Hindu mind with Pantheism. While it is doubtful whether the Mohammedans are better men than the Hindus, still the writer believes that in time they will hold the reins, being "all potential soldiers, all capable of self-sacrifice for the faith," and all obedient to one central authority. How they have impressed themselves upon India as the ruling caste is shown by the fact that, in the Mutiny, "Brahmin Sepoys murdered Christian officers in the name of a Mohammedan Prince." Christianity, on the other hand, "though it has taken but a poor grip

on Hindu India," has not failed. It simply has not made the progress which might have been expected from the amount of work done. It is a fallacy to think that it is detested as the faith of the conquerors. The real obstacles are that the Hindu can be intellectually convinced of the truth of Christianity and remain unchanged; in other words, he becomes "a convert but not a Christian." The methods of the Christian missionary are imperfect and "slightly absurd"; he is setting before himself a false end, "the Europeanization of Asiatics." The result is that the "missionary becomes an excellent pastor or an efficient schoolmaster, instead of a proselytizer, and that his converts or their children, or the thousands of pagan lads he teaches, become in exact proportion to his success a hybrid caste, not quite European, not quite Indian, with the originality killed out of them, with self-reliance weakened, with all mental aspiration wrenched violently in a direction which is not their own." "Mohammedan proselytism succeeds in India," this writer concludes, "because it leaves its converts Asiatics still; Christian proselytism fails in India because it strives to make of its converts English middle-class men."

—A Western Shaksperian writes us:

"History repeats itself, otherwise the Shaksperian delineations would be for a day and not for all time. The feelers of a politician, and his involuntary indications of chagrin when he finds his feelers disappoint him, must have a family likeness in all ages. The manipulations of Cæsar when Mark Antony thrice did offer him a kingly crown, are told to the life by the great dramatist. But the Shaksperian picture is a presentment which befits Cæsar no better than Blaine, who, while lingering amid Cæsar's relics, seems to have been moved to mimic his manœuvres. 'Cæsar,' says Casca, 'put the offered crown by him with the *back* of his hand; he put it by thrice, every time gentler than other; he put it by, but for all that he would fain have had it; he put it by, but to my thinking he was very loth to lay his fingers off it,' etc. May our plumed knight follow further his Roman original who, 'when he perceived the common herd was glad he refused the crown, and shouted at every putting-by, fell down, foamed at the mouth, and was speechless.'"

—The keen competition of the conversation dictionaries in Germany has developed a new feature, almost irresistible, in the case of the seventh edition of 'Pierer's Konversations-Lexikon' (Stuttgart: W. Spemann). Prof. Joseph Kürschner, to whose inventiveness we owe already, among other useful publications, the 'Deutscher Litteratur-Kalender,' has induced the publisher of Pierer to graft upon it twelve dictionaries in the following manner. Every German word not a proper name met with in the general alphabet in the two broad columns of each page has affixed to it equivalents in Latin, Greek, Bohemian, Danish, Dutch, English, French, Hungarian, Italian, Russian, Spanish, and Swedish. But this is not all. A narrow column on the outer margin carries these same languages (save the Greek) in one alphabet, and interpreted back into German, so that the circle is complete. The convenience of this arrangement speaks for itself, and the economy of it, seeing that the language dictionaries are "thrown in," is equally obvious. We have here a hint for the next maker of a first-class English dictionary, whether cyclopædic or other. It need hardly be said that to accomplish so much in a dozen volumes involves a great deal of typographical compression, and the free use of small characters, so that the eye has to be cautious in reading. The print, nevertheless, is very clear, and the catchwords especially distinct. The engravings and maps and colored plates in the first number before us are of good quality, and we do not perceive any direction in which the execution has been slighted. We subscribe without hesitation to the profession stamped upon the cover—"Eines der originellsten Bücher der Welt!"

THE INVASION OF THE CRIMEA.

The Invasion of the Crimea; its origin, and an account of its progress down to the death of Lord Raglan. By A. W. Kinglake. Vol. VII. From the morrow of Inkerman to the fall of Canrobert. Vol. VIII. From the opening of Pélissier's command to the death of Lord Raglan. Edinburgh: Blackwood & Sons. (New York: Harper & Bros., in one volume, Vol. V.)

THESE two volumes complete the history of the Crimean war as far as Mr. Kinglake intends to write it. The work was undertaken in order to vindicate the memory of Lord Raglan, the British Commander-in-Chief, from the aspersions cast upon it, and Mr. Kinglake may therefore urge, with some show of reason, that the death of Lord Raglan is a proper point at which to arrest his labors. Actually, however, whatever was the prime intention, the vindication of Lord Raglan has, in the working out, become a very subordinate part of it. No one will ever consult these pages in order to find what manner of man Lord Raglan was, but because they contain a singularly thorough and painstaking account, written in the choicest English, of a very remarkable campaign. And having told so much of the story, Mr. Kinglake, it seems to us, was under a species of moral obligation to his readers to continue it to the end, for it is to the last degree improbable that any one else will have the audacity to attempt what he has left undone. But this, perhaps, is too bold an assertion. Mr. Martin Tupper did not scruple to try his hand at the finishing of Coleridge's "Christabel," and, with that fact before our eyes, it certainly is not prudent to assert that any enterprise is beyond the reach of human audacity. This, however, we may say, that Mr. Kinglake, having made it so exceedingly difficult for any one else to complete the history of the war, ought himself to have done so.

So much has happened since—so many greater wars have convulsed the face of the world—that an account of the siege of Sebastopol sounds, at first hearing, like an excursus into some region of ancient and half-forgotten times. For the historical student, however, there is this unique interest attaching to the war in the Crimea, that it marks the termination of that period of peace which set in with the final fall of Napoleon. Not that the intervening years had by any means been a period when "war nor battle's sound was heard the world around." But this war constituted the first struggle on anything approaching the colossal scale to which Europe had become accustomed in the days of the first Napoleon. In the history of Great Britain, the outbreak of this war marks the moment of a change in her foreign policy, the more important consequences of which are still below the horizon. Up to that time France had been the "natural enemy," and Russia the traditional ally, of our transatlantic kinsfolk. The Crimean war reversed the relative position of these two Powers, and since that day it has been impossible for the Russian Government to say or do anything—to send out a solitary geographer to explore some remote region of mountain or desert, or move half-a-dozen Cossack horsemen from one station to another—without being denounced by all reasonable Britons as menacing the peace and possessions of the British Empire. The incessant reiteration of these sinister predictions tends, as every one must see, to assure and hasten their fulfilment, and it is worthy of note how sedulously those Powers—Germany, Austria, and Italy—who hunger for the partition of the Ottoman Empire, seize upon every occasion to stimulate the wrath and the fears of the British people. If only Russia and Great Britain could be persuaded, on this pretence or that, to "lock horns" in a far distant Central Asian desert, the dividing out of the heritage of the Turk might be carried through with so much ease and celerity.

But to return to Mr. Kinglake's book. We do not think that he has been altogether successful in his attempt to vindicate the reputation of Lord Raglan. He has shown abundantly what, in truth, was never denied, that Lord Raglan was a chivalrous, courteous, accomplished, and experienced soldier. One who had fought by the side of Wellington from his first landing on the Portugal coast down to the crowning victory of the 18th of June, could hardly fail to be a skilful and experienced soldier; but lack of skill was never charged against Lord Raglan—lack of will, want of determination, was; and it seems to us that the facts, as stated by Mr. Kinglake himself, prove that the charge was true. Lord Raglan, it cannot be denied, was in a position of extraordinary difficulty. In the conduct of military operations on a large scale his experience was incomparably greater than that of either Canrobert or Pélissier; but the British army which he commanded was little more than a single division when contrasted with the masses of his French allies, and this disparity of numbers placed him, of necessity, in a position of less authority than the French Commander-in-Chief. Moreover, the British Ministry at home were for ever reminding him that the thing needful above all others was to work harmoniously with the French, and so preserve the *entente cordiale.* The difficulty, in fact, which he was called upon to overcome was of this kind. He was expected to command, and to seem to agree, at one and the same time. He was expected to save his colleagues from blundering, without doing injury to their sensitive self-esteem. He was to stand by his own convictions, and yet not to carry opposition so far as to diminish the cordiality of the Alliance. Perhaps the first Duke of Marlborough, who was as skilful in the management of men as in the conduct of armies, might have been sufficient for these jarring and contradictory duties. It is no great reproach to Lord Raglan to admit that he was not. Having to choose between the sacrifice of his military judgment and the possibility of a breach with the French General, he elected to sacrifice the former. Perhaps he was right, but the immediate result of this decision was the failure of the first assault upon Sebastopol, with a loss to the allies in killed and wounded of about seven thousand men.

Pélissier was at this time in command of the French Army, and it had been agreed between him and Lord Raglan that, after a preliminary bombardment of two hours, a general assault was to be made on the defences of Sebastopol by the allied armies. Had this agreement been adhered to, there is no question that Sebastopol would have fallen in the summer instead of the autumn of 1855. The defences had been assailed, for the space of eight days, with a tremendous and destructive fire from the allied batteries; and though the patient and indomitable fortitude of the Russian soldiers availed to repair in some measure during the night the damages which had been wrought in the day,

the works were on the morning of the assault so shaken and weakened that a cannonade of two hours would have sufficed to silence their fire. A few hours before daylight on the night preceding, the French commander sent word to Lord Raglan that he had changed his mind, and resolved to assault the fortress at break of day without the preliminary bombardment. Lord Raglan acquiesced in this insane change of plan without an attempt to shake the resolution of Pélissier, and the consequence was, that, except at a single point, which led to no result, the attacking columns never got near the fortifications they wished to carry. The intervening distance was swept with such a murderous fire of round shot, grape, and rifle bullets from the Russian works that the heads of the assaulting columns were literally swept away as soon as they emerged from the shelter of their trenches.

It is impossible to acquit Lord Raglan of unpardonable weakness on this occasion. His fault becomes the greater because he clearly recognized the impossibility of the enterprise under the changed conditions to which Pélissier had suddenly committed himself. The capture of the great Redan was the operation which had been intrusted to the British troops, and to do this, under those changed conditions, they had to traverse four hundred yards of open country swept along its whole extent by the fire from the Russian batteries. The undertaking was, in consequence, hopeless from the outset. If a strong assaulting column were told off for the duty, nothing was gained but the presentation of a larger mark to the fire of the enemy; if a weak column, it could make no impression upon the defences, even assuming that any portion survived to reach them. Mr. Kinglake tells the story of this abortive assault with his wonted patient labor and minuteness, but he does not seem to appreciate how heavily Lord Raglan was to blame for consenting to a sacrifice of life so large, so utterly useless.

But what was the cause of Pélissier's sudden change of purpose? Mr. Kinglake attributes it to a temporary aberration of mind, brought on by the exasperating interference in the conduct of the campaign exercised by the Emperor from his cabinet in Paris. The narrative of the part played by the Emperor during this remarkable siege constitutes the most interesting portion of Mr. Kinglake's latest volumes, and is, moreover, quite new. Even in France, except to the few directly concerned, it was not known until the fall of the Empire placed the private and confidential documents of the Imperial Government at the disposal of the Republic.

Louis Napoleon, as is notorious, was always on the lookout for occasions of electrifying the French people by great theatrical achievements like the campaign of Marengo or the victory of Austerlitz. He thought that he perceived a brilliant opportunity for a *coup* of this kind when it became apparent that the allies were not in a position to carry Sebastopol with a rush. He drew up a plan of campaign in which he, at the head of a French army, was to operate in the country to the north of Sebastopol so as to compel the surrender of the place by the defeat and destruction of the Russian field army. The plan, as Mr. Kinglake very clearly shows, was based upon a number of gross misconceptions, and was altogether impracticable. So enamoured, however, was the Emperor of his own scheme that he issued secret but peremptory orders to General Canrobert that he was on no account to press the siege, lest success in that quarter should obviate the necessity for the Emperor taking the field in person to carry out his own pet design. The French General, at the same time, was ordered to keep the imperial purposes secret from Lord Raglan, with, as Mr. Kinglake points out, this singular consequence, that almost from the morning after Inkerman until the resignation of Canrobert, the siege of Sebastopol was little else than a sham siege. The French Army was an "army in waiting." It was not intended to accomplish anything. Canrobert was not of a character sufficiently strong to set at defiance the foolish injunctions of the Emperor. He was too good and loyal a soldier not to feel deeply the humiliation of his position in consequence of them. And, as his only way of escape, he resigned the command.

Pélissier, his successor, was a soldier of a different calibre. Mr. Kinglake is singularly successful in literary portraiture; but in all his gallery there is no picture more striking than that of the fiery, passionate, resolute Frenchman who replaced Canrobert. Regardless of the Emperor and his impracticable plans, he began at once to press the siege with vigor, to narrow the circle of defences held by the enemy, to prepare for an assault upon the town in real earnest. This change of tactics could not be entered upon without vehement opposition from the Tuileries in the interests of "the plan." This opposition took the form of telegraphic messages which rained in upon the much-tormented Pélissier in a continual shower, producing such an effect upon him that for the space of eight days, and in the supreme crisis of the siege, he was not, in the judgment of Mr. Kinglake, accountable for his actions. In consenting, therefore, to an assault under the conditions imposed, at the last moment, by Pélissier, Lord Raglan was, according to this reading of the situation, sacrificing his better judgment to the caprices of a madman.

COLUMBIANA.

Christophe Colomb et Savone: Études d'histoire critique et documentaire. Genoa. 1887.

Le Quatrième Centenaire de la Découverte du Nouveau Monde: Lettre addressée à son Excellence le Ministre de l'Instruction Publique du Royaume d'Italie par un citoyen américain. Genoa. 1887.

No one has done so much to elucidate the minor points of the career of Columbus as Mr. Henry Harrisse. The two large volumes of his 'Christophe Colomb,' published three years ago, were throughout minute in investigation and careful in construction; but Harrisse, like so many enthusiasts, having got a bent, is prone to turn everything to its support, and in this way he found everywhere the evidences of the fraud which he believed to be perpetrated in the Life of Columbus usually accredited to his son Ferdinand. This failing of Harrisse is so patent that it invites conflict, and it was to be expected that an old antagonist like Henry Stevens would not remain silent. Dr. Shea, too, entered the lists in an article on "This Century's Estimate of Columbus" in the number of the *American Catholic Quarterly Review* for last July, in which he stands a champion for Ferdinand. Harrisse thinks himself conscientious, and he is an honest antagonist in so far as he does not garble or conceal. He professes that "le document est son seul guide," and he has been wonderfully successful in ferreting out such materials; but with all this he is too confident in his theories always to see evidence that tells against them.

His last criticism, however, is open to little of this objection. An old memoir about the history of Savona by Verzellino, who flourished in that Italian town at the beginning of the seventeenth century, was printed there for the first time three years ago, and imbedded in it there happened to be a document which served to reinforce effectually the arguments heretofore maintained, that the father of Christopher Columbus was a citizen of Genoa at the time of the discoverer's birth. This led Harrisse, in a paper which he published in the *Revue Historique* last autumn, to go over the whole question of the birthplace of Columbus, and this paper enlarged is now published as above. He very soon narrows down the question to Genoa and Savona, for the multitudes of towns on the Mediterranean shores claiming the honor of the nativity of Columbus is very large, and, as he tells us, the family name of Colombo is still a common one in the Italian maritime towns. It is this fact, and the eagerness to connect their history with that of the great discoverer, which has caused the Italian press almost to swarm within a few years past with local monographs in the interest of this or the other town or village. Any current Italian bibliography will show the excess of this zeal. They have added something to our general knowledge, and have been the incentive of some valuable studies. Konrad Hübler gave us, in Von Sybel's *Historische Zeitschrift*, the other day, a summary of the recent literature on the Columbus story; and another has lately begun to appear in the *Zeitschrift der Gesellschaft für Erdkunde zu Berlin*, No. 131.

Harrisse seems to think that this new document, in connection with Verzellino's memoir, with its notarial attestation that "Dominico de Collumbo" was of Genoa, settles the question, with the aid of the corroborative testimony which has been the ground of the arguments of those who contended for Genoa as the place of Columbus's birth—and it probably does.

In anticipation of the coming celebration in 1892, Mr. Harrisse has also printed the second pamphlet reported above. It is an appeal to commemorate the event by the publication of the works of Columbus, of which he says there are sixty-four separate titles known, and of these at least twenty-five are preserved in his own autograph—namely, nineteen in the collection of his descendant, the Duke of Veragua at Madrid; two in the Spanish archives; three in the palais Tursi at Genoa; one in the library of the Lieutenant-General, the Marquis de San Roman; and the rest in the library left by Ferdinand Columbus to the Cathedral at Seville, of which Harrisse has already given us so much information. Nearly all, he says, have been published and translated; but the texts need to be revised and annotated. He does not despair of finding yet other manuscripts of Columbus in Italy, at present unknown; and he further urges the collection and preservation in print of the numerous reports sent back to Italy by her representatives of various sorts, who, during the days of Columbus, were living in Spain, and making known by letters home the progress of maritime discoveries.

Harrisse contends, also, for a complete Columbus bibliography, and represents that there are at least six hundred titles to be gathered of books, tracts, or papers devoted exclusively to the study of Columbus and his career. He would further add a summary of the cartography, with facsimiles of all the cardinal charts illustrative of the train of discoveries which Columbus instituted, beginning with that of Juan de la Cosa in 1500, and ending with those of Schouten and Baffin in 1616, when the contour of the American Continent was first in the main determined. Those interested

in the rather curious and now extended list of pictures supposed to be portraits of Columbus, will be struck by the judgment of Harrisse that not a single authentic likeness of Columbus can be supposed to exist. We are interested to observe that among the notes of this last tract Harrisse announces that he has in press in New York a brochure to be called 'A Spurious Autograph-Letter of Christopher Columbus: Facts, Documents, and Facsimiles,' which we understand to be a letter addressed to Mr. Samuel L. M. Barlow of this city, whose attention had been called to a letter which was proved, under Harrisse's scrutiny, to be a forgery.

The Mammoth and the Flood. An Attempt to Confront the Theory of Uniformity with the Facts of Recent Geology. By Henry H. Howorth, M.P., etc., etc. London: Sampson Low & Co. 8vo, pp. 464 and xxxii. 1887.

In the first words of his preface Mr. Howorth states, "The title of this work reads like a challenge, and it is meant to be a challenge. For many years past, geological reasoning has been vitiated by being tied to metaphysical premises. It is time that some one trained in scientific methods, but untrammelled by having his will prejudiced, should speak out unflinchingly against the condition of things which has been most mischievous, and has very greatly impeded the development of a most important science." The rest of his preface, and indeed the whole of his work, is an elaboration of the thesis that the scientific world is out of joint, at least so far as geology is concerned, and that it is his peculiar mission to set it right. The principal wrong which he finds in geology is, that it assumes as a general principle, that the processes which have gone on in the earth since the introduction of organic life, have been of the same general nature as those which are now operating upon it. It cost the men who have made the science of the earth what it is, centuries of devoted labor to get clear of the early notion, which was to the effect that the earth's past had been a period of numerous cataclysms, widespread accidents of a physical sort, differing totally in their nature from anything which passes before our eyes in the present geological day. Our author bids us abandon this result of long labor and follow his lead in returning to the ancient doctrine.

Mr. Howorth finds his principal thesis in the circumstances attending the disappearance of the hairy mammoth from the northern hemisphere, holding that this disappearance, together with the preservation of very numerous bodies of this creature, as well as of the contemporaneous woolly rhinoceros, can only be explained on the hypothesis that the destruction was due to a sudden catastrophe, which he thinks involved a widespread flood of water. In selecting this interesting series of facts for the principal basis of his conclusion, our author shows a clever sense as to the most pregnable point in the doctrine of uniformity. In the very extended search which he has made into general literature, as well as that of a strictly geological sort, he exhibits, what few speculators of his class do, a painstaking in research which is altogether admirable. He has not always known where to look, and he betrays a novice's lack of critical ability in perceiving the difference in the measure of authority to be attached to the diverse statements he has encountered; nevertheless, the book will long remain valuable to the geologist for the very numerous and interesting records and traditions gathered from various works which are not likely to meet the eyes of scientific men.

As nearly as it is possible to determine from the text of our author, his idea is, that the mammoths of Siberia and Europe lived in those countries at a time when the climate was decidedly warmer than at present, and when the forest trees ranged up to the border of the Arctic Ocean. Suddenly there came a great flood which destroyed these creatures, and was followed by a period of intense cold, during which the mud produced during the deluge, together with the remains of the beasts, was converted into ice. In favor of this view he notes the vast numbers of the remains, and the presumption that they must have been frozen as soon as they were overwhelmed by the deluge. If the author had approached his subject in a critical way, to found a valid hypothesis rather than to support a conjecture, he would have perceived that the very facts which he adduces in proof of his notion militate strongly against it. He should have seen, in the first place, that these mammoths, as well as their companions the woolly rhinoceroses, were evidently the tenants of a cold climate, for the reason that they had a more ample covering of hair than any other creatures known to naturalists. They were even better protected against cold than the polar bear himself. There is thus no reason to suppose that any great modification of temperature is indicated by the existence of these creatures in the high north. Probably the northern limit of trees has been forced somewhat south of that which it occupied while these animals dwelt in Siberia; but this modification was not necessarily one that brought about any very sudden or great change in temperature. An alteration of 5° in the mean annual temperature would produce a great change in the northern limit of all our forests.

Mr. Howorth next urges that the vast numbers of these fossil creatures is evidence of their sudden destruction by a flood. This argument proves too much. The Siberian soil doubtless contains the frost-embalmed bodies of hundreds of thousands if not millions of the mammoth; but that all these creatures lived at once in the ancient forests of Siberia transcends belief. The evidence goes to show that in that Arctic land are the remains of more elephants in a wonderful state of preservation than have existed at any one time on the continent of Asia, and that the process of accumulation was slow and long-continued.

Again, the author urges that the curious accumulation of mammalian bones which we find at many points in Europe and North America—heaps in which occur the remains of a dozen or more species and perhaps a hundred individuals—can only be explained by supposing that the creatures took refuge from the invading waters on some height of land where they were finally overwhelmed. A little practical knowledge of these deposits would have shown him the untenable nature of this argument. In the first place, these "caches" of mammalian bones, as he terms them, are not found on hilltops, but in valleys; and those who have attentively studied them find a very simple explanation of their occurrence. The creatures were doubtless mired in bogs to which they resorted for water in times of drought, or to which they were tempted by the luxuriant vegetation developed in such places. In certain cases, as at Big Bone Lick in Kentucky, where salt springs escape from the earth and form small marshes, the saline waters were a bait which led them to destruction. In time the cutting down of the streams which drain the bog, combined perhaps with a desiccation of climate, converts the morass into dry land. In the case of the Siberian mammoths, we have the simple explanation, long since adduced, that the great rivers of that area have their headwaters in the south and the lower portions of their streams in high latitudes; that they lie in a position which causes their headwaters to break up before their lower channels have escaped from the frozen state. The result is that their floods are very severe, and are likely to sweep away into the frozen north the bodies of many animals which make their winter habitations along the banks. In the time of the mammoth the Arctic Ocean doubtless covered a good deal of Siberia, forming a vast extent of shallow waters. The interglacial and post-glacial time was probably a period of more rainfall than at present, and the rivers more efficient in this destructive work than they are at present. Discharged into the cold waters of the Arctic sea, these flood-swept bodies would decay but slowly, and thus would have the chance to be locked in the frost before the flesh had been removed from the bones.

The next point taken up by Mr. Howorth is the evidence afforded by the caverns of Europe which contain large quantities of mammalian remains. He endeavors to show that these remains were conveyed into the caverns by a great flood, and were buried immediately beneath the mud produced by the widespread cataclysm. Here, again, the lack of personal field knowledge, which so often invalidates the work of geological speculators, hampers his acute reasoning. There is no question that many of these caverns afford evidence of floods, but we are without proof that the floods occurring in separate caverns were synchronous. The present writer has investigated, in a more or less careful way, some hundreds of caverns in this country and in Europe, and has often found evidence of similar floods in the facts which they afford. A little study of caverns will show any discreet observer that all the lower chambers of our caves are liable to sudden access of water, owing to the various accidents which from time to time block the ways of the subterranean streams. At such times a vast deal of clayey matter previously imported into the cavern is shaken about and lodged in new positions.

The difficulty arising from the lack of an extended field of knowledge exhibited in these cases renders this very extended, and in many respects admirable, piece of work quite unavailing for the end it has in view. There can be no doubt that the hypothesis of uniformity of geological action has been carried rather too far, but to endeavor to substitute such clumsy hypotheses as that of continental floods is to run against a body of evidence of an overwhelming nature which contra-indicates such catastrophes, since the close of the glacial period or at any other time in the earth's history. The attitude of our drift, especially the delicate forms of the kames, affords overwhelming proof that no such flood has taken place in northern Europe or America since the last ice time. A proper revision of the hypothesis of uniformity is one of the largest and most important pieces of work now awaiting the devotion of such a life as that which Sir Charles Lyell gave to the establishment of the doctrine. To this task the student must bring a critical ability and an unwearable patience such as were the peculiar possession of that great master.

Mr. Howorth's book is written in a vivid and charming style. It displays an admirable devotion of a literary sort to his task, and will doubtless attract much popular interest to the great question in which it deals. The book is well printed, but it has no index, the most unpardonable fault in bookmaking.

Essays on Some of the Modern Guides of English Thought in Matters of Faith. By Richard Holt Hutton. Macmillan & Co. 1887.

THERE is nothing in this volume which appeared in the first edition of Mr. Hutton's literary essays except a considerable portion of the fourth article, "George Eliot as an Author." That portion will be found intact in the volume of 'Essays in Literary Criticism' published here in America in 1876 by Porter & Coates of Philadelphia. The essay in the present volume differs from that only in the addition of matter relating to "Middlemarch," which had not appeared when the essay was first published. In the Porter & Coates volume there was an essay on Matthew Arnold, but it dealt exclusively with his poetry, whereas the essay in the present volume deals more largely with his prose than with his poetry. The earlier essay is by no means superseded by the later. The two are necessary for a complete understanding of Mr. Hutton's view of Arnold, a view which all those who care for Arnold would do well to reckon with. Those whose liking for him is extravagant might find here something of correction; those who are indifferent to him might be led to question whether they are wise in being so. The essays are especially deserving of attention from those who imagine that Mr. Arnold's strength is in his prose rather than in his poetry, and that his prospect of survival inheres more in the former than the latter. Our own persuasion has long been quite the reverse, and Mr. Hutton's essays are confirmatory of this feeling. That part of the present essay which deals with Mr. Arnold's poetry is more penetrating and suggestive than the former essay. What is most individual in Mr. Hutton's essay is his dissidence from the average opinion that Arnold is a pessimistic poet. Accounting him the best of all our elegiac poets, he finds in his elegies a note of buoyancy, and this same note he discovers generally in his most melancholy poems. Though the poet and the thinker in Arnold are absolutely one in their conscious thinking, the poet in him helps him to rebel against the thinker, and to encourage us to believe that the "stream of tendency" which bears him up so bravely is not blind nor dumb. Whatever one may think of Mr. Arnold's theological opinions, if they are theological, those who are most inclined to "see things as they are" will be most pleased with Mr. Hutton's characterization of Mr. Arnold's endeavor to eviscerate the Bible and to fill the void that he has made with his own "gospel according to Matthew."

As between Mr. Arnold and Cardinal Newman, Mr. Hutton's sympathies and admirations are distinctly with and for the latter. He furnishes another example of Dr. Newman's power to impress himself favorably upon men of the most various theological opinions; and this, not merely by his style, the force and charm of which are universally admitted, but by the quality of his mind and by the intensity of his moral sentiments. He runs a very interesting parallel between the styles of the two men, and while his admiration for Mr. Arnold's style is very great, it is evident that Dr. Newman holds him by a stronger spell. The least satisfactory part of Mr. Hutton's essay on Dr. Newman is his criticism of his ecclesiastical position. For while allowing that there cannot be a church, or any witness of God, "without submission to some visible vicegerent of God," he cannot see why this vicegerent should be infallible. But he shows plainly enough, although unconsciously, why it should be, as he proceeds. The scope which he allows to reason is wholly inconsistent with anything like "submission" to a visible representative of God.

The essay on Carlyle makes clear how much more effective for the expression of his thought the developed style of the man was than his earlier—that of 'John Sterling,' for example, in comparison with the 'Life of Schiller.' There is a good analysis of Carlyle's influence upon English politics. In three out of five political crises Mr. Hutton judges that the influence of Carlyle was distinctly bad—namely, our own civil war, Gov. Eyre's suppression of "revolt" in Jamaica, and the attack of Prussia and Austria upon Denmark. The others were the Franco-Prussian war and the Communistic outbreak in Paris. The German sympathies of Carlyle were, to Mr. Hutton's thinking, helpful in the former case, though with some unfairness; and his sympathy with order helped to clearness in men's view of the Commune. Right or wrong, wise or unwise, one can hardly imagine a situation more to Carlyle's mind than the final suppression of the Communists by the Thiers Government. But the best influence of Carlyle on English politics has been less direct, his critic thinks, than in these instances. It has been through his arraignment of an idle aristocracy. His 'French Revolution' is set down as the book by which he will be chiefly remembered—"the most unique book of the century." A telling note is made of Carlyle's contempt of everybody not of his own clan. We read in Emerson's biography that "poor fellow" was his epithet for even the best of his contemporaries and friends.

Mr. Hutton is nowhere more delightful than in his essay upon "George Eliot as Author." To read this essay is to renew much of the pleasure that we had in reading the novels of George Eliot, and to attain to many points of view which, going by ourselves, we missed. Mr. Hutton's admiration for George Eliot is extremely cordial, and his feeling for the nicest shadings of her work is very keen. The bias of his theology does not prevent his being generally just. If there is an exception, it is in the extravagance of praise bestowed on Dinah Morris. We are obliged to wonder whether Mr. Hutton does not complicate his satisfaction with her evangelical piety with his delight in her as a dramatic creation. He cannot allow that George Eliot was a poet, and he has a very keen analysis of her 'Legend of Jubal' adverse to its idea of the sanctifying and ennobling influence of death apart from immortality. The intellectual background of the 'Spanish Gipsy' seems to him truly great, and the "rich color and almost Miltonic stateliness" of some of the passages that are quoted go far to convince the reader that if she was not a poet, then the genus poet has not many species or varieties. On page 236 there is a metaphor which is a surprise from one whose father was a clergyman and who was instructed for the Unitarian ministry at the feet of Martineau. He speaks of an "invisible rock higher than themselves to which [certain people] can entreat *to be lifted up.*" It is strange that he should have drawn his figure from a sensational picture, and not from the real meaning of the corresponding passage in the Psalms, where the rock is a stronghold, not a crag of the deep sea.

Besides the article on George Eliot as an author, there is one upon her 'Life and Letters.' The man who has once been a Liberal and has fallen back into the camp of the Conservatives is apt to be severe when judging those from whom he has come out. There is something very much like *odium theologicum* in the manner in which Mr. Hutton girds himself for this part of his work. It would be very hard to reconcile his praise of George Eliot's ability to enter sympathetically into the life of a Dinah Morris or a Savonarola with his insistence on the scornful levity of her dissent from the prevailing creed. His crediting of her conversion to Mr. Hennell's 'Inquiry Concerning the Origin of Christianity' is without warrant, as was shown in a letter in the *Nation*, No. 1153; and his entire argument, at this stage, is invalidated by the fact that the letter which he quotes (page 270) was written six years subsequently to the abandonment of her evangelical opinions. It is by no means likely that the mood of this letter was the mood of her conversion. In the meantime she had translated Strauss, and her taste for the felicities of criticism had been sharpened not a little. Mr. Hutton remarks the suddenness of her conversion, and at the same time expresses his astonishment that her early views were to her as a burden lifted, not as a support taken away. But does not this fact show plainly enough that there was a good deal of preparation for her conversion, more or less conscious, in her previous state of mind?

Mr. Hutton looks upon the most of her novels as "written in great measure to impress on others the depth and significance of a tie the sacredness of which her own example did much to undermine." They were a kind of expiation. In support of this view he has much to say that is, if not convincing, well worth considering. His disappointment is natural in finding so little of the vivacity and humor of her novels in her letters. It is much greater in finding that "her heart never seems to have rebelled against her own dim creed." But, then, it is very certain that she would not have accepted Mr. Hutton's statement of her creed as true to her own thought and feeling. He makes no sufficient allowance for her conviction that the laws of justice, mercy, truth, and love are in the grain of things. There is no justification for his saying that she was her own god. Surely she stood abashed and humble in the presence of a moral order which was to her of infinite depth and mystery and sacredness.

The essay upon Frederick Denison Maurice, while it is the most sympathetic in the book, exhibits frankly some of the limitations of that mystical theologian's mind. It would appear that, with the best intentions, he had great difficulty in making himself clearly understood. A character so vague and so illusive is an admirable subject for criticism of such a refined and subtile quality as Mr. Hutton's is throughout his interesting and suggestive book.

Memoir of Fleeming Jenkin. By Robert Louis Stevenson. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1887.

THIS is not so much a biography as what is known in fiction as a character-sketch. Fleeming Jenkin came of a line of rather strange people on both sides. His near ancestors and their relatives all had a story in their lives, and of these Mr. Stevenson naturally makes the most possible as a setting for the hero's birth and boyhood. Jenkin himself, at fifteen, was a spectator of the French Revolution of 1848, and wrote some letters at the time to one of his mates, which are full of the spirit of the thing. He was in Genoa in the troublous time of Novara, also, and all this tells very much under the skilful hands of his biographer. As soon as his real life began, which was that of a practical workman in applying science, particularly to marine telegraphy, the point of interest is his own energetic and self-assertive individuality, which made his mind and career both

very full. He married young, and his relations to his wife and children make the thread of the narrative, broken only by some extracts from his letters describing cable-laying in the Mediterranean, and later by his employments and amusements in Edinburgh, after he became professor there. He must have been a trying companion, because of his combativeness in talk, and lack of grace or tact, or whatever one chooses to call it, which rendered it necessary to become acquainted with his substantial worth before one could really take pleasure in him. The range of his curiosity was very great, and he had a mind active enough to bring original force to bear upon the whole of the varied matter; yet one finds here very few striking remarks or observations of any kind from his own lips. There is nothing better than his reply to Mr. Stevenson, which the latter tells against himself: "I remember taking his advice upon some point of conduct. 'Now,' he said, 'how do you suppose Christ would have advised you?' and when I had answered that he would not have counselled me anything unkind or cowardly, 'No,' he said, with one of his shrewd strokes at the weakness of his hearer, 'nor anything amusing!'"

He was much valued by his friends, and rightly. He did some excellent scientific work which will be more fitly noticed in connection with his collected papers. He was altogether an interesting character. But, for all that, he is fortunate in his biographer, and the pleasure this volume gives is very largely due to the way in which Mr. Stevenson handles his materials. On finishing the book, it is surprising how very little remains of the two hundred and fifty pages; and then one realizes that he has been reading of a number of other things besides the life of Fleeming Jenkin. Of these other things, a few incidents are charmingly related; but in the main, the power of the style lies in its happy characterization of the many persons, comparatively speaking, who enter on the scene. Alfred Austin, for example, is excellently sketched. But the most winning figure to us is that of the gentle old Captain, Fleeming's father, and the account of his death scene is something one does not find every day. "It was the proper thing for a dying man of Captain Jenkin's school of manners to make some expression of his spiritual state; nor did he neglect the observance. With his usual abruptness, 'Fleeming,' said he, 'I suppose you and I feel about all this as two Christian gentlemen should.'" Just before dying, he heard that the men of Sussex had been the first to relieve Khartum and General Gordon. "He sat up in bed and gave three cheers for the Sussex regiment." So he died at the age of eighty-four. These minor characters, which help the narrative so much, reproduce the surroundings of Jenkin's life with great vividness, and give it the right relief. Jenkin himself, who had come to be a believer in the religious view of our life in a simple fashion, by the course of his own days, died at the early age of fifty-three; and in the case of a man of such superabundant energy this circumstance makes the end seem more than usually a break and a waste. What could be done to exhibit his character in the respect in which it was held, and yet honestly, Mr. Stevenson has accomplished with gratifying success.

Ireland's Cause in England's Parliament. By Justin McCarthy, M.P., with Preface by John Boyle O'Reilly. Boston: Ticknor & Co. 1888.

THIS is a succinct and readable apologia for the Irish movement, by one who gave up much to join it, and who has partaken of all its vicissitudes. "The progress of the Irish Parliamentary Party in the English House of Commons," says the preface, "is a study for all minorities. It is a story of profound interest. . . . It promises to be the first radical national reform by legislation, without revolution, of European history." True; but the study cannot be considered complete until the aims of the party are accomplished and we see to what extent their methods affect their handiwork. Nor is it likely that all, even many who believe in the necessity and righteousness of the uprising, on the whole, take Mr. McCarthy's somewhat glorified view of its history so far. There has inevitably been much of the earth earthy about it. Movement and leader have answered to the necessities of public feeling in Ireland; and Irish public feeling has been a well-spring of bitterness and heart-burning. The loftiest sentiment, the purest devotion, have doubtless been to a considerable extent the incentives to action—the details of working have not always been as immaculate as our author would desire us to infer them to have been.

Athletics and Football. By Montague Shearman, with a contribution on Paper Chasing by W. Rye, and an introduction by Sir Richard Webster, Q. C., M. P. London: Longmans, Green & Co.; Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

THIS is the latest issue of the "Badminton Library," which is meant, as the preface states, to "form an encyclopædia to which the inexperienced man who seeks guidance in the various British sports and pastimes can turn for information." Like its predecessors, the volume contains the fulsome dedication to that "eminent sportsman H. R. H. the Prince of Wales," by the Duke of Beaufort, under whose auspices the "library" is being published, and it is in truth a compendium of most branches of athletics well and intelligently written—perhaps, indeed, from the standpoint of an enthusiast rather than that of a dispassionate student of the subject, but still with a thorough knowledge, and an interest which the reader cannot fail to share.

The first chapter, on "The History of Athletic Sports in England," traces the development of the taste for these kinds of amusement, in which the Anglo-Saxon race has always stood preëminent, from the days of Chaucer to the present time, and describes many curious means of recreation practised by the early English. As men have grown in civilization and culture, most of the roughest of the mediæval games have had applied to them certain degrees of polishing and refinement. "Bear Baiting," "Cock Throwing," and the more manly diversions of sword and cudgel-playing, are nearly extinct; the pugilist pleases the public taste by refraining from the actual encounters which, less than fifty years since, were openly conducted, and wages most of his contests in accordance with rules invented by a prominent member of the British aristocracy, and which alone have preserved his virtues from oblivion. To all sports there has been a gradual addition of the scientific element, and a tacit admission in so doing that in every one of them mind bears quite as important a place as simple physical force. The trained walker or runner of the present day is vastly superior to his predecessor of a century since, and every branch of athletics can show better performers than before intelligent experience had revealed what brains can do in directing muscle. The civilized athlete is superior to the savage one. He can walk further, run faster, hit harder, row better, and last longer at any form of exertion practised by both.

Following the chapter on the history of athletic sports are seven others, on various sports and games, the most important of which is that on "Training." This is useful reading to any man, and a capital chapter, full of good hygienic doctrine worth to anybody a dozen medical prescriptions. Chapter viii, "Athletic Government," is mainly a history of the various athletic clubs of the United Kingdom, but towards the end of it Mr. Shearman gives a few pages to the advantages of the present devotion to athletic sports, which he thinks on the whole have benefited the English character and made it stronger, manlier, and cleaner. He probably weakens his case somewhat by the statement that in any "school, college, or large body of men it will be found that the dozen best cricketers, footballers, or oarsmen will provide more clever scholars than any average dozen of the others." Certainly, in our American colleges, celebrity in athletic directions has not generally gone hand in hand with fine scholarship, though not inconsistent with it. Nobody can object to, and few fail to commend, the closing paragraph of this chapter:

"When going into training means nothing more than living a healthy regular life, and the daily exercise is taken to increase the strength and skill, and not to see how much the human body can do without failing, then no one, except from his own fault, can suffer any harm from athletic sports."

The next third of the book treats of football, tracing its origin and history from the mists of antiquity. The game has been, in various forms, played in England for six centuries, and is the most essentially popular sport of the country. In the days of Edward II., that monarch issued a proclamation forbidding the game as leading to a breach of the peace. Richard II., Henry IV., James III., and other kings, including Henry VIII., in turn enacted statutes against the game, which, as Mr. Shearman says, "has from the earliest days been an obstreperous member of the family of British sports, and, indeed, almost an habitual criminal." The statutory repression of the game did not, however, avail in the face of its popularity, and our ancestors went on maiming and killing each other in its pursuit, with rare interference by the sympathizing enforcers of the laws. One Carew, who wrote in 1602, says:

"I cannot well resolve whether I should the more commend this game for its manhood and exercise, or condemn it for the boisterousness and harm which it begetteth; for as on the one side it makes their bodies strong, hard, and nimble, and puts a courage into their hearts to meet an enemy in the face, so on the other part it is accompanied by many dangers, some of which do even fall to the players' share, for the proof whereof, when the hurling is ended, you shall see them returning home as from a pitched battle, with bloody pates, bones broken, and out of joint, and such bruises as serve to shorten their days, yet all is good play, and never attorney or coroner troubled for the matter."

It is very hard to believe that Mr. Carew had never seen our intercollegiate football games, which of late seem only to have differed from those he describes in not being "good play," *i. e.*, without resulting hard feeling. Perhaps it is the reversion in our civilized youth to the practices of early barbarians which is building up the deplorably hostile feeling that exists between two of our prominent colleges since their annual maulings over a football have begun. The third college member of the trinity, if it may be so called, owes to its present inferiority in this and other athletic sports the fact of its not being publicly detested, though perhaps privately derided, by the other two. For it is

an every-day observation that any young man attending one of the rival colleges is held by those who perhaps were the friends and schoolmates of his youth, but who now live at the other institution, to be unworthy of respect and lacking in all manly qualities.

A chapter on "Paper Chasing and Cross-Country Running" finishes the book, which is well illustrated with instantaneous photographs and woodcuts. Exceptions may be taken to a few of Mr. Shearman's statements. For instance, page 73, he says, speaking of a "sprinter": "Whether his legs be short or long, he has large muscular thighs and a broad back." The best of the American college sprinters are notably of slender build, and Myers himself especially so. Mr. Shearman speaks of him as being "little more than a long pair of wiry legs, with a very small and light body on top of them." Again, his description of the "Tug of War" in this country is so far from true as to be ridiculous to any one familiar with it, the game here being quite as scientific and orderly as the English one.

A Girdle Round the Earth. By D. N. Richardson. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.

In its literary style and freshness of view, this volume is distinctively above the average of the annual crop of books published by tourists round the world. The "girdle," in its formidable length, does not suggest Puck's, which could be put round the planet in forty minutes. The author requires four hundred and forty-nine pages of long primer for the weaving of his story. In sprightliness and flippancy, however, and in general airiness in regard to facts possibly thought unimportant, he suggests the merry fairy whose words he uses for a title. He has arranged his letters and jottings in excellent form, with a good analytical table of contents, and dedicates them, as a book, to the wife and children to whom, presumably, they were first written, though some of them have seen print before. Four hundred days were spent on the route of forty thousand miles. The time occupied was from August, 1885, so that these lively epistles, dialogues, and note-book impressions seem as fresh, as damp, and as limp as the morning newspaper laid at one's breakfast plate. There is scarcely a dull page in the book, and the Western American's love of rapid transit in literature, as in all else, is here both illustrated in the author and furnished for the reader. The narrative moves forward in the briskest style imaginable. It reminds us of heat as a mode of motion. Everything is comprehensive, far-ranging, full of generalizing. Without room for dull accuracy in details, the mass vibrates in a whirl of sprightliness and vigor.

After two chapters on the start and the Pacific voyage, five others are given to Japan, four to China, five to the countries of Peninsular Asia, two to Bible lands, three to the countries of the Turkish Empire, three to Italy, five to other parts of Europe, and one to general reflections. The author would have done himself more justice, and spared annoyances to his readers, had he spent a few hours in a library on his return home, and corrected some of his inaccuracies and many of his curious and superficial but mistaken notions. On page 60, he would have us believe that "the nervy, rice-fed heathen" Japanese "coolies" at Yokohama (though, properly speaking, there being no caste in Japan, there are no coolies, but free laborers) beat an equal number of "vigorous Highland soldier athletes," because of their diet, instead of because of their life-long dexterity with the push cart, which is a specially balanced machine, requiring skill even more than strength, whether gained by meat or rice. The talk on page 83, that the Chinese "printed with type two thousand years ago," is rubbish, and the author's general ideas about Chinese chronology (p. 116, p. 122) are hazy and according to unrevised cyclopædias. Many of his statements of things in the Holy Land will not stand the test either of history or of the surveyors of the Palestine Exploration Fund. Many passages such as those relating to Jerusalem (p. 241–242), the Jordan (p. 257), are graphic and brilliant, but usually marred by some infelicitous remark which may please the zealots who idolize or ridicule the Bible, but will disgust those who do neither. Indeed, the chief fault of the author is his tendency to lofty and sweeping generalizations, which betray a lack of modesty such as culture alone can instil in a traveller. One is nauseated with the constant repetition in every chapter of the author's religious views, and his thrusting of theology into nearly every description given and opinion expressed. One might almost call his work 'The Sentimental Journey of a Theologian.' A little more reading and genuine culture must certainly improve an author who wields a trenchant pen with an ability not always well directed.

A History and Genealogy of the Conant Family in England and America, thirteen generations, 1520–1887. Containing also some genealogical notes on the Connet, Connett, and Connit families. By Frederick Odell Conant, M.A., of Portland, Maine. Privately printed. Portland. 1887. 8vo, pp. 641.

This genealogy is a welcome addition to the long list of family histories, since it recalls the work of one of the founders of Massachusetts, and informs us that his posterity is numerous and reputable. Roger Conant, the first Governor *in*, if not *of*, Massachusetts, was, as he stated in a document dated in 1671, born in Budleigh, a market town of Devonshire. The researches of our author show that Roger was baptized there 9 April, 1592, being the youngest of the eight children of Richard and Agnes (Clarke) Conant. The pedigree begins with John Conant of East Budleigh, born about 1520, probably at Gittisham, who was the father of Richard and grandfather of Roger. The third son of Richard was Rev. John Conant, a strong Puritan, who died in 1646, rector of St. Thomas à Becket, Salisbury. The fourth son, Christopher, was a grocer of London, came to Plymouth in 1623, and was at Salem in 1630, when he disappears.

In the next generation, Roger Conant had several nephews, all clergymen, viz.: Richard, vicar of East Budleigh; John, vice-chancellor of Oxford; Samuel, Malachi, and John. One branch, indeed, is traced herein to the present generation, and doubtless other branches in England could be found. In 1813 one of these descendants of Richard C. of Budleigh, viz., Sir Nathaniel Conant of London, applied for a confirmation of arms, alleging that his ancestors had used a shield of "Gules, ten billets *or*," and had granted a shield "per saltire gules and azure, billetty, *or*," which variation may denote some doubts in the mind of Garter King of Arms.

Roger Conant, who was doubtless free of the Salters' Company of London, married at St. Ann's, Blackfriars, London, November 11, 1618, Sarah Horton. He came with his wife and child to Plymouth in 1623, there joined Lyford at Nantasket, and in 1625 was chosen by the Dorchester Company as Governor of their settlement at Cape Ann. In 1626 he removed and planted Salem, and in 1629 his settlement was absorbed into the Massachusetts Colony. Here he lived until his death, November 19, 1679, always respected and useful, but without the prominence one would naturally expect to find accorded to him.

He had sons, Caleb, Lot, Roger, Joshua, and Exercise, and the name has been continued through Lot and Exercise. The record here given is very thorough and exact, and enrolls the names of many Conants who have been honored and valuable citizens. It is both a surprise and a satisfaction to find that such a sturdy Puritan family has continued to thrive and increase, preserving an historic name and doing credit to its ancestry.

Legends of the Shawangunk. By Philip H. Smith. Pawling, N. Y.: Smith & Co. 1887.

This is a medley of "historical sketches, biographical notices, and thrilling border incidents and adventures relating to those portions of the counties of Orange, Ulster, and Sullivan, lying in the Shawangunk region," put together almost without plan or relation of parts. The author says: "While there is much that is here found in print for the first time, all available published sources have been laid under contribution in its compilation." As he affords no marks by which his readers may distinguish between original and conveyed matter, it is impossible to say what proportion of the work is due to his "rigid search" of "ancient records"; much of the quoted matter, however, is from local publications now long out of print, and therefore is as good as new. But unfortunately the book contains little of value, either new or old. The beautiful Shawangunk (Shon-gum) region (curiously described as "a vast amphitheatre of rocks") deserves something better than this string of detached anecdotes, containing here and there interesting bits of history, but without reference to a single authority, so far as we have observed. We note the author's remark, that "it may interest the reader to trace the transition from primitive 'Duck Cedar' into classic 'Tuxedo,' but he does not endeavor to trace it.

Mr. Smith's volume is illustrated by woodcuts such as are familiar on railway time-tables and county maps, and others from "pen sketches by the author"—the latter being of such simplicity as are seldom seen in form more permanent than a child's drawing on his slate.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Ames, Julia A. Platform Voices: Temperance Recitations. Chicago: Woman's Temperance Publication Association. 25 cents.
An Unlaid Ghost: A Novel. D. Appleton & Co. 50 cents.
Barrows, Rev. W. The United States of Yesterday and of To-morrow. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.25.
Beatty-Kingston, W. Monarchs I Have Met. Harper & Bros. 50 cents.
Brydges, H. Uncle Sam at Home. Henry Holt & Co. $1.25.
Caine, H. The Deemster: A Novel. D. Appleton & Co. 50 cents.
Cameron, G. F. Lyrics on Freedom, Love, and Death. Boston: Alexander Moore.
Cust, Lady. The Invalid's Own Book. W. S. Gottsberger.
Dawson, Sir J. W. The Geological History of Plants. D. Appleton & Co. $1.75.
Denison, T. S. The Man Behind. Chicago. $1.50.
Gallaudet, E. M. Life of Thomas Hopkins Gallaudet. Henry Holt & Co. $1.75.
Green, S. Home Fishing and Home Waters. O. Judd Co.
Gunter, A. C. Mr. Potter of Texas: A Novel. New York: Home Publishing Co.
Hand Book of Rio de Janeiro. Rio de Janeiro: A. J. Lamoureux & Co.
Harris, Prof. J. R. The Teaching of the Apostles. Baltimore: Publication Agency Johns Hopkins University.
Hellwald, F. von. Die menschliche Familie. Part I. Leipzig: E. Günther.
Hopkins, Mark, jr. The World's Verdict: A Novel. Boston: Ticknor & Co. $1.50.
Kinglake, A. W. The Invasion of the Crimea. Vol. V. Harper & Bros.
Long, J. H. Slips of Tongue and Pen. D. Appleton & Co. 60 cents.
Marshall, Emma. On the Banks of the Ouse. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.25.

Newman, Prof. F. W. Kabail Vocabulary. London: Trübner & Co.
Peabody, Rev. A. P. Harvard Reminiscences. Boston: Ticknor & Co. $1.25.
Remmer, H. Russland und die Europäische Lage. Leipzig: W. Friedrich.
Sanders, D. Das hohe Lied Salomonis. Hamburg: J. F. Richter.
Starrett, L. F. Poems and Translations. Boston.
Sterne, S. Beyond the Shadow, and Other Poems. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
The Art of Investing. D. Appleton & Co. 75 cents.
The Original Mr. Jacobs. The Minerva Publishing Co.
The Story of Jewad. W. S. Gottsberger.
Tolstoi, Count L. N. Napoleon and the Russian Campaign. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. $1.
Tolstoi, Count L. N. The Long Exile, and Other Stories for Children. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. $1.25.
Young, G. A. Whatever Is, Was. Leggat Brothers.
Weld, M. C. A B C of Agriculture. O. Judd Co.
What Shall We Do with It [The Surplus]? By President Cleveland, J. G. Blaine, H. Watterson, G. F. Edmunds. Harper & Bros. 25 cents.
Whipple E. P. Outlooks on Society, Literature, and Politics. Boston: Ticknor & Co. $1.50.
Willson, T. E. It is the Law: a Story of Marriage and Divorce. Belford, Clarke & Co. $1.
Wilson, R. B. Life and Love: Poems. Cassell & Co. $1.50.
Wood, Rev. J. G. Fourth Natural History Reader. Boston School Supply Co.
Woodward, F. C. English in the Schools. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Works of William Shakspeare. Reduced Facsimile from the First Folio Edition of 1623. Funk & Wagnalls. $2.
Yale, Catherine B. Story of the Old Willard House of Deerfield, Mass. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.00.
Yonge, Rev. J. E. An Exposition of the Apostles' Creed. Thomas Whittaker. 75 cents.

Fine Arts.

PICTURES AT THE WATER-COLOR EXHIBITION.

If we consider light and air to be the principal qualities which a landscape should possess to be good, we shall not find any better at the Water-Color Exhibition than those painted by Mr. Charles A. Platt. "Lifting Fog — Dordrecht," No. 213, while it is a scene in Holland, is by no means painted with an eye to the sort of effect we find in many contemporary water-colors which have Dutch motives for their subjects. While these are toned down to blackish gray, and houses and boats, trees and figures, are half lost in a woolly sort of blur, Mr. Platt's picture is frankly laid in with clean, crisp washes, and is fresh and transparent in color. There is a strange idea which has always existed among writers on Dutch art, that the climate of Holland must be dark, misty, and gloomy. Taine speaks of the "coaly sky" of Amsterdam, and Charles Blanc of the "veiled sky of the Netherlands." Many painters have imbibed this prejudice and have painted pictures of Dutch subjects accordingly. M. Henry Havard, in a recently published volume, has devoted considerable space to this matter, and says rightly that Holland is one of the most luminous countries in the world. He shows that its sky, charged with vapors, reflects light with surprising intensity, and colors in themselves having no value have effect and brilliancy given them by the contrast which they form with their immediate neighbors, as well as the proportion of light and shade which enter into their composition. That Mr. Platt has seen Holland with unprejudiced eyes, and has painted his pictures as he saw the country—light and enveloped in a luminous atmosphere—is to his credit as an artist, for there is no lack of precedent for painting the blackish fog in everything in any way connected with Holland. In another picture, "Return of Sardine Boats from a Morning's Catch," No. 307, we find the same direct manner of painting and the same charm of luminous atmosphere.

A painter whose methods in treating figure subjects resemble those employed by Mr. Platt in landscape is Mr. Irving R. Wiles. There is no work in the exhibition that shows a more complete mastery of the medium than is evinced in the half-dozen pictures by which Mr. Wiles is represented. They are marked by simplicity and directness in obtaining effects, and these qualities are shown notably in a small picture of a young woman in modern dress seated on a park bench, "In the Park," No. 405, and in "Alone," No. 344, a much larger work, in which the black and gray tones of the dress are cleverly managed. In other works—"Waiting," No. 339, "A Study in Tints," No. 232, and "The Coquette," No. 150—there is freshness of color and sound painting.

Most original of all the painters represented in the Water-Color Exhibition, not so much in mere choice of subject as in his manner of presenting it artistically, is Mr. Winslow Homer. There is nothing particularly novel about a pumpkin patch, nor anything out of the common in a man's gathering the ripe pumpkins, yet Mr. Homer, in his "'For to be a Farmer's Boy,'" No. 360, has made of these elements a picture which is intensely individual. The figure of the young man with the pumpkin, and the long green vine still hanging to it in his arms, is relieved against the autumn sky, and there is a stretch of country and a low horizon dimly indicated in the distance. The color is strong and the drawing robust and spirited, but it is the feeling of the country, of the breezy outdoor life of the farmer, of "the smell of the earth and the song of the birds," with which the artist has invested his subject, that forms its charm. There are several other pictures by Mr. Homer in the exhibition, but none of them equals this, and there is but one to be compared with it. "Sand and Sky," No. 500, however, is a picture which does not possess the poetry of the other, but is simply an effective study of a white, sandy beach, with two figures of fisher girls and a black, stormy sky. It is remarkable for its virility of style.

It is always cause for satisfaction, if prizes are to be given in an exhibition, to find such prizes awarded to pictures which are entirely worthy. The Water-Color Society has been endowed this year with two valuable prizes, one for a figure work, the other for a landscape or marine picture, and they have been given to Mr. Alden Weir and Mr. Horatio Walker. Mr. Weir's "Preparing for Christmas," No. 273, a picture of a lady in black and a child in white at her side arranging Christmas greens, has excellent technical qualities and is a serious and dignified work. The successor of other pictures similar in subject and in treatment which have been shown at previous exhibitions, it is better than any of them, and conclusively proves Mr. Weir's right to be ranked among the best water-color painters we have. Mr. Walker's picture, "Evening," No. 331, a quiet landscape of flat meadows and some thinly foliaged trees with a herd of swine moving slowly across the field in the foreground, recalls the modern Dutch school in the way the landscape is treated, and in the drove of pigs there is a suggestion of the homely picturesqueness of Millet's work. This picture is noticeable for its excellence as a piece of color and for its completeness and harmony of composition. If we could find faults in it, they would be comparatively unimportant faults of detail, such as the unnatural shape of some of the saplings whose thin trunks are seen against the sky in the middle distance; but the great excellence of the picture as a whole make such small matters of little moment. It is singularly free from technical faults, and devoid of any semblance of trickiness in painting, and to say this of a contemporary water-color painting is to say a great deal. We shall not find many more in the exhibition of which this can be truthfully asserted.

Mr. Robert Blum, one of our best-known and most talented painters in water-colors, is represented here by an excellent picture, "A Venetian Pumpkin Vendor," No. 120; Mr. Lippincott by four works, of which the best are "Sylvie," No. 49, a nearly half life-size figure of a young woman, which is painted in a light color scheme of whites and blues, and "Stolen Moments," No. 61, another young woman seated in a chair with her back to the window, reading a book—a picture painted in the highest of high keys and of an extreme lightness of general tone; Mr. Dielman by a dignified study of a lady in black with some white chrysanthemums in her lap—"In October," No. 5; and Mr. Tiffany by a number of works of various subjects, quite the most remarkable being a decorative figure composition of much brilliancy of color, "Feeding the Flamingoes," No. 439. Mr. Ranger's mature talent is well exemplified by various works. In "The Village of Pont St. Maxence," No. 7, "A Wet Day in Amsterdam," No. 167, and "Sunset and Snow, Madison Square, N. Y.," No. 325, we find his usual excellent qualities of color and justness of observation in painting street scenes, and in "Clouds," No. 310, and "Morning on the River Oise," No. 388, effective painting of pure landscape. Two charming bits of sky and water, most artistic in treatment, are Mr. Twachtman's "Boats on the Maas," No. 545, and "Landscape," No. 555, and an agreeably colored and neatly painted picture of a marine subject is Mr. Carlton T. Chapman's "The Lighthouse," No. 90. Mr. Percy Moran is seen at his best in a delightful little picture of a young lady of colonial times, dressed in blue, lighting the candles on a table—"Tea Time," No. 37; and "Autumn," No. 31, is the title of another charming trifle by the same painter, in which the subject is a simple figure of a pretty girl standing in a doorway. "The Washing Ground of Madrid," No. 199, by Harry Fenn, is one of the cleverest of sketches, a small bit of paper with innumerable figures of washerwomen at a river's side and lines of white linen blown by the wind, the whole deftly indicated and sparkling with little spots of gay color. In contrast to it is "Primavera," No. 244, by Theodore Robinson, a quietly painted head of a peasant girl, in which the charm lies in subtle drawing, in delicate, almost faded, tints, and in the tenderest painting.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 1, 1888.

The Week.

THE explosion of party wrath against the new Fisheries Treaty must be interpreted by what has gone before. It must be remembered that the Republicans in the Senate had voted nearly two years ago against any commission to negotiate a treaty—which was the same thing as voting against *any* treaty, even though it might result in giving us all that we claimed or asked. It will be called to mind that, after the late Commission had been appointed, Senator Frye of Maine, who is supposed to be most heavily charged with fishing interests, called in question the legality of the Commission altogether, and intimated that its work would be rejected on the ground of irregularity without regard to its merits. It must be borne in mind, also, that the opponents of any treaty have committed themselves to the policy of retaliation, and have adopted a method which reverses the national policy in that behalf, by putting upon the President the onus of retaliation instead of reserving it to Congress, where it properly belongs as an adjunct of the war-making power. In view of these facts, it is most natural that the treaty should be received with great wrath and dudgeon. As it has been proclaimed beforehand in many ways that no treaty would be satisfactory, we can hardly wonder that this one is not satisfactory. Opposition to it has been discounted in advance by all who desire to be delivered from this pest and menace. But these antecedent facts do not dispense the Republican Senators from the necessity of finding reasons for the rejection of the treaty, if they mean to reject it.

Mr. Trescott of Washington has perhaps made, in the columns of the *Herald*, the most formidable attack on the treaty which it has yet received. He says, "We paid the enormous amount of $10,000,000—$5,500,000 in cash, and the balance in twelve years' remitted duties" on Canadian fish—"for the privilege of catching $700,000 worth of fish." This means that the value to us of the fishing privileges for which we are contending, in Canadian waters, has been shown by twelve years of actual experiment to be a little over $58,000 a year. The duties we no longer remit. This appears to be, if we are to believe Mr. Trescott, and he is the most competent critic of the treaty that has yet appeared, the exact measure of our bone of contention with Canada. We want $58,000 worth of fish every year from Canadian waters. Now, the total number of persons employed in the fishing business in the New England States is about 30,000. Say that half of these want to fish in Canadian waters, and would bring home the $58,000 of fish. The share of each would be under four dollars a year. It is about this sum that the people of the United States are asked to-day to lash themselves into fury, and hurl defiance at a small neighboring people—Americans as well as ourselves, and mostly of our own faith and race. Of course it is annoying that we should have made a bad bargain under the Treaty of Washington, and paid a great deal of money for fish which we never caught, but it is childish to allow temper over that to hinder our settlement of the present dispute. Diplomatists, of all men, ought not to cry over spilled milk. The one duty of American statesmen to-day with regard to Canada is to prepare the way for her absorption into the Union with a contented mind and fraternal feeling. This is a consummation worth trying for, even if it cost us a dollar a head more for the Gloucester fishermen.

The action of the Democratic National Committee in calling the Convention to meet at St. Louis a fortnight before the Republicans meet at Chicago, shows the great advantage which the party reaps from having a leader possessed of convictions, whose record is a platform in itself. The reactionary and Bourbon elements which so long made Democratic success impossible, have been overcome by the logic of events, and Mr. Cleveland's Administration enables the party to open the canvass with confidence and courage. The selection of an early date for the Convention will strengthen the hands of the tariff reformers in Congress, and the renomination of Mr. Cleveland upon the platform laid down in his message is now seen to be assured. The Hill boom had but little vitality left before, and will not be heard of hereafter. The Brooklyn *Eagle*, which has always shown itself particularly well informed as to the Governor's course, says that Mr. Cleveland's name will be proposed to the Convention by Mr. Hill, and predicts that he will receive the vote of every delegate from every State and Territory on the first roll-call.

Mr. Blaine appears to have administered a rebuke to the "unspeakable donkeys" and "unmitigated" and "drivelling idiots" who, in the *Tribune* and elsewhere, have been insisting that his letter of withdrawal was not sincere, for in an interview with a correspondent of the *World*, cabled from Florence on Saturday, he is represented as replying with a "most emphatic negative" when he was asked if he would under any circumstances permit his name to be used again as a candidate. He then added:

> "I do not wish to make any new affirmations upon the subject. I have said all that I wish to say upon this subject in that letter. That letter, as you must know, was not a haphazard, off-hand affair. It was the result of much deliberation and careful thought. I hold that I have no right to be a candidate again. A man who has once been the candidate of his party, and defeated, owes it to his party to withdraw, and not be a candidate a second time. More than this, there is another plain reason for my withdrawing. I could not go through the burden and fatigue of another Presidential canvass—such a one as the canvass of the last campaign. To accept a nomination, and to do less than before, would be impossible. It would look as if I had no faith myself in the success of the party."

That ought to be conclusive, but the *Tribune* still throws doubt upon it by repeating its old remark that the interview "withdraws his name from the consideration of Republicans for the nomination, so far as it is in his power to do so."

We presume there are by this time very few people in the community who do not know all that is worth knowing about the "Trusts," how they are formed, how they operate, and what their object is. The time for exposure and denunciation of them therefore seems to have gone by, and the time for proposing a remedy has arrived. There is a great deal of threatening on all sides, but nobody has as yet drafted the constitutional bill which is to extirpate the evil. We hope this most necessary work will be done before long. It seems to be forgotten that our present tariff has for its object the very thing which constitutes the guilt of the Trusts, namely, the raising of prices to the community at large by restricting competition in the market. What has produced Trusts is simply the fact that the law does not restrict competition sufficiently to enable manufacturers and dealers to make as much money as they would like. They are therefore trying to supplement the law by voluntary combination. Now, we do not like this; it is very prejudicial to the public interest. But where is the high-tariff man who has the brass to propose that it should be punished criminally? If there be such a person, let us see a draft of his bill, and let us hear his address to the jury in the prosecution. If the Trust men are charged with restricting competition, they will ask, What else is the tariff for? If they are charged with raising prices to the consumer, they will ask, What else does the tariff do? They will add that high prices are necessary to enable them to pay high wages to the American laborer—that if they did not combine, they would have to go out of business; and they will ask, What is the use of the tariff except to enable people to carry on trades in which there is no profit under a system of open competition? We advise anybody who is going to meet them in court to get something ready besides denunciation of monopoly.

The strike of the locomotive engineers on the Chicago, Burlington and Quincy Railroad, which began at four o'clock on Monday morning, is a model in its way. It has been undertaken after full discussion, and after the complete failure of the negotiations, and in the manner and spirit in which two reasonable business men separate on finding themselves unable to come to terms. There is, we are told, to be no interference with the company's business, and no attempt to prevent the employment of new men on the part of the strikers. If this programme

be carried out, it will unquestionably win sympathy for the engineers among that great body of the public who know little or nothing of the merits of the quarrel. That is, people will be disposed to say that men as calm, and sober-minded, and self-respecting as these would hardly take a step so serious unless they had at least a good deal of right on their side.

We print to-day a communication of considerable interest about the attack which is being made on railroad property in Iowa. The assault is widely attributed to the instigation of friends or supporters, headed by Gov. Larrabee, of Senator Allison, who is now generally talked of as one of the possible candidates in case of Blaine's positive withdrawal next summer. If Mr. Allison's friends, however, think they are helping him by an onslaught on one of a great body of invested property, held largely in the Eastern States, they are making a prodigious mistake. No candidate who allows his name to be associated with legalized robbery of people who have saved money, and invested it in Iowa in reliance on the honesty and good sense of her Legislature and purity of her courts, need show his face in this part of the world in these times. If the Iowa politicians carry out their programme, they will put her in the category of repudiating States, in the eyes of the civilized world, just as effectually as if they refused to pay the interest on the State debt. People who have money to lend or invest will not make any distinction between cheating the State creditors and confiscating railroad property; and no convention which wants to win an election or get money for a campaign, will send a candidate into the field who has even the repute of having been mixed up in a transaction of either kind.

Among the articles in the tariff list which yield a considerable part of the hated surplus, and which most persons thought might with advantage be put on the free list, are fruit and nuts. Not so. A gathering of fruit-growers in southern California recently passed a series of resolutions against any reduction of the duties on oranges, nuts, prunes, plums, or raisins, or any other horticultural or agricultural products. It is argued by the California fruit-growers that duties on fruit create a home market for the manufacturer just as duties on manufactures create a home market for the farmer and fruit-grower. On the other hand, Mr. S. T. Coulter of Sonoma County, Cal., writing to the *Pacific Rural Press*, cries, For shame! and asks, "Why should we who boast of the wonderful productiveness of our orchards, and vineyards, and olive, and orange groves, and proclaim to the world that they yield us an annual clear profit of from *three to five hundred dollars per acre*, begrudge to the millions of hungry, starving poor who are famishing for our luscious fruits the mere pittance which the tariff adds to our enormous profit? . . . For very shame let us cease snivelling and whining for protection—let us cease to play the rôle of paupers, and proclaim our inability to support ourselves, and cease boasting of our phenomenal productions and enormous profits." The duty on plums and prunes is 1 cent per pound, on raisins 2 cents, on filberts, walnuts, and hazel nuts 3 cents, on almonds 5 cents, and on oranges 25 cents per box. Bananas are on the free list, but it is reported that a petition has been sent to Congress to impose a duty upon them, because, although they cannot be produced in this country, they take the place of a certain amount of native fruit. Poor old Uncle Sam is, indeed, having a miserable time with his surplus. Yet some of our ablest statesmen say that a surplus is an easier thing to deal with than a deficit.

The Indian Bureau appears to have made a serious blunder in its order of last year forbidding any use whatever of the Indian languages in instruction on the reservations, and to be committing a grave wrong in its refusal to rescind the order. Everybody concedes that the United States Government should employ every legitimate means to encourage the substitution of the English language for the native tongues, and a prohibition of the use of any language except English in the schools supported by the Government would be justifiable. But the Government has no moral right to go further than this, and to order peremptorily that missionary societies, which maintain schools in many places without assistance from the Federal Treasury, shall cease using the Indian languages. The trouble in the matter seems to be that the Indian Bureau attempted to bring about a desirable reform too hastily and too carelessly, and now allows a foolish pride of consistency to stand in the way of a frank confession of error. As we understand the case, the people most seriously affected fully sympathize with the purpose in view, of encouraging the substitution of English for the vernacular, and would have sustained any reasonable effort in that direction. But they feel that the Indian Office has acted hastily and treated them cavalierly, and they appeal for a reversal of its action with an argument which seems stronger than any of the attempted replies to it.

Some of the Republican organs are waving the bloody shirt over a favorable report from a committee presented in the House by a Democratic Representative from Georgia, on a bill to repeal that section of the Revised Statutes which prohibits ex-Confederates from holding commissions in the United States Army. They evidently forget that a similar bill was introduced in the last Congress by the Republican Senator from Virginia, and supported also by Republican Senators from Pennsylvania and Nevada. Consistency demands the passage of such a bill, which is only carrying out to its logical conclusion the reconstruction policy adopted by the Republican party. That policy provided that ex-Confederates might return to Congress to make laws, and might sit upon the Federal Bench to interpret laws. Of course they ought to be equally eligible to appointment in the army which may be called upon to enforce the laws. When Republican Presidents appointed "rebels" to the highest places in the civil service, they removed the last argument against their admission upon equal terms to the military service.

A Southern educator writes to us:

"Your editorial on 'Southern Homicide' was a good one, and I am heartily glad that you think that matters are mending in this respect. I have not noticed any improvement myself. I work against our Southern views as well as I can. I teach a Bible class of young men, and have given them my views of the matter very fully. One of the occasional attendants is a young fellow whose father, one of our best citizens, killed another prominent man a year ago last summer, and yesterday the wife of the slain man was there to hear my talk on Christian forgiveness. I could tell other things to show how that spirit is abroad—I mean the spirit of avenging one's own wrongs."

We fear this is hardly the most effective view to take of the matter. Preaching "Christian forgiveness" in reference to the homicidal tendency will, in the great majority of cases, confirm the notion, which is at the bottom of most Southern homicides, that wrongs calling for the infliction of death are, in a civilized community, private wrongs, the penalty for which the individual sufferer is at liberty to remit if he pleases. This, however, socially considered, is an anarchical doctrine. If a man has done something to me for which I think he ought to be slain or otherwise punished, I have no right to forgive him at all. The pardoning power does not rest with me. I have transferred it to the society in which I live. His offence is against it, and not against me only. I can neither try him, nor sentence him, nor let him off. I am bound to pursue him and see that he gets justice through due process of law, no matter how I may feel towards him as a Christian. I have no right to go after him with a knife or a pistol, except as the aid of the sheriff. Anybody who succeeds in getting these ideas implanted in the heads of Southern youth will find them more fruitful of peace and quiet, we cannot help thinking, than appeals to personal morality, because they do not permit the would-be murderer to negotiate with himself about the execution of his designs.

There was an interesting discussion in the Republican New York County Committee last week, the object of which, according to the *Tribune*, was to confine the organization to "straight Republicans only." This keynote appears to have been struck with much greater clearness by a member who declared that "there should be a straight Republican party if there was only one man in it." This sentiment evoked tremendous applause, and we are not surprised that it did. It puts into the terse language of formula the principle which has been animating the Republican party in this vicinity since the last national election. That election having shown that the party could not command votes enough

to win at the polls, its leaders at once determined upon the somewhat unusual course of reducing its numbers. It immediately began to "purge" itself of all members suspected of being in any way tainted with independence. This succeeded so well that in the election of the following year the Democratic plurality in the State was increased from 1,047 to 11,134, and in the election of last November it appeared that the good work was still going on, for the Democratic plurality advanced then to over 17,000. The Republican vote in this city has dropped in the meantime from 90,000 to 58,000. The work of making it "straight if there is only one man in it" is still going on, and anybody who has been unable to find a rational explanation of the *Tribune's* course towards the approaching Presidential campaign will find it here. The party is not working for mere success at the polls, but to make itself "select."

The Indianapolis *Journal* publishes the following editorial paragraph: "In answer to repeated inquiries, the *Journal* replies that Gen. Harrison, while a member of the United States Senate, voted for the Chinese Restriction Bill as it now appears upon the statute-book." The *Journal* appears to have been made the victim of deception. If its editor will turn to his copy of 'McPherson's Handbook of Politics for 1882,' and consult the portion devoted to "The Chinese Question" (pp. 92-107), he will find the attitude of Gen. Harrison upon this question very differently stated. The first Chinese Bill passed by the Forty-seventh Congress went through the Senate March 9, 1882, Gen. Harrison's name not being recorded on the final vote, although the day before it is found among the yeas on two unsuccessful amendments intended to liberalize the measure. The bill was vetoed by President Arthur, and on April 5, 1882, the question was put, "Shall the bill pass, the objections of the President to the contrary notwithstanding?" And Gen. Harrison voted nay. A new bill, intended to meet the President's objections, came before the Senate April 25, 1882, and again April 28. Amendments were brought forward still further to liberalize the proposed policy, including one which aimed to strike out the section providing that no Chinaman should ever be admitted to citizenship, for all of which amendments Gen. Harrison voted. The bill was finally passed by a vote of 32 to 15, and among the nays is found the name of Gen. Harrison.

The *Journal's* paragraph is doubtless intended to meet the objection urged against Gen. Harrison's candidacy, that he has a bad "record" for the Pacific Coast on the Chinese question; but his record cannot be disposed of by denials of the truth. The fact is, that Gen. Harrison voted against the Chinese Restriction Bill as it now appears upon the statute-book, and it is a vote of which he may well be proud. It is an unfortunate circumstance that the supposed necessities of a Presidential candidate for Pacific Coast purposes render his champions eager to explain away and even to deny action so greatly to his credit. Moreover, Gen. Harrison is no worse off in this matter than other possible Republican candidates who were with him in the Senate. On the final vote against the present Chinese Exclusion Bill, Messrs. Allison, Hawley, and Sherman voted in the negative with Gen. Harrison. This vote may prove fatal to the chances of each for a Presidential nomination, but doubtless each would "rather be right than be President," and all four of them were right on this occasion.

The latest figures from Rhode Island on the working of the prohibitory law there are more startling than any which have gone before. It has been previously shown that there are more liquor saloons under prohibition than there were under license, and now it is shown that there has been a great increase in drunkenness and crime during the past year, as compared with the first year under prohibition. The official figures upon the latter points were presented to the Legislature last week. They show that during the last six months under license in 1885 the number of arrests was 3,398; during the last six months of 1886 the number was 2,262, but during the last six months of 1887 it reached nearly its former dimensions, being 3,090. During the last six months of 1885 there were 2,529 cases of drunkenness and revelling; during the same period for 1886 there were 1,475 cases, and during the same period for 1887 there were 2,180 cases. Upon cases of common drunkards, the showing is worst of all. There were during the last six months of 1885, 60 of these, during the same period in 1886, 23, and during the same period in 1887, 79.

It is evident from these figures that the State is suffering all the evils which flow from the unrestricted sale of liquor. No attempt is made longer to enforce the law. Liquor is sold more freely in the city of Providence than it was under license, the number of saloons to population being one for every 206 persons. The average under high license is about one to every 400. But this free sale is not all the harm that the law is responsible for. During the first year that the law was in existence there sprang up in all the cities of the State a host of so-called private "club-rooms" which were merely secret drinking-places. The inevitable effect of these was to make drunkards of men who would never have become so under other conditions. The figures now given show the results in the increase of common drunkards. We do not seek to underestimate in any way the evils of bars and saloons. We regard them as a curse everywhere, and would rejoice to see them all swept from existence; but, great as their evils are, those of secret drinking and of unrestricted drinking are greater. Prohibition is worse than a folly when it leads to results like these.

We are glad to be able to quote the New York *Times* in corroboration of our views concerning intercollegiate athletic contests. From an editorial article in its Sunday's issue, designed to show that our colleges are no longer purely educational institutions, we take the concluding paragraph, which we commend to heads of colleges and to parents generally. The italics are ours:

> "Here, we think, is the real justification for intercollegiate athletic contests. To defend them as really conducive to scholarship can hardly be done with a straight face. To endorse them as cultivating a manly spirit goes for something, but not very much. Conceived of as part of a strictly educational system, they are not even partially a good. In an ideal university, where men came only to study and fit themselves for the serious business of life, they would have no place. *But as one of the manifestations of increasing luxury now prevalent in society, and through society in the colleges, they will have to be borne with as best they can.* The colleges cannot abolish them without either repelling from themselves a part of their students, or allowing the latter to invent some still more objectionable substitute."

The fears of war in Europe as the spring approaches are growing. Russia is moving in the Bulgarian matter, though with but slender prospects of any success through negotiations. She wants Turkey to take the chestnut out of the fire by warning Prince Ferdinand that he is an intruder and must decamp; but Turkey shows no disposition to comply, knowing that if she attempted to interfere alone, Bulgaria would resist, and probably resist successfully, and that the attempt would probably end in the appearance of Austria on the scene, and a general mêlée, in which, no matter who won, the Turks would be sure to lose ground. As the Russian preparations continue, what good observers apprehend is that Russia may force the French, in spite of their peaceableness, to take the field on the now-or-never principle. Without Russia the French cannot fight, and if Russia says this is the last opportunity she will offer for an indefinite period, they may, however reluctantly, seize it.

The Russian "explanation" about Bulgaria really explains nothing. What it sets forth is in reality that Bulgaria owed her existence to Russian efforts and sacrifices, which is true, and that therefore Bulgaria is bound to choose a Prince and carry on her government under Russian advice and dictation, which the Bulgarians deny. The only objection to the two Princes who have occupied the throne is that they were not selected by Russia. No one pretends that they were not (as the Treaty of Berlin intended they should be) the free choice of the Bulgarian people. The treaty required that the Prince's election should secure the ratification of the Powers, and the only reason why it has not done so is Russia's refusal to concur. How the Czar's approval is ever to be secured for a choice which he has not been allowed to dictate, or how the Bulgarians are ever to be got to permit him to name a Prince for them, does not appear. The problem at present looks insoluble, but as long as nobody is allowed to meddle with them, the Bulgarians will hardly care whether it is ever solved or not.

THE IOWA RAILROADS.

Gov. Larrabee of Iowa incorporated in his message to the Legislature the other day the most furious attack on the railroads made since the Granger excitement fifteen years ago. The debt, funded and unfunded, of the railroads within the State is $25,350,000. The net earnings give on this amount a return of a little over 6 per cent., leaving nothing for the holders of the stock as a whole. This does not seem a very prosperous state of things for investors, but it is, nevertheless, apparently, in the Governor's eyes, too prosperous by half. He recommends legislation fixing the maximum passenger fare at two cents per mile, which he says will not hurt the companies, as they will be compensated by increased travel, which may be true. What surprises us is that no railroad reformer of the Governor's thorough type has suggested carrying passengers by weight. It would be hard to furnish any argument against it, except the trifling inconvenience of weighing passengers when taking their tickets, and the annoyance to heavy women of having their weight made known to the ticket agent. This could, however, readily be reduced to a minimum by a little privacy in the weighing process. All the conditions of railroad traffic, as set forth by experts, make the weight of passengers just as important as the weight of goods or cattle, which is always carefully ascertained and made the basis of charges. At present there is apparently a very unfair advantage enjoyed by stout persons of both sexes. In fact, it would be difficult to justify on paper the universal custom of making a one-hundred-pound woman pay exactly the same fare for the same distance as the two-hundred-pound man.

Gov. Larrabee further recommends "the passage of a law fixing reasonable maximum rates of freight in the principal commodities transported by rail, and authorizing and requiring the Railroad Commissioners to reduce said rates at any time when, in their judgment, they are too high." "If it should be held," he adds, "that the Legislature cannot delegate to the Commissioners the power to absolutely fix such rates, then they should be regarded as prima-facie reasonable rates." The proposal to fix rates on freight by an act of the Legislature is, we believe, something entirely new, going beyond anything hitherto proposed in any country in the matter of regulation of railroad property. The utmost that other civilized States have done is to create commissions or boards to consider, through actual judicial investigation, what "reasonable maximum rates" are. No Legislature has, we believe, thus far taken this task on itself. One inevitable result of such a policy as the Governor recommends would be the appearance of freight charges as an issue in every State canvass, and the candidate who was in favor of cutting them down to the lowest point would naturally have the strongest claim on the favor of the constituency, and the only recourse open to the corporations to save themselves from ruin would be a considerable extension of the much talked of "use of money at elections."

The general result of the Governor's recommendations has been that there are now before the Iowa Legislature seventy-five different bills introduced since January 10, each providing for some sort of regulation of railroads. One of them fixes the passenger fare at two cents per mile, but another provides for the creation of an *elective* commission of five persons charged with the duty of establishing freight tariffs, or, in other words, to all intents and purposes takes the management of the roads out of the hands of the owners, who unfortunately are mainly non-residents. If they were not, the fact that railroads, besides being public highways, are also private property, and have in Iowa, as in other States, been constructed in the main with the savings of individuals, would probably not be so readily forgotten as it is occasionally in some of the Western States. The Granger attack on the Iowa railroads in 1878 was brought to a summary close by the prompt refusal of the owners of capital either to invest or lend in the State. Under this cooling influence there was a rapid disappearance of the anti-railroad excitement.

The present one will probably die out under a similar influence, but we wonder whether the railroad managers ever seriously consider the extent to which they suggest or stimulate these assaults on their property by the "wars" over rates. One of these "wars" is now raging in the West, and it, like the others, has brought about reductions below what even Grangers think "a reasonable maximum," and, of course, inevitably suggests to the rustic moralists who live along the lines that if railroads can afford to carry goods at such low rates in order to damage rivals, they can carry them at the same rates to accommodate the public, if proper compulsion be applied. In fact, nothing does so much to debauch public opinion about railroad property as "wars." They seem to justify the charges of extortion made by the most rabid reformers, and exhibit the managers in a poor light as regards good sense and business prudence.

EXTRAORDINARY STORY ABOUT HOLLAND.

We would warn Mr. Chauncey M. Depew and other Republican orators that, if the forthcoming Presidential canvass is to turn on the tariff, the discussion must be serious and careful, because people are not going this time to let random assertions about the effects of tariff legislation pass without examination. We are moved to make this observation by the following extraordinary passage in an interview with Mr. Depew at Chicago, which appeared in the New York *Tribune* on Sunday:

"Four years ago, when I was abroad, I went to Holland. When I went over there, I found that there was more content and happiness in Holland than in any country in Europe. There was absolutely no pauperism. When I was in Holland last summer, I found a great deal of complaint, stagnation in labor, Socialist riots, labor troubles—things which had never been known in the country before. I met one of the most eminent business men in Holland, and he said to me that the manufactures of Holland were stagnant, that business in Holland was no longer remunerative, and there was a great deal of poverty and distress among the mechanics and laboring classes. I said to him: 'How do you account for this change?' He said: 'Because Holland adopted a few years ago free trade, and the law has ruined us.'

"'Well,' I said, 'give me some instances.'

"'Well, for instance, we raise in Holland a very superior breed of cattle. England is free trade nominally, but when she found that our cattle coming from our farms were destroying her cattle industry, when she found that we could send better cattle at cheaper prices than she could raise them, she was free trade, and, of course, could not tax them, but her Board of Trade issued an ordinance that all Holland cattle had pleuro-pneumonia, and have not permitted a head of cattle to enter England for four years. That is the free-trade way England has of protecting her industries when they are pinched.'

"'Well,' I said, 'why, such being the case, does not Holland return to protection?' He said: 'Because our manufacturers and business men are not our Government. Our Government is a non-producing class, and they are all theorists, and they are carrying out their theories and ruining the agriculturists and manufacturers and general business and labor of the country.'"

Upon this the editor—not, we are sure, Col. Grosvenor, who is, though a farmer, too wary for that—made the following sapient remarks:

"Mr. Depew's statements about the effects of free trade in Holland, reported in an interview had with him in Chicago, are commended to all free-traders, and to those protectionists, if there are any such, who may be wavering in their faith. Under free trade, business in Holland has become unremunerative, and poverty, distress, labor troubles, etc., have followed. This ruinous policy, Mr. Depew was told last summer, is persisted in because the men at the head of the Government 'are all theorists.' Theories that do not stand the test of experience are worthless. Protection has stood that test and cannot be regarded as a theory."

It seems a pity that any one should visit a country so interesting as Holland with little or no knowledge of its social or economical history. The "eminent business man" whom Mr. Depew consulted performed on him the process which the boys call "stuffing." Holland has been a free-trade country for centuries, except under the French Empire and during the union with Belgium. Since the separation from Belgium, that is, for the last fifty-eight years, she has lived under a low tariff, which has been gradually getting lower. Revisions of the tariff in the direction of free trade took place in 1845, 1850, 1854, and 1881, the national prosperity increasing all the while, Holland being the only European country which passed unscathed through the financial crisis of 1866. Mr. Depew will probably be surprised to hear that the customs duties were only, in round numbers, one-eleventh of the revenue in 1850, one-thirteenth in 1862, one-sixteenth in 1873, and one-twenty-third in 1879. During almost the whole of this period Holland has been more of a free-trade country than any in the world. This diminishing proportion of the customs duties has been due simply to increase in the sum total of the revenue.

"The eminent business man" was humbugging Mr. Depew when he told him about the establishment of free trade "a few years ago," for the returns from customs duties have hardly varied in the least for nearly forty years. They were (in round numbers) 5,000,000 florins in 1850, 5,000,000 in 1862, 5,000,000 in 1873, and 5,000,000 in 1878 and 1879. The tariff was lowered slightly in 1881, but

the duties may now be said to average 5 per cent. ad valorem on dutiable articles, which are but few in number. The only talk of change in the tariff since then has been a proposal laid before the States-General by the Government, not to lower the duties, but to increase them on sawed wood, petroleum, tea, various fruits, and articles containing sugar. Whether this has been carried into effect we do not know, but if it has, the conduct of the "eminent business man" was all the more culpable. Moreover, under this low and decreasing tariff, Dutch commerce with England has not declined relatively. The British exports to Holland were, during the five years ending in 1884, 6.2 per cent. of the total to all countries, or as much as they have been at any time since 1866, save in the exceptionally prosperous five years ending in 1875. The Dutch exports to England show similar results. They amounted in 1884 to 6.6 per cent. of the total to all countries, which was more than they had been in any previous year since 1866.

How to approach Mr. Depew's illustration of the working of free trade in Holland we hardly know. It appears from this that the prohibition of the importation of Dutch cattle into England by the British Government is an "instance" of the way in which a Dutch free-trade "law," adopted "a few years ago," has ruined the Dutch. The thread of the argument here entirely escapes us. We hope it is visible to Mr. Depew. It seems to us, as the human mind is at present constituted, an instance of the way *British* protection ruined the Dutch. But we will let him have it his own way, if he will only give attention to the following facts: that the trade of the Netherlands with Great Britain has been steadily increasing for a great number of years, the exports to that country having risen from (in round numbers) $75,000,000 in 1875 to $125,000,000 in 1885; that of this amount "live animals" formed only one-twenty-fifth of the total in the last-named year, and that the great bulk of the live animals exported to England are not "a superior breed of cattle," but sheep and lambs. He will perceive what a ridiculous story "the eminent business man" told him, when he learns that while Holland supplies 39.8 per cent. (in value) of all the butter Great Britain imports, and 17.9 of all the cheese, and 31.0 of all the refined sugar, and 9.9 of all the tobacco, and 17.9 per cent. of all the cocoa, and 27.3 of all the sheep and lambs, she supplies only 3.2 per cent. of the oxen, bulls, cows, and calves. As to the "pauperism" which Mr. Depew says did not exist in 1884, but which he found last year, there appears to be a little of the cock and the bull in this story too. The number of poor relieved in 1880 was 216,532, or 5 per cent. of the population; in 1881 216,643, in 1882 213,270, in 1883 214,516. We have no returns for 1884-5-6, but shall be glad to have Mr. Depew furnish them, together with a copy of that free-trade "law" which has ruined the Dutch.

There has been great commercial depression in Holland, undoubtedly, as in all other European countries since 1880, or four years before Mr. Depew was last there, but the tariff has had nothing to do with it, for the simple reason that Holland can hardly be said to have a tariff. The report of the Rotterdam Chamber of Commerce for 1886, which appeared in 1887, says, "The fall in prices since 1880 amounted on the 1st of January, 1887, to 12 per cent. for coffee, 43 per cent. for sugar, 25 per cent. for wheat, 26 per cent. for cotton, and 35 per cent. for indigo," as showing the cause of the trouble.

THE CIVIL SERVICE AS A PROFESSION.

Mr. Punch's advice concerning matrimony may be good, but we have never heard of any one who has followed counsel given with such oracular conciseness. Yet this, we believe, is uniformly the advice given by "such as ought to know" to those who ask them about the subject named above. Men at both ends of the official scale—Congressmen who have got places for hundreds of protégés, and poorly paid clerks who have grown gray in the service (in the rare cases when such are found)—agree in this, that the lowest round of the commercial or professional ladder is to be preferred by a young man to the most attractive clerical position in the Government service. And, in fact, the number striving for such places is much smaller, under the system of civil-service examinations, than any one familiar with the pressure under the spoils system would have deemed possible. The politicians ascribe this to what they are pleased to term the fact that the ones who would often, if not usually, make the best clerks are those whose "schooling" has been neglected. Another reason is the feeling, said to be especially common in the Southern States, that to submit to an examination is, for a person whose school-days are over, undignified, if not humiliating. But the chief reason is that the civil service, though not so bad as it is painted, is intuitively felt by the public to be a poor career for a youth of ability and energy, in a country where opportunities of getting a living are so numerous, and the prizes, in every direction, so great. It is perceived by none more clearly than by the clerks, that to adopt the service as a permament means of livelihood is to condemn one's self to hopeless mediocrity; and few, therefore, have so chosen it. Their mistake has been in supposing they could free themselves from its chains—in failing to discount its soporific influence. They have thought to use it as a life-preserver while learning to swim, and in a few years to graduate from it as physicians, lawyers, or expert accountants. But though the preliminary studies are often successfully made, few indeed have the courage to risk a bird in the hand for two in the bush. The apparent exceptions to this rule would generally be found to be those whose resignations (often through no fault of theirs) have been involuntary.

We should remember, however, that if not mostly fools, as Carlyle has it, the greater part of us, even if college graduates, are hardly destined to reach the top of any worldly tree, so that the fact that there is plenty of room there has no bearing on our individual fortunes. That it is better to have loved and lost than never to have loved at all, may be a good principle, subjectively considered, but it is not one that can be translated into practical terms. The vast majority of mankind must expect to be wage-earners, so that the question to be decided is whether, as a civil servant, one is not likely to get more comfort out of life than as a poor professional man, or schoolmaster, or journalist, or business clerk. In these callings you may, at fifty, have won your way to a few hundreds per year more, but at a how much greater sacrifice of convenience and leisure, and all that this implies! In business houses, except where the work is exceptionally light, and the pay correspondingly low, the clerk must be at work ten or twelve hours, often more; he breakfasts by himself, and dines after his children are asleep; or, if marriage has not early forced him to renounce expensive habits, he finds that the vain struggle to make both ends meet is bearing him onwards to the grave at an unexpectedly rapid rate. Now, the Government clerk has twice as long a vacation as most wage-earners receive; he has to work (with rare exceptions) but seven hours a day; his work is done in well-lighted, well-ventilated, and well-furnished rooms, and, if he lives in Washington, and has no social aspirations, he will find that two dollars will go as far as three in New York or Chicago.

Whoever thinks of entering the service had better not only leave behind all hope of distinction, but be prepared, even if the Civil-Service Act continues to be maintained, for disappointment and mortification. These may, indeed, begin before a man is born into the official world, and we should not advise any one to buy a ticket for Washington on the strength of getting 90 or even 99 per cent. in the examination. Under the old system, many tried and some succeeded in elbowing their way to the official table; under the new, many are called but few are chosen, and the few are sometimes known before the examination is held. Therefore, let the candidate observe carefully whether he has passed a "general" or a "special" examination, for if the latter, his chances of appointment are slight. In special examinations (as for examiners in the Pension Office) the entire eligible list is sent to the appointing officer, and the man at the foot of it is as likely to be appointed as the one at the head. If appointed, the clerk naturally supposes that capacity and attention to his duties will secure promotion, and so they may; but it would be well not to expect much. The influence of political patrons, from being general, has become concentrated; and the more their influence has been limited in scope, the more tenacious are they with respect to what is left. The effect of this is unpleasantly evident whenever a batch of promotions is announced, when the industrious and competent are often passed over in favor of the stupid, the careless, or the idle. This is especially annoying when a clerk finds himself promoted to work requiring greater knowledge or intelligence, while a mere copyist, without change of duties, receives the corresponding increase of pay. The proposed rules to enforce examinations for pro-

motion *may* do something to lessen this evil, but we believe the clerks have no faith in them. The bearing of rules, as of remarks, lies in the application of them; and considering the large proportion of marks given to "efficiency," of which the "Chief of Division" is the sole judge, it will be seen that the result of an examination will be very much what the authorities wish to have it.

There remains to consider but one more phase of the question—what we may call the moral aspect. That civil servants in general are dishonest, or would be if they had the opportunity, we do not believe; but the recent experience of the horse-claims division of the Treasury, and that of the Chicago Post-office in connection with its newspaper mail, are illustrations on a large scale of what many clerks learn to be familiar with in less important instances. Familiar, we mean, in the sense that they know more or less about them, and yet hold their tongues, partly because of the inconvenience and possible danger to which the opposite course would expose them, and partly because of the generally accepted maxim that the informer is worse than the thief. Add to this that the civil servant is generally unthrifty, though the precariousness of his tenure of office, and the uselessness elsewhere of experience acquired in it, ought to have made him, of all men, the most careful to have something laid by for a rainy day. Whatever else may be said of it, it must, we think, be admitted that the atmosphere of the civil service, whether in Washington or elsewhere, is not stimulating to the moral faculties. As we have hinted, there are various reasons for this, but perhaps one stronger than any other is that instead of being, what it possibly some time will be, composed of those who have chosen it as a profession, a large proportion of the men employed in it are, in a sense, men who, though not necessarily by their own fault, have failed in life, and have to be taken care of.

THE BLENDING OF THE DENOMINATIONS.

That the edge has been worn off the distinctive tenets which gave birth to the great Protestant sects is generally admitted. It is of course implied in the modern movement for denominational union, and is a condition precedent of that movement. What is not so commonly seen and acknowledged is the process of interpenetration, as it may be called, which has long been going on among the several denominations. Not only have the old barriers been broken down and partially effaced, but, as was inevitable once the fences were down, the different flocks have become somewhat mixed. With the cessation of active hostilities between the sects has come no little interchange and assimilation of opinions. The peculiar property of one or two has become the possession of all. What all once fought, all now embrace. The old boundaries can still be traced by those of an antiquarian turn, but they now include many things that they were meant to shut out, and have allowed many things to escape that they were meant for ever to shut in.

Several suggestive bits of evidence going to prove the truth of this have lately fallen under our eyes. A recent number of the *Unitarian Review* contained an article on "Church Extension" which was wholly based on the idea that there was such a thing as the enlargement of a denomination without building a single new church or winning a solitary confessed convert. The writer of the article referred to maintained that there is a noticeable spread of opinions for which the Unitarians have always stood, among the other denominations. He adduced the much greater emphasis laid upon life than upon creed, and the fuller recognition of the duty of the Church towards society, as positions which could no longer be declared preëminently Unitarian. His conclusion was that Unitarianism is to expect an extension of its influence more in the way of a leaven affecting the life of other sects silently, and from within, than in visible and numerical growth. It is very easy to say that this is making a virtue of necessity. Perhaps it is, partly; yet the facts may be as alleged, nevertheless. It is certain that the most eminent of the surviving Unitarians of the Channing type has declared that the Unitarian schism would never have taken place if New England Congregationalism had been a hundred years ago what it is to-day. There is, in fact, no lack of evidence that the Unitarians who are now fighting Congregationalism are fighting what their fathers were, and that many Congregationalists are what their own fathers fought.

Passing over to the competitors of the Congregationalists on the other wing, we are given a hint of the general denominational flux by the recent meditations of the *Observer* upon the subject of the New Theology. That journal had interrogated five or six hundred Congregational ministers as to their attitude towards the new views, and had found that, apparently, not more than twenty-five out of them all would confess to leanings that way. Its first conclusion was that the whole thing was another case of Sydney Smith's solitary clergyman wandering into a room lined with mirrors, and imagining that he was in a large gathering of the clergy. But reflection appeared to convince the *Observer* that this was a fallacious inference, and that where there was so much cry there could not be so little wool. In a later article, accordingly, it dwelt upon the possibility of a secret and insidious spread of the New Theology in places where its presence was not confessed, or, perhaps, suspected. It feared that, if the truth were known, New Haven would prove to be as badly off as Andover. It also hinted at infection in "other seminaries." What it meant is, of course, known only to itself, but it certainly might have been squinting at some seminaries of its own denomination. A singular feature of a recent editorial in the *Andover Review* was an appeal to Congregationalists to be as fearless in Biblical criticism as a certain Presbyterian professor! And the *Observer* has had evidence of the way laxity may creep into even the straitest sect, especially, as it says, in the case of young men, in some late examinations before the Presbytery of New York. Such offences must needs come, and they probably will come in increasing numbers. There is no way of laying an embargo on thought. We have high Presbyterian authority for saying that no seminary can undo the work of a college in forming habits of inquiry and standards of belief, and the colleges of to-day are the worst enemies of the theology of to-day.

Perhaps the most striking instance of one denomination giving color to another is to be seen in the remarkable spread of the liturgical movement among those branches of the Church that had inherited all of Jenny Geddes's dislike of a prayer-book. The first inroads of this movement gave great alarm to those conservative leaders who withstood them in vain. They feared that the next step would be going over bodily to Episcopacy. Some among the Episcopalians, also, were sanguine enough to think that the drift towards a liturgy was a drift towards their denomination. But the clearer heads on either side saw that the fear and the expectation were alike unfounded, and that this approach in the use of forms was consistent with a real strengthening of sectarian prejudices. Indeed, a prominent Presbyterian has declared that he knew of nothing which could have prevented a serious defection from his denomination to the Episcopalian, except the great enrichment effected so generally in the forms of worship in use among Presbyterian churches. Much might be said for that view.

This last case is a good illustration of the small significance, as bearing on denominational union, of denominational convergence in some points of belief and practice. The denominational instinct—and denominational differences are now more a matter of instinct and inheritance than anything else—is yet too strong to make the discussions of plans of union seem aught but academic. There is no better proof that professors and editors are out of touch, very often, with the masses of their own sect, than the fact that they seem to have no idea of the mingled anger and contempt with which their proposals to abolish sectarian distinctions are looked upon by the great body of the members of the churches. The latter may be like the Scotch Covenanter in not knowing very much about their creed, but they are also like her in being ready to "mainteen" it against the world.

EVENTS IN IRELAND.

Dublin, February 15, 1888.

Nothing could better illustrate the altered sentiments of the Irish masses towards England than the reception lately accorded to the Marquis of Ripon and Mr. Morley. The Dublin trades, in their thousands, turned out on a cold winter's night to welcome them with bands and banners; the largest hall was crammed with an enthusiastic pay audience to hear their speeches, while the freedom of the city was presented to them by the corporation, and at a reception they were offered addresses by some sixty of the Irish representative bodies. For the first time that I remember, union jacks floated beside green flags at popular gatherings. The warmth with which Mr. Morley and his speech were received was the

event of the principal meeting. The attempt to raise the *odium theologicum* against him signally failed. The columns of the Unionist papers had for weeks displayed shocking extracts from his writings on Voltaire, Rousseau, and the Catholic Church, the same being posted in placards throughout the city. Yet he had a heartier reception even than Lord Ripon, a zealous convert and a munificent benefactor of the Church. This was due to appreciation of Mr. Morley's services in the cause of Ireland, and to a generous opposition to the attempt to prejudice him in the popular mind. What men desire nowadays is to live as quietly and comfortably as they can in *this* world; dogmatism regarding the next carries little weight when it interferes with their aims here. We could hardly have better instances of the decline of religious rancor than the British Government moving heaven and earth to induce the Pope to bring the naughty Irish to order, and the naughty Irish lavishing honors on a man of John Morley's opinions.

The Ripon-Morley reception was most important in the number and weight of the middle, commercial, and upper classes that it brought out in favor of a home-rule settlement, and in helping to render home rule respectable. At private receptions and dinners, at a conversazione attended by some 1,600 (paying) guests, amidst music and flowers and tasteful decorations, in crowds of well-dressed and well-mannered people, it was interesting to meet those who never before identified themselves with the cause, and would have nothing to do with it now if they believed it meant disorder and disunion. Two parties alone had any real cause for dissatisfaction—the ascendency class, who are so rapidly losing their predominance; and the extreme party, whom nothing would content but an ideal republic and a fair division all round. Thankful we are to perceive that under the influence of Mr. Parnell's and Mr. Gladstone's statesmanship the latter party is steadily diminishing—that, in Parnell's words, "For one that favored parliamentary agitation to nine or ten that looked to violence and revolution as the true means of saving Ireland twelve years ago, we now have the proportions reversed." When every other prognostication and unfavorable suggestion failed regarding the reception, the question of the "Queen's health" was resorted to, and we heard that "a banquet was abandoned and a conversazione arranged so that the Queen's health should be avoided." We were next told that we had refused the toast, and then when there was, in addition to the conversazione, a banquet with the Queen's health in due form, a greater outcry than ever declared that "It was not drunk—it was swallowed." "It was proposed inaudibly." "It was a piece of acting to delude the English people." This making such a point of the Irish at large drinking the Queen's health and playing "God Save the Queen," is most futile. Both observances have been made party shibboleths, and are connected with all that is hateful and humiliating to the masses of the Irish people. The Queen has never shown Ireland a gracious side. If Ireland form a real working union with England, it signifies little whether or not we play the English national anthem and toast the sovereign. At the Leinster Hall meeting I was much struck with the fact that an expression of feeling by a large assembly must be sincere. The faint response to Lord Ripon's denunciations of outrage contrasted with the enthusiastic applause greeting all references to union with the English people and a good understanding between Catholics and Protestants in Ireland. The former response was less a cheer than a sigh, the expression of the conviction that outrage has been inevitable, and that we cannot expect to be free from it until its causes are removed.

Attendant upon the present large reductions of rent by the Land Commissioners—in many cases from 25 to 30 and 35 per cent.—there has been an almost complete surrender to the plan of campaign by the great proprietors. Much has been said about Glenbeigh, Mitchelstown, and Bodyke. Cruel evictions have taken place, small armies have been kept on foot, peasants and leaders have been imprisoned in scores, police and emergency men have been injured, Irishmen shot down—the properties for a time remained a waste—and now the owners have given in, the tenants' terms are accepted, arrears are to be wiped out, law costs paid, the evicted are to be reinstated, the ruined homesteads rebuilt. If there be any sincerity in the Government plea that the plan of campaign is a criminal conspiracy, Lady Kingston, Lord de Freyne, Col. O'Callaghan, and a host of others in like position, are guilty of compounding a felony. The Luggacurran (Marquis of Lansdowne's) difficulty is, I believe, in a fair way of settlement. The Lord of Clanricarde alone holds out against reasonable compromise. Within the last few days he has offered terms which would doubtless two years ago have formed the basis of a settlement, but which are now impossible. The tenants will never agree to any arrangement that does not include the reinstatement of the evicted, whose sacrifices in every instance have been a necessary factor of the struggle. Round the Clanricarde contest much of the interest of the last few months has centred. Owing to it Mr. Blunt and other well-known men are in jail, for it most of County Galway is in confusion. There the Crimes Act is being administered with relentless and almost incredible severity. Men are being imprisoned with hard labor for "intimidating" others, even where the "intimidated" swear they have not been intimidated at all; and then when the prisoners leave jail, others are incarcerated for rejoicing at their release. One case was related to me on good authority in which the "intimidated," like his neighbors, illuminated his house on the expiration of his "intimidator's" sentence, and where the police entered and obliged him to extinguish the candles.

Fresh interest has been drawn to the Clanricarde contest by Mr. Shaw Lefevre's chivalrous espousal of the tenants' cause at considerable personal risk. In company with a number of other English members of Parliament and sympathizers, he held a mass meeting on the 10th to express feeling for the tenantry and adopt a petition to Parliament. The Government did not interfere, and perfect order and good humor prevailed. It was, indeed, an impressive scene, calculated to touch the deepest emotions, that English-crowded platform, the breathless multitude of eager, intelligent, determined peasantry, in a setting of green fields, glistening lake, dark Connaught hills. I have lived through more than my share of great events—the downfall of American slavery, the unification of Germany and of Italy, the elevation of the position of women educationally and otherwise—and that occasion at Loughrea more than ever encourages me to hope that I may yet see what perhaps comes closer to me, though not the weightiest reform, the reconciliation of England and Ireland. We must not be too sanguine as to the Clanricarde settlement, and there may yet be bad work. The people are now so exasperated that they do not incline to consider anything but what they deem most likely to stave off further eviction. The rental is of no real account to their landlord, as it has been in other cases where arrangements have recently been made. After permitting this meeting of Mr. Lefevre, the Government can hardly continue to incarcerate Mr. Blunt for attempting to hold one on similar lines.

Mr. T. M. Healy is perhaps the ablest and most versatile, as he is the most personally beloved by those who know him, of the Irish Nationalist members. The son of a country postmaster in the south of Ireland, an obscure lad employed on an English railway, he has, within ten years, won a foremost place in Parliament and a world-wide name. He has qualified himself for the bar, and probably has a great future before him. His real life is in his home and in literature. At times he is the despair of his friends, and perhaps of his better self, in his bitter and unguarded language. Single-handed he has just fought and won a remarkable contest with the Irish courts. John O'Sullivan was on the 17th of January sentenced at Killarney to one month's imprisonment with hard labor on a charge of having taken part in a "criminal conspiracy to compel John Hartigan not to work for Agnes Curtin." (The boycotting of the Curtins, to which I have before referred, a disgraceful business from beginning to end, has nothing to do with the merits of this case.) There was no evidence whatever of conspiracy on O'Sullivan's part. He refused to shoe Mrs. Curtin's horses weeks after Hartigan had refused to shoe them. Nevertheless, he was convicted. The magistrates declined stating a case for a higher tribunal, and as the sentence was for a month only, there was no appeal. Mr. Healy took up the matter, and on the 30th of January applied to the Queen's Bench for a *certiorari*. The Crown argued that the court had no jurisdiction. The judges at first scouted the idea; but afterwards "changed their minds" when they saw the nature of the case. Right or wrong, under the Coercion Act, the decision of the magistrates could not be reversed. Nothing daunted, Mr. Healy, against the advice of his legal friends and the reminder that, after all, O'Sullivan's term would be up in a few days, carried the case on to the Exchequer Division, over which presides the Lord Chief Baron, Palles, who, of all Irish judges, has connected with his name least suspicion of partiality towards the Government. Of him, an eminent English member, Mr. Ellis, uses these words: "I may say it is a good thing that in this grievous crisis of the history of Ireland there is a man who is absolutely fearless on the Irish bench, and whose mind is saturated with the traditions of law." Unlike their English brethren, the Irish judges adjourn their courts and attend levees. The other day in the very law courts they gave a lunch to the Chief Secretary, Mr. Balfour.

The Exchequer Division proved more independent than the Queen's Bench. The conditional order was issued, and the question argued out for two days. The Crown contended that under the act there was no power in any court to interfere with the magistrates' decision. Baron Dowse asked, "If a magistrate committed a man without any evidence at all, do you say there could be no *habeas corpus?*" To which the Crown counsel answered, "I do." Baron Dowse: "Is not the absence of evidence of an offence matter that concerns the jurisdiction?" Crown counsel: "No; the warrant of the magistrate is conclusive of every fact stated in it. . . . There was no power to interfere with it." A writ of *habeas corpus* was granted. O'Sullivan was brought up a few days after and discharged; the last piece of absurdity being that even with the order of the court he could not be released

without a six-shilling stamp on the order, and, the stamp office being closed, the prisoner and his warder were relegated to a hotel for the night. Mr. Healy made touching use of his victory in a public appeal against the boycotting of the Curtin family. The decision has been a stunning blow to the Crimes Act. To-day there is a report that the prosecution of newspaper proprietors and venders is to be discontinued. The act is breaking down. It was to be carried out "thoroughly," but it was an anomaly essentially inconsistent, and foredoomed to the failure that overtook all previous attempts at coercion.

What was to have been a strictly non-Irish session of Parliament is opening with passionate discussion regarding Ireland. D. B.

A FRENCH VIEW OF BISMARCK'S SPEECH.

PARIS, February 8, 1888.

THE all-absorbing subject of interest at the present moment is the publication of the treaty made in 1879 between Prussia and Austria, and the speech pronounced a few days after this publication by Prince Bismarck before the Reichstag. The publication created some surprise, not on account of the treaty itself, for everybody knew that it existed; but people have naturally asked themselves why the publication took place. The speech of Prince Bismarck is, to a certain extent, an answer to this question. It is quite clear that the Prince did not think himself justified in asking new and enormous sacrifices from the German people without placing before them the real state of European affairs. He tore aside every veil; he showed, with the greatest frankness, the dangers to which the new German unity was exposed—dangers which are perhaps not immediate, but which are permanent; and his fairness was recompensed by the unanimity of the decision made by the Reichstag. There is a French proverb which says, "Un homme averti en vaut deux." The Germans have been warned, and whatever may be said of the high character, of the great sense of honor, of the Emperor of Russia—whatever may be said, also, of the pacific character of the new French President—Prince Bismarck does not conceal from his countrymen the fact that a coalition between France and Russia is among the possibilities of the future, and that Germany must stand prepared to send a million of men to the east and a million of men to the west.

He does not allude in his speech, and nobody expected that he would, to the recent *rapprochement* of Baron Mohrenheim, the Russian Ambassador in Paris, and M. Floquet, the President of the French Chamber of Deputies. At the time of the visit to Paris of the father of the present Emperor of Russia, when Alexander was descending the steps of the Palais de Justice, which he had visited, a young lawyer, who was not far from him, exclaimed, "Vive la Pologne, monsieur!" It was always said that this lawyer, who was then obscure, was M. Floquet; at any rate, M. Floquet did not think it necessary to deny it for many years, and the Russian Ambassador was forbidden to have any communication with him. But things have now been arranged; the friends of M. Floquet say that the insult to the Emperor was offered by another lawyer, the son of a Polish lady (to be sure, this other lawyer is now dead and cannot deny the statement); the cry "Vive la Pologne!" has become a sort of legend, and will soon be called a fable. M. Floquet, who was one of the candidates for the Presidency, is considered as the possible, even the probable, successor of the present Premier. He has, in fact, become one of the factors of the Republican policy, and his importance arises from the fact that he is supported by the Radicals, and has the sympathies of a certain faction of Opportunists at the same time.

It would have been somewhat improper to allude to these incidents in the German Reichstag; but they are as well known in Berlin as in Paris. There is no doubt that great efforts are made by a certain party in St. Petersburg, as well as in Paris, to bring about an understanding between Russia and France. But there's many a slip 'twixt cup and lip. Prince Bismarck can show to the world and to his own country treaties, written engagements; he has published his treaty with Austria; he may publish, if he likes, a treaty with Italy; he even, in his speech, spoke of "other Powers," without saying which those Powers were. France and Russia can show nothing of this sort. What are a few newspaper articles, and the utterances of irresponsible persons, compared with solid facts? There is an alliance between northern Germany and Austria, there is an alliance between the German Powers and Italy, there is no alliance between France and Russia. The utterances of the Russian press and of a part of the French press are of little importance in the eyes of Prince Bismarck. He speaks with contempt of the writers who seem bent on frightening the printer's ink; he has the greatest confidence in the character, in the honor, of the Emperor of Russia; he cannot complain of the public authorities, such as they exist in France.

It is certainly a curious fact that while, in the old Chambers of the Restoration and of the reign of Louis Philippe, there were always a few members, representatives of a warlike and revolutionary policy, who protested against the treaties of 1815, you would not find in the present Chambers a group, or even individual members, who have taken *revanche* as their platform. Of course, there is a deep, a general feeling of dissatisfaction in the French nation on the subject of the provisions of the Treaty of Frankfort, which deprived France of Alsace-Lorraine; but there is no war party in the Chamber. The Deroulèdes are not representatives of the nation. General Boulanger, who may be said to be the military representative of a war policy, entered the Cabinet for a time merely as a soldier, as seventeen other generals have been ministers of war since 1870; and as soon as he became too active and too imprudent, the Chamber took the first opportunity it found to get rid of him.

Is it not singular that, with our electoral system founded on universal suffrage, with a liberty of the press which has no bounds, the war partisans have not been able to carry a single college in the country? Does not such a fact indicate clearly the temper of the country? France has not forgotten Alsace-Lorraine, and how could she do so? But France received a severe lesson in 1870, and is not willing to incur without necessity the dangers of war. An unsuccessful war would leave France even more diminished, and it would perhaps deprive her of the remainder of Lorraine and some other provinces which were once under the sway of the Duke of Burgundy. It has sometimes pleased the German Chancellor to represent the Republicans of France as more pacific than the Royalists; but there are 180 Royalist Deputies in the Chamber. When can it be said that they have espoused a war policy, or showed themselves more anxious than the Republicans to resist the legitimate wishes of Germany? What may be said is, that under the present Constitution the President would find it very difficult, if not impossible, to make treaties of alliances. Article 30 of the Constitution of July 15, 1875, says, it is true, "The President of the Republic negotiates and ratifies treaties. He makes them known to the Chambers as soon as the interest and safety of the State permit." But Article 31 says, "The President of the Republic cannot declare war without the previous consent of the two Chambers." It is obvious that this last article will always cause great hesitation in a sovereign desirous to treat with our President. This sovereign would bind himself, and the President cannot be bound. If there is no positive treaty between Russia and France, is there at least what we call an *entente*, an understanding, a prevision of eventualities and of a common action? There is nothing of the kind; and no statesman would undertake to define the articles of this future action.

The point which is really interesting at the present moment is this: What is Russia going to do in Bulgaria, and what will Germany allow her to do? The declarations of Prince Bismarck on this point are not quite as clear as one would desire. After having said that he would no longer sue for love, in Russia or in France, he adds that he is ready to respect fully the rights conferred on them by treaty. He admits now, as he did at the time of the Treaty of Berlin, that a preponderating influence ought to devolve on Russia in Bulgaria. But how is this influence to be exercised? Russia has had fair play in Bulgaria. She had a Prince allied to her imperial family, she had the War Minister, she had a great proportion of the officers of the army. With all these advantages, she did not secure her interests, she turned out Prince Alexander, she alienated a part at least of the Bulgarians. Still, Russia is willing to help her in the vindication of the rights conferred on her by the Treaty of Berlin. "If Russia," said the Chancellor, "makes official application to us to support steps for the reëstablishment of the situation in Bulgaria as it was created by the Congress, by recommitting it to the Sultan as suzerain, I shall have no hesitation in advising his Majesty the Emperor to comply with the request." This would mean a Turkish occupation of Bulgaria, and nothing else; it does not mean a Russian occupation. What would Germany do if the Emperor of Russia, with the consent of the Sultan, should enter Bulgaria with his armies, either by sea, by way of Varna, or by land, through Rumania, who could not well refuse the passage? What would Germany advise Austria to do? Would she consider a war between Austria and Russia, if it did not take place in the Austrian provinces, as a *casus fœderis*? We are not allowed to answer clearly all these questions.

What unfortunately seems clear is, that Russia will do *something*. The Emperor of this great country will not quietly accept the situation which is made for him; he will not remain in Europe as the protégé of the German Emperor. He is all-powerful, he has a devoted people, he cannot always remain deaf to the incitements of the Panslavists. He may, without France, enter into a great contest with his powerful neighbors, in the hope that France will perforce be drawn into it.

On the whole, the pacific speech of Prince Bismarck is very disquieting.

BULGARIA.—I.

HEIDELBERG, February 9, 1888.

AT a moment when a European war, of which the Bulgarian situation is one of the principal causes, is threatening, it is worth while to look back to the stirring period when Bulgaria was ruled by the nephew of a Russian

Emperor, and to see whether we are better able to-day to account for the astonishing behavior of Russia towards the hero of Slivnitza than we were on the 7th of September, 1886, when Prince Alexander bade farewell to his people.

The Rev. Adolf Koch's 'Fürst Alexander von Bulgarien' (Darmstadt, 1887) gave us a thoroughly honest and truthful account, in a terse and unpretending style, of all the events as they appeared to the Prince and his companions. We parted from that pleasant book with the feeling that the bomb which put an end to Alexander II.'s life did as much harm to Bulgaria as to Russia. We know that the Emperor was on the point of creating a deliberative assembly, to be elected by the Zemstvos or boards of local government, and we instinctively feel that this step would have conducted Russia on the road of reform instead of on the war-path. We know with equal certainty that he placed such implicit confidence in his nephew, Prince Alexander of Battenberg, and that he so sincerely desired the welfare of the Bulgarians, that he would never have allowed the series of shameful proceedings which terminated in the kidnapping of the Prince. It is hardly going too far, therefore, to say that if war breaks out now between the Powers of Europe, the Nihilists, who brought Alexander III. on the throne, are in truth responsible for it.

From Koch's book we could gather that the Prince attributed his failure to the evil machinations of the Russian officers and civilians in Bulgaria. Prince Dondukoff-Korsakoff is charged with having intentionally drawn up the constitution for the purpose of making it impossible for the German Prince to govern the country. Ultra-radicalism was promoted and encouraged by humble instruments of a despotic government, in order to prevent a constitutional system from striking root and giving Bulgaria an independent existence. The Russian Minister of War, Milyutin, is accused of having thwarted Alexander II.'s good intentions by instructing his subordinates to undermine the Prince's position. The Prince perceives (p. 71) at the bottom of all cabals of the opposition a set of Russian intriguers, who try to sow discord between him and Russia—to the detriment of their own country. Alexander III.'s favor was withdrawn from his cousin in consequence of Hitrovo, Soboleff, and Alexander Kaulbars misrepresenting the motives of Bulgaria's decision to construct the railway from Tzaribrod to Vakarel, connecting Turkey with Western Europe, instead of a line connecting the Danube with the Macedonian frontier. The Emperor was made to believe that Bulgaria was more anxious to build a strategic line for Austria than for Russia. The Prince recognized Gen. Obrutcheff—the head of the Russian General Staff—as a formidable opponent, and fancied having incurred his resentment by the sudden dismissal of the Russian officers of a cavalry regiment (p. 103). He was also sharp enough to perceive that the Russian Consul-General Kumany was not disinterested in claiming a railway concession for the Russian firm Polyakoff (p. 56). But it is the merit of a pamphlet which has lately appeared at Paris * to have given us a clue connecting all these incidents, and explaining to us how the Russians, and they alone, have destroyed what they still call their legitimate influence in Bulgaria.

Though the writer does not give his name, it will be apparent to all persons conversant with Bulgarian affairs that he has read very important documents, and knows how to appreciate the character of the Bulgarians and Russians who have been prominent in the affairs of the principality. We are all acquainted with the extent of jobbery in Russia. During the war of 1877, Europe was horrified by disclosures of the infamies perpetrated on the patient Russian soldier by contractors, who paid a grand-duke's debts, and then recouped themselves by supplying the army with shoddy boot-soles and with cartridges filled with bran instead of gunpowder. Some contractors were in fact tried after the war; what became of them we know not, but the general impression is, that they had to be dealt with gently, as they knew too many secrets. As soon as a Prince of Bulgaria was elected, some of these firms determined to obtain a footing in the new State, and no sooner did the Prince land at Varna than MM. Utin and Tcherny presented themselves before him as representatives of the banker Günzburg and the contractor Polyakoff. They were bearers of a number of letters of introduction from influential Russians, and a letter proceeding from the imperial *Chancellerie* warmly recommended both them and their proposals. Without examining their request any further, the Prince promised to lay the matter before his Ministers as soon as his Cabinet was formed, and to pay due attention to the weighty recommendations they had brought. He fulfilled this promise on July 21, 1879, but at once encountered a decided opposition from his Bulgarian Ministers. No wonder it was so, for the Russians wished to establish a national bank with the sole privilege of administering all public moneys, undertaking financial operations relating to commercial or industrial enterprises or mortgages, coining money, establishing savings banks, etc., emitting national loans for public works, railways, bridges, roads, mines, etc. And they claimed the exclusive right to make preparatory studies for a railway from Sofia to Rustchuk!

Little as the Bulgarian Ministers were prepared for office, they possessed the national quality of being very accurate in money matters, and utterly indisposed to allow other people to appropriate the wealth of the country. It was hard that they should have so soon to set themselves against the Power which had liberated them from the Turkish yoke, and that in their very first meeting they should have to refuse a proposal recommended to them by their new Prince; but all they could afford to agree to was to examine the proposal for creating a bank, and to lay before the Chamber the plan for a railway. Russian intriguers at once set to work among the Deputies, and when the Sobranye met, the Ministry was upset. A new Cabinet was formed, in which the two Ministers who had been audacious enough to oppose the Russian contractors were replaced by new men, one of them, Archbishop Klement, a man of proved venality. When the fall of the Ministry was announced to the Chamber, M. Utin's voice was distinctly heard to say from the stranger's gallery, "At last we shall have a ministry with which it will be possible to do business." The press having taken this up, M. Utin went to the Russian Consul-General and complained. But M. Davidoff happened to be an honest man and a gentleman, so he sent him away with the words, "If you don't like to have the papers write against you, don't meddle in Bulgarian politics." Soon after, this respectable functionary, who was well thought of at the Foreign Office, and especially esteemed by the Empress, was transferred to another post by the influence of the Ring.

Of this Ring the writer declares that its members are to be found in all grades of the Russian social hierarchy, among civil and military officials, in the Emperor's suite, and among subaltern functionaries. He shows us how, as a rule, they managed to fill all the important posts reserved to Russians, viz., the post of Consul-General at Sofia, of Minister of War, of Military Counsellor of the Prince, from their own set. If other men were appointed, the Ring either forced them to adopt its cause or successfully intrigued against them, till they were transferred to some other post. Even independently of the Ring, the position of a Russian diplomat in Bulgaria was a difficult and thorny one; for besides receiving orders from the Foreign Office at St. Petersburg, he had to take into account the special wishes of the Emperor, transmitted to him from the Court, and lastly he could not afford to neglect counsels proceeding from the Slavophil committees, at M. Katkoff's bidding.

The Ring succeeded in securing the services of the four next diplomatic agents of Russia, Kumany, Hitrovo, Yonin, and Koyander, and in this way it counterbalanced the check it received in the dismissal of Gen. Parentzoff and Col. Shepeleff, who had behaved shamelessly towards Bulgaria and its Prince, and had, as far as it was in their power to do so, abetted the contractors who wished to spoliate the country. A thoroughly honest man, Gen. Ernroth, a native of Finland, succeeded to the post of Minister of War April 14, 1880, but unfortunately he gave it up again on July 13, 1881, probably because he did not like having to be in constant antagonism to the official representatives of his country.

The events which led to Prince Alexander's demand of full powers for seven years (May 23, 1881), to the people's approval of this demand, to the temporary suspension of the Constitution (July 13, 1881), and finally to its re-establishment (September 19, 1883) are all connected with the intrigues of the Ring to obtain the concession either for a national bank or at least for the construction of railways. MM. Utin and Tcherny insisted upon receiving the concession for a bank from the Government, with the restriction, of course, that the contract should be ratified later on by the Assembly; and the Klement Ministry feeling that they could not go further than to submit the Russian proposals to the Chamber, which would be sure to reject them, M. Kumany withdrew his support from the Government, and allowed the Ring to come to terms with the Opposition under Zankoff and Karaveloff. The latter unprincipled statesman accepted 200,000 francs from the Ring for electioneering purposes, and, thanks to a clever application of these ill-gotten funds, the new elections placed the Conservatives in a minority, and brought Zankoff and Karaveloff into office (April 7, 1880). They at once sent M. Hogdé out of the country to prevent this able official, whom the French Government had expressly placed at the Prince's disposal, from giving an unfavorable opinion concerning the merits of the bank scheme. But all their intrigues failed to induce the Chamber to abandon the Bulgarian principle of strict economy, and to hand over the resources of the country to foreigners. The Assembly returned the proposals to the Government, to be reconsidered. Well aware that the scheme could not bear scrutiny, the Ring resigned itself to a temporary postponement, and considered whether the railway scheme was easier to push through. They brought all their influence to bear on the Prince, representing how Austria would soon insist upon Bulgaria's constructing the line from Vakarel to Tzaribrod, contemplated in the Berlin Treaty and destined to connect Turkey with Central Europe, and how it was of the utmost im-

* 'Les Causes occultes de la question bulgare.' Paul Ollendorff. 1887.

portance for Russia to have a line connecting the Danube with Sofia, so that Russian troops might advance upon the capital as fast as an Austrian army. The Prince, who acknowledged the legitimacy of Russia's preëminence in Bulgaria, and knew perfectly well that he owed his crown to his uncle, gave in, and M. Zankoff was allowed to recommend the construction of railways to the Assembly (October 27, 1880). The deputies adopted a line from Sofia to Rustchuk in principle, but they were wise enough to request the Government to undertake the preparatory work itself and then to bring in a bill on the subject at the coming session. THEODOR VON BUNSEN.

Correspondence.

RESTRICTIONS ON THE POWER OF DISMISSAL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue of February 9, referring to the President's refusal to endorse the proposed rule requiring heads of offices in the civil service to file a written statement of the cause in every case of dismissal of subordinates, you say:

"We are aware that not a few civil-service reformers have always favored a regulation of this sort, and there is something to be said in its favor, but the arguments on the other side appear to us much the stronger. It constantly happens in private business that an employer thinks it wise to discharge a man because he is not entirely satisfied with the manner in which he does his work, although it would often seem too harsh to charge the delinquent publicly with neglect of duty. The same thing is always liable to happen in a public office. The civil service cannot be conducted efficiently if there must be a public trial every time that the head of an office thinks it wise to dismiss a subordinate. The competitive system renders it impossible to smuggle a man into a vacancy, and thus removes the only really dangerous motive for making a vacancy. With admission to the service thus guarded, the length of retention may be left safely to the discretion of the appointing power."

Will you allow me to express a difference of opinion with you on this point? I ask the favor with some hesitation, because I recognize the *Nation* as an authority on civil-service reform, and three years ago I should have agreed with you entirely even in this particular. At that time the new law had produced markedly good results. Here in Philadelphia, for instance, the Post-office had been taken wholly out of "politics," and Independent or Democratic election circulars could go safely through the mails. It was generally believed that the reform would be not only permanent but progressive, but the strain of a change of party in the Administration had not come yet. That change came, and while, owing to the growing reform spirit and lessening partisanship of the people, the strain was not what it might have been, it was enough to develop many unsuspected weak spots in the new system, and to show that a civil service which has been notoriously and systematically partisan for over half a century needs more stringent rules than may be required in that ideal *national* civil service which we must still struggle and hope for.

With what you say of the inexpediency of a public trial I cordially agree, but a mere statement of reasons would not lead to a trial (except perhaps a "trial by newspaper," the edge of which would be dulled by the partisan motive) so long as the superior kept within the bounds prescribed by the law of libel. Even admitting, however, that there were cause for an argument *ab inconvenienti*, I would suggest that, in view of the present condition of our civil service, there is more need to prevent improper dismissals than to facilitate proper ones; that while great freedom of action could be left to heads of offices had they no partisan motives for making dismissals, this is not yet the case. You say, however, that the law has taken away such motives. Now, undoubtedly, if the examinations are fair, "the competitive system renders it impossible to smuggle a man into a vacancy," *i. e.*, no one particular man can be given a place irrespective of fitness, but each must take his chance with the other applicants; yet this does not in the least prevent a deliberate change of the *personnel* of an office, collectively, from the members of one party to those of another.

In a letter which you kindly printed in your issue of December 9, 1887, I stated how such partisan change could be, and apparently was, effected, and I shall take the liberty of restating it. A systematic dismissal of all the Republicans, for instance, in an office takes place, with the result that a great number of vacancies must be filled. Even if the "sweep" be not made so rapidly as to disorganize the working of the office (a result not wholly unknown), it is "clean" enough to show Republicans that they are not wanted, and are not likely to be retained, should the head of the office be compelled, under the rules, to appoint them. The result is that scarcely any Republicans will apply for an examination that does not promise them, if they pass it, a fair chance of permanent employment, and the appointing officer is left free to fill with those of his own party the places he has made for them.

If this be true (and the administration of the Philadelphia Post-office seems to prove it); if admission to the service is not so well guarded by the Civil-Service Law as was anticipated, more stringent rules appear necessary, and what better rule has been suggested than that proposed by the only members of the Commission that one can call reformers? When the change now taking place in public opinion, in regard to "politics" in the civil service, has gone so far that the head of an office would not dare to act in the manner described, the rule will no longer be necessary. The question is, is it not needed *now?*

The unrestricted power of dismissal has a further result. If the head of an office be known to be a partisan, his subordinates must necessarily become such also. They will not be even nominal Democrats or Republicans if independence be followed by dismissal; and whenever party interests are at stake, they will be as active with their "voluntary" contributions and political work as if the Civil-Service Law did not exist. I do not say that this is universally so, but that it is so to an alarming extent—that the carrier who brings my mail says frankly that he is employed *because* he is a Democrat, and that his predecessor was discharged *because* he was a Republican. This would look as if the only practical result of the Civil-Service Act had been to raise the personal standard for admission to the public service without affecting its partisan character.

C. C. B.

PHILADELPHIA, February 18, 1888.

IOWA RAILWAYS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The spirit of Grangerism which so seriously affected several of the States of the Northwest in 1873 and 1874, stamping its character upon their legislation, and giving a name to their railways by which they have ever since been known, after a sleep of a dozen years, has again made its appearance in the State of Iowa in a very virulent form, and threatens, for the time being, the destruction of all railroad property in the State.

At the election last fall both parties, forgetful of the comparatively sparse population and limited business of the State, adopted very radical platforms on the subject of regulating railroads, declaring, among other things, in favor of a two-cent passenger rate per mile in all cases, and the lowest rate on freight existing anywhere in the United States.

Gov. Larrabee, the special friend and representative in that State of the interests of Mr. Allison, who, it is believed, expects to succeed him, should he be elevated to the Presidency, and who had been elected two years before as a conservative politician, friendly to railroads, was renominated on this platform and made a vigorous canvass on this question, and in his message to the Legislature and inaugural address strongly advocated the adoption of a two-cent fare bill and great reductions in freight rates.

The Senators and Representatives appeared eager for the work, and a great number of bills have been introduced in both houses upon the subject, proposing legislation which, if adopted, enforced, and continued, will render many of the railroads of the State practically worthless, and very seriously impair the value of all the rest.

It is said that the Railroad Commission, one of the most practical and conservative, composed of one Democrat and two Republicans, do not approve of said party platforms or proposed legislative action, and in their report to the Governor opposed any reduction of freight or passenger tariffs by the Legislature, and recommended that no radical measures on the subject of railroads should be adopted. Although this report was made several weeks since, it has not been communicated by the Governor to the Senate or Assembly, and is apparently purposely suppressed while the Legislature is acting upon this subject.

The Governor has appeared personally as an advocate before the Senate Committee, vehemently urging the passage of the Two-Cent Passenger Bill and other similar legislation, and the present indications are that these radical measures will be adopted by the Legislature, and thereby the railroad property of the State, which has cost over $350,000,000, will be seriously injured, and much of it, for the time being at least, practically destroyed, so far as earning any compensation for its owners is concerned.

These proceedings are a forcible and instructive, though not pleasant, commentary on the workings of our republican institutions under the decisions of our highest court.

It is claimed that, according to the judgment of the Supreme Court of the United States in the Granger cases, the Legislatures of the several States have full and complete control of fixing the compensation of railways both for freight and passenger traffic, and there is no remedy for any injustice committed except by an appeal to the voters at the polls.

This doctrine is a complete abdication by the courts of all power to protect this species of property, and an unconditional surrender thereof to the tender mercies of politicians and adventurers who may desire to prey upon it.

The Constitution of the United States provides (section 1, article 14) that "No State shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States; nor shall any State deprive any person of life, liberty or property

without due process of law, nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws."

No one pretends that the passage of an act by the Legislature depriving a person or corporation of its property is due process of law, but it is perfectly manifest to every one that the passage and enforcement of an act reducing the passenger and freight rates of all railroads in the State of Iowa one-third will, so long as it remains in force, reduce the value of all railroad property in the State, so far as its capacity to earn a revenue for its owners is concerned, at least one-half, as the expense of operation is not reduced, but the whole reduction is from the net.

In other words, if the proposed legislation is to take effect and remain the permanent policy of the State, the value of railroad property would be decreased thereby at least one-half, or $175,000,000. Therefore the enactment of that legislation and its continuance as the permanent policy of the State will deprive the owners of those roads of that amount of their property, and that without process of law. Yet the Supreme Court of the United States, by their judgment, declare that the passage and enforcement of such legislation is not a violation of this provision of the Constitution; that the taking of this amount of railway property from its owners, by the passage and enforcement of such a law, is not depriving them of their property, and that there is no protection for them under the Constitution, but their only remedy is at the polls.

It is difficult to understand the philosophy or reasoning of such a decision upon such premises. To illustrate: A railway company in Iowa owns a railroad upon which it is now charging three cents per mile passenger fare and the freight rates now in force, both of which are as low as the charges in any of the adjoining States, and are lawful and reasonable rates. At those rates the road pays 6 per cent. on $30,000 per mile, which is its fair and reasonable cost. It may therefore be said to be worth $30,000 per mile. If the rates are changed, as provided in the proposed legislation, by a reduction of one-third, the road will only pay 6 per cent. on $10,000 per mile, perhaps not that. Is it not evident, therefore, that the enactment and enforcement of the proposed law will deprive the owners of that property of real and substantial value to the extent of $20,000 per mile of said road? Is it true, then, as stated by the Supreme Court of the United States, practically, by their decision, that the passage and enforcement of such a law is not in violation of the Constitution of the United States? Will it not deprive the owners of the railroad of two-thirds of the actual value of their property?

There are in the United States about 135,000 miles of railroad, which have cost over $7,500,000,000, and the funded debt secured on said railroads amounts to nearly if not quite $4,000,000,000. Is it true that this vast interest is outside the pale of the Federal Constitution, and have its owners no protection against the folly, passion, and political platforms of the several States within which it is situated? The fact that the courts will prevent the forcible dispossession of the owners is of no consequence, if the Legislature can, by legislation fixing its compensation, render the property worthless.

It is respectfully submitted that such is not the correct interpretation of that instrument. In this country the legislative power is not omnipotent; it is controlled by the constitutions, both State and Federal, and its domain is confined to the proper field of legislation, and does not extend to the entering of decrees depriving persons of their property, either by wresting it from them bodily, or by rendering it worthless.

It is not denied that the Legislatures of the several States may regulate the railroads therein, and provide that they shall properly serve the public and charge only reasonable and just rates of compensation therefor, and may enact suitable legislation for that purpose; but the question of what is reasonable and proper service and a just compensation is a question to be determined, as other disputed questions of law and fact are determined, by the courts, and not by the arbitrary decree of a Legislature.

It is submitted that this subject has not received at the hands of the Supreme Court that careful, calm, and proper consideration which its importance demands. It was before the court in the famous Granger cases, was argued at length, and took much time of the court, but it was unwisely and erroneously claimed by the railroads in those cases that the Legislature had no power to interfere with or regulate the compensation of railroads, and almost the whole attention of the counsel and the court was directed to that point. In proof of this I quote the language of Mr. Justice Miller, in the case of Wabash, etc., against Illinois, 118, United States Reports, in which he in part reversed the judgment in the Granger cases. Referring to said causes more than ten years afterwards, he says:

"The main question in all the cases being the right of the State to establish any limitation upon the power of the railroad companies to fix the price at which they could carry passengers and freight, it was strenuously denied, and very confidently, by all the railroad companies, that any legislative body whatever had a right to limit the tolls and charges to be made by the carrying companies for transportation; *and the great question to be decided, and which was decided, and which was argued in all those cases, was the right of the State within which a railroad company did business, to regulate or limit the amount of any of these traffic charges. The importance of that question overshadowed all others.*"

It is manifest, therefore, that while the railroads in the Granger cases were claiming complete exemption from legislative control, and insisting upon that, the court in their decision went to the other extreme, and held that the Legislature had power to prescribe arbitrary rates by fixing a maximum tariff, which was the law then before them. This decision was by a divided court, Justices Field and Strong dissenting; their dissent not holding that the railroad companies were right in their contention of exemption from all legislative control, but that they might be regulated by proper rules and legislation upon that subject, but not by fixing a maximum rate. The true rule is that suggested by them, that the Legislature has power to regulate railroads and provide that they shall not charge more than a just and reasonable compensation, and that they may provide adequate and necessary means and facilities for ascertaining and determining that reasonable compensation. The determination and decision of what that reasonable and just compensation is, must be by the judgment of the courts after a hearing of the parties, as in all other contested matters. In this way alone can the rights of the people and of the railways be properly ascertained, fixed, and determined; and until the Supreme Court revises and reverses its decision in the granger cases in this particular, there will be no security or stability to railway property or the securities representing it.

To give every unfledged legislator the right to fix the compensation and prescribe the management and policy of the railroads of the country, is too grotesque an absurdity to be tolerated in any civilized community.

JOHN W. CARY.

MILWAUKEE, February 23, 1888.

EXTRADITION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the *Nation* of February 16 you remark that "in the meantime the rejection of the treaty permits the continuance of that great disgrace to the American name—the steady growth of the American colony of bank defaulters in Canada." Let me remind you that there is in the United States a Canadian colony of bank defaulters, embezzlers, and criminals of other classes, and that these scoundrels on both sides of the line are laughing in their sleeves at the folly of the two nations that play into their hands. Why should you persist in refusing to surrender our criminals for trial, and why should we persist in giving an asylum to yours? Why can each nation not surrender to the other such criminals as it may be thought worth while to ask for?

There's no need of a treaty to enable them to do this. The Legislature of Canada can empower the Government of Canada to surrender all criminals except those charged with political offences, and I presume that similar authorization can be given by legislature to executive with you. An extradition treaty, so far from being a benefit, is a hindrance, as it furnishes opportunities for raising technical points like that on which Eno escaped extradition. If one nation were to begin this practice of surrendering criminals, the other would certainly reciprocate; but what if it did not? Surely it would be good policy on our part to let you have all your own criminals, even if we get none of ours in return. What we want them for is to punish them, with a view to deterring others from crime, and though in many instances punishment undoubtedly has a good effect, exile certainly is quite as potent in others.

I do not urge the voluntary surrender of criminals merely on the ground of international comity, or on that of obligation imposed by a "natural law." Much of what is said in this connection is perilously near to jargon. I urge the expediency of the practice rather on the ground that it is good policy for each country to get rid of both its own and its neighbors' criminals if it can. The ordinary view, that we should not surrender your criminals unless you give up ours, is based on an utterly absurd and indefensible theory of "asylum."

WM. HOUSTON.

TORONTO, February 24, 1888.

PROTECTION AGAINST SMUGGLING.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In this morning's *Strassburger Post* is a communication, concerning smuggling on the French frontier, from which I translate the following interesting extracts:

"A few days ago the customs officials at Diedolshausen . . . captured 19 barrels of alcohol which were being smuggled from Fraize to Diedolshausen. . . . The alcohol was conveyed to the custom-house, where it awaits sale at auction. But upon the 15 barrels, the owners of which were not caught, the import duty of M. 1.80 per litre must first be paid. If, as is to be foreseen, the bids do not cover this amount, then, as was done in a similar case a short time ago, the heads of the barrels will be knocked in and the alcohol intrusted to the neighboring creek for further transportation. Otherwise the home manufacturers would be injured, and would have a right to enter complaint against the customs officials for selling alcohol cheaper than they. The 4 other barrels, upon which the owner was required to pay five

times the import duty, will be sold for what they will bring."

So the alcohol upon which the smuggler paid the duty may be sold cheaper without injuring the home manufacturer! On this principle, why cannot the officials sell all 19 barrels cheaper, seeing the smuggler had to pay five-fold on 4 barrels, which would more than cover the duty on the 19 barrels?

And are we to suppose that in the next war with France Germany will destroy the cannon she captures, lest she injure the business of the Krupp manufactory? GEORGE HEMPL.

STRASSBURG, February 9, 1888.

PROTECTION, OR PLUTOCRACY?

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Much as I desire tariff reform, it does not seem to me that the "American colony in Europe" furnishes a case in point. Argument from those facts savors too much of the protectionist method of claiming all the prosperity of this generation for the one thing, duties on imports.

It has been my observation that one could live as cheaply in almost any American city as in the European, provided he would take the same position towards society at home that he does abroad. In Europe, where he is little acquainted, he can escape the necessity of a large establishment and the expensive pressure of social requirements. If he chooses to live in a *pension*, or keep one servant and invite sparingly, he can do so without incurring social obloquy. In the case of those who do make a "spread," the difference in prices simmers itself down principally to the matter of servants and wages.

After eliminating the other reasons for staying abroad, such as the advantages of art, music, or climate, it seemed to me that persons were living there more or less permanently because they could do so more quietly, and wished to escape that false social standard, too prevalent among us, which rates a man according to his expenses instead of his moral worth. Plutocracy, rather than protection, has driven them to foreign parts. J. M. V.

BALTIMORE, February 25, 1888.

COAL ON THE PACIFIC COAST.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The *Nation* of February 9 contains an article on the coal tariff which reaches the conclusion that "American coal producers would suffer nothing" by the removal of the duty. This statement is based on the assertions that "there is no foreign coal which could come into competition with American coal anyway," and that "very little coal would be imported if the duty were repealed." While these statements are doubtless true of the Atlantic seaboard, they are not substantiated by the condition of the coal traffic on the Pacific. The British Columbia coal is as superior to the American product as the Nova Scotia coal is inferior. Further, the mines of Washington Territory are not so cheaply worked, and are not so close to the sea, as the neighboring mines in British Columbia. The duty on coal is therefore essential to the prosperity of the coal interests of Washington Territory. These interests are not unworthy of attention. Their value, as estimated by the Legislative Committee on Mines, is upward of $13,000,000. The output of the nine leading mines for 1887 was 690,212 tons, and the total output for 1888 is estimated at nearly a million tons.

I do not mean to imply that the Washington Territory coal companies are entitled to protection at the expense of the rest of the country, but I do wish to suggest that the *Nation's* conclusion that "the duty on coal is maintained because it is of no use," is defective.

Respectfully, S. A. E.

SEATTLE, W. T., February 20, 1888.

[The "conclusion" that we drew was from "assertions" made by the agent of a railroad and mining company in opposition to repeal of the duty.—ED. NATION.]

MR. BLAINE ON AMERICAN "CHEAP LABOR."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In looking through some of the consular reports issued by the Department of State, I found in No. 12, published in 1881, and relating to the "Cotton Goods Trade of the World," the following passage:

"From these returns [referring to certain English official reports] it is seen that every American spindle consumes sixty-six pounds of raw cotton, while each British spindle consumes only thirty-two pounds, or less than one-half the American consumption per spindle."

"It thus appears that each American operative works up as much raw material as two British operatives, turns out nearly $1.50 worth of manufactures to the British operative's $1.00 worth, and even in piece goods, where the superior quality and weight of the American goods are so marked, the American operative turned out 2.75 yards to 2.50 yards by the British operative."

This passage occurs in the introductory letter of transmission, and is signed "James G. Blaine." Since it is down in the same report that in America the wages paid in the cotton industries only slightly exceed those paid in England, is not this pretty good evidence from the pen of the protectionist leader that American labor is cheaper than English when measured by the unit of production?

W. S. A.

BOSTON, MASS., February 23, 1888.

A MALIGNED TERRITORY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: So much has appeared in the newspapers of the country concerning the great storm of January last, which swept with such fury the whole Northwest, that the readers of the *Nation*, as well as every one else, are no doubt heartily tired of the subject. But in many, if not most, instances the truth has been so covered up with falsehood, exaggeration, and misrepresentation that it has entirely disappeared. The result has been to create a false impression in the minds of those unacquainted with this section, and especially is this true as to Dakota.

Because I believe the *Nation* is read by a greater number of reasoning persons than any other journal of its character, I shall be very thankful if you will give space in your valuable paper to a few words concerning this matter, which may tend to a better understanding of the facts.

The number of persons who perished has been by some placed at several hundred, while others have not stopped short of a thousand. No attempt has been made to conceal the facts, as has been charged in some quarters by persons whose interests are hostile to those of the residents of Dakota; on the contrary, every effort has been made by the press and by others to ascertain the name of every person who met his death in the "blizzard." The list is now complete, and shows the number to be one hundred and thirteen.

While the truth is appalling, yet when it is considered that the area covered by this report is 150,000 square miles, or equal to the combined area of all of New England, New York, and Pennsylvania; that practically the whole of this great country is without fences, and, as a rule, sparsely settled, the greatest wonder is that the mortality is so small.

Three things should be borne in mind: (1.) That the storm came at a time of day when many were absent from home, and the children were at school—without a moment's warning, out of a clear sky, on a thawing day; and in five minutes the mass of whirling snow was so dense as to blind the eyes to the nearest objects. (2.) That no such storm was ever before known in the Territory. (3.) That the total unfamiliarity of the inhabitants with the terrors of a "blizzard" was the immediate cause of death in almost every instance, for not to exceed one in a thousand had ever witnessed a storm of this character, and many ventured out and were lost who might have remained safe within doors.

These are the facts. If another storm of equal severity should rage to-morrow, I venture the opinion that not a human being would perish.—Thanking you, I remain truly yours,

EDWARD A. MORSE.

HURON, DAKOTA, February 20, 1888.

Notes.

THE eagerly expected new volume of poems by James Russell Lowell, 'Heart's-ease and Rue,' will be published early in March by Houghton, Mifflin & Co., who also announce a novel by Mrs. Margaret Deland, the poetess of 'The Old Garden'; 'Reincarnation,' by E. D. Walker; and 'Current Religious Perils,' being the eleventh volume of Joseph Cook's Monday lectures.

Cupples & Hurd, Boston, will publish directly two genealogical works, one being the sixth edition of Whitmore's 'Ancestral Tablets,' in an improved form, the other, 'How to Write the History of a Family,' by W. P. W. Phillimore, M.A.; also a work on mental healing, 'What shall make us Whole?' and 'Thomas Carlyle's Counsels to a Literary Aspirant and What Came of Them,' a letter of 1842.

'Historic Waterways,' six hundred miles of canoeing on Wisconsin rivers, by Reuben G. Thwaites, Secretary of the State Historical Society, is in the press of A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago.

On March 25 the New York Shakspere Society will issue the first volume of 'The Bankside Shakspere,' a separate reprint of each play, with the First Quarto text paralleled with the First Folio, and both texts numbered line by line. Five hundred copies only will be printed, and should be applied for (per series, not per volume) to Mr. L. L. Lawrence, Newtown, Queens Co., N. Y., or to Trübner & Co., London.

Thomas Whitaker will be the American publisher of a 'Dictionary of Anecdote, Incident, Illustrative Fact,' gathered from pulpit and platform, and copiously indexed.

A series of recollections, 'At Home and in War,' by Col. A. V. Verestchagin, who participated in the Turkish campaign of 1878 and in the Turkoman campaign, has been translated by Miss Isabel F. Hapgood, and will be published with portrait illustrations by T. Y. Crowell & Co.

Reference has been already made in our columns to the fact that the University of Leipsic has engaged to receive and to preserve, for purposes of scientific study and historical re-

search, all books, pamphlets, or other publications relating to the development of religious ideas and institutions in the United States, under their various forms of manifestation in our religious denominations of every kind. We are now authorized to state that the Smithsonian Institution, through its system of international exchanges, will undertake the transmission of all works having this destination, if forwarded to Washington without charge to the Institution.

Some notable new foreign works are the 'Monuments of Greek and Roman Sculpture,' historically arranged under the direction of Heinrich Brunn, edited by Friedrich Bruckmann, illustrated by permanent phototypes from the originals, and to appear in eighty parts at one pound each (London: Asher & Co.); an 'Englisches Namen-Lexikon,' a pronouncing biographical dictionary (Berlin: Haude & Spener; New York: Westermann); and a popular reprint, by permission, of the royal edition of the St. Talice commentary on the 'Divine Comedy' issued in 1885, with the addition of a copperplate engraving of a hitherto unknown portrait of Dante, asserted to be the best (Milan: Ulrich Hoepli; New York: Westermann).

The 'Annual Index to Periodicals,' for the year 1887, which ranks fifth in the series of so-called "Cumulative Indexes," comes to us from the untiring compiler (Bangor, Me.: W. M. Griswold). It is now, by elimination, an almost purely American index, but still includes the *Revue Coloniale*, *Revue de Belgique*, and *Revue Historique*.

A very remarkable collection of marine views is brought together in the fifty heliotype plates of 'American and English Yachts' (Chas. Scribner's Sons). They were all taken from nature, by Mr. N. L. Stebbins, and fairly represent the progress of yacht-building in the Victorian era, at least from 1851 to the present time. One finds both the *Volunteer* and the latest edition of the *America*, and the most famous American and British-built craft, including among the latter several (like the *Irex*) never seen in our waters. Even catboats are admitted along with sloops and schooners, and at the end are placed our finest steam yachts, the *Alva*, the *Atalanta*, etc., and those wonderfully swift Herreshoff productions, the *Stiletto* and the *Now Then*. Particulars as to maker, owner, dimensions, and racing record are annexed to each plate. Mr. Edward Burgess furnishes a characteristically modest introductory sketch of the rise of yachting, and of the causes which have determined the development in building on both sides of the Atlantic. The handsome and solid oblong volume has a permanent value for study and reference.

Part III of the 'Anglo-Saxon Dictionary' published by the University of Oxford has appeared. This is the Bosworth or Bosworth-Toller dictionary, based on the manuscript collections of Dr. Bosworth, but edited and enlarged by Professor Toller. Dr. Bosworth was born in 1789, and he skirmished about in Hebrew, Arabic, Latin, Greek, and such things at first, so that he did not fairly settle down to Anglo-Saxon till his middle life. His dictionary was published first in 1838. He was many years making collections for this new edition, and had nearly completed the first part when he died, in 1876. He deserves much for the time and money which he devoted to Anglo-Saxon. He founded the chair of Anglo-Saxon at Cambridge. But his scholarship belongs to the period prior to scientific phonology, and his dictionary work seems deplorable to the new philologists. This part (Hwi-Sar) is the work of Professor Toller, and very good work it is. He has gleaned the latest vocabularies and critical studies, and brought together a rich collection of illustrative quotations from the whole field of printed Anglo-Saxon, with references not only precise, but duplicated very often for different editions of the original. It will be most welcome to all students of the grandmother tongue.

Mr. Morley's address before the Edinburgh Philosophical Institution, last November, upon 'Aphorisms' has been reprinted in a handy form (Macmillan & Co.). It is a subject which the author is especially fitted to treat, both by his natural taste and his familiarity with the French examples of this branch of literature, and he makes a very good review of the principal writers of pregnant sayings. He thinks that the best part of literature is that which sums up such wisdom about life, and certainly it is, so far as matter is concerned; but perhaps no form of literature so easily degenerates into mere point, or accustoms the mind to rest in half-truths, or imposes a sounding platitude so often in the place of real ideas. With such a guide as Mr. Morley to pick out the best and truest things, all goes very well; but literary aphorisms are not, like proverbs, stamped and current with the acceptance of all men, and the young reader may do better than get his philosophy of life from these "makers of thoughts," whose absence in our literature is often deplored more loudly than the occasion warrants.

'Ireland's Disease: Notes and Impressions,' by Philippe Daryl (Routledge & Sons), is a translation of letters written to *Le Temps* in the summers of 1886 and 1887—a mixture of wheat and chaff, amusing writing, careful and careless observation, reliable and unreliable information. The broader lines of the problem are correctly limned; and, barring particulars, a perusal of the work leaves upon the whole a tolerably correct impression on the mind of the distracted and bewildered condition of Ireland at the present moment.

In a little volume entitled 'The Geological Evidences of Evolution,' published by the author in Philadelphia, Prof. Angelo Heilprin has expanded a lecture delivered at the Academy of Natural Sciences in Philadelphia, and furnished it with clear and satisfactory illustrations. It contains little, if anything, which has not been for some time the common property of biologists, but has the merit of stating in a comprehensible way a few of the reasons why they have recognized in fossil animals of successive strata good evidence of evolutionary processes. The preacher or layman who desires to know something of the facts, and something of the kind of facts which recommend themselves to the naturalist in considering such questions, will do well to read this little book, of which the externals are attractive and the contents reliable and easily understood.

The 'Report on Indian Fibres and Fibrous Substances exhibited at the Colonial and Indian Exhibition, 1886,' issued by E. Spon, a modest volume of seventy pages, is the most important recent contribution to our knowledge of vegetable fibres. It contains in a compact, although not very convenient, form the results of fresh studies in the chemistry, microchemistry, and microscopy of the more useful and promising textile and paper fibres. Two of the authors, Messrs. Cross and Bevan, are well known from their success in the management of refractory fibres; and a colleague, Dr. George Watt, is even more widely known from his energy in collecting and his skill in displaying the vege table products of India in the Exhibition of 1886.

The Indian Survey Department has just published a report of the travels of M—H, a "native explorer," in Nepaul and southern Tibet. He crossed the Himalayas by the Pangula Pass, which he estimated at over 20,000 feet in height. Along the path he noticed, what he did not see elsewhere, large masses of rock "poised like capitals on pillars of frozen snow, about thirty feet or forty feet in circumference, and twenty feet to thirty feet in height." Not being permitted to go to the north or east, he turned to the west, and made his way with much difficulty, the Tibetan officials interposing every possible obstacle to his advance, to Dingri. From this town, situated in a plain, well cultivated, though at a height of 13,860 feet, he went to Jonkhajong, a Tibetan fort, but could go no further, and accordingly returned to India. The chief interest of his journey, which equalled neither in extent nor in the importance of the geographical observations those of Nain Singh or the Pundit A—K, seems to be in the reports of the trade between Nepaul and Tibet and the condition of the country. From his story it would appear that the Tibetan frontier is still guarded with the greatest vigilance to prevent all save authorized visitation.

We are tempted to linger on some topics suggested by 'Canadian Leaves,' a series of papers read before the Canadian Club of this city, and published by Napoléon Thompson & Co. We can, however, do little more than recommend them to any one desirous of studying the condition of the Canadian mind both towards the mother country and towards the United States. The most elaborate paper is Mr. Goldwin Smith's on "The Schism in the Anglo-Saxon Race," a review of the causes and consequences of the American Revolution, with unavoidable reference to the Celtic race and the Home-Rule contest, but with an earnest desire for the mutual perfect understanding of the Union, the Dominion, and Great Britain. Mr. Edward Collins discusses the future of the Dominion, pronouncing in favor of independence, and Principal Grant takes much the same attitude in "Canada First." Congressman Butterworth's "Commercial Union between Canada and the United States," and Mr. Erastus Wiman's discourse to the same effect, are here printed in extenso. Other papers on old Acadian and Canadian history, on the literature of the Dominion, on its mineral resources, its great Northwest, its Pacific Railroad, etc., etc., fill out the handsome pamphlet volume. A portrait of each writer accompanies his paper.

We understand that Mr. T. B. Drew, librarian of the Pilgrim Society at Plymouth, Mass., has uncovered a very important lot of old newspapers, chiefly a collection made by Judge William Cushing of the United States Supreme Court. No fewer than 134 kinds and 5,192 numbers have been brought to light, and those of the *Columbian Centinel* alone make twenty volumes. The earliest papers bear date of 1728. Some account of these rarities may be expected in the *New England Historic-Genealogical Register*.

The volume of Proceedings of the Massachusetts Historical Society just issued is of rather more than usual general interest. Among the noteworthy memoirs of deceased members is the appreciative sketch of Mr. C. C. Perkins by Dr. Samuel Eliot, in which Mr. Perkins's careful preparation for and single-hearted devotion to his lifework, the promotion of the study of art by means of literature, of galleries, and instruction in the public schools, is very clearly shown. While this is naturally chiefly dwelt upon, Mr. Perkins's eminent services in the cause of music are not overlooked. There are also printed several letters of Dr. Joseph Priestley, a selection from the Winslow Papers,

chiefly relating to refugee loyalists, and the "Records of the Old Colony Club," a Plymouth social institution which existed between the years 1769 and 1773. Of greater interest are the Journals of Gen. Henry Dearborn, kept at various times during the Revolutionary war. They give plain and sometimes amusing accounts of camp life, as well as of events in the Burgoyne campaign and a description of the battle of Monmouth. It is rather surprising to find numerous entries of festivities, especially "Desent" dances and "Eligent" balls. Spelling was not the gallant soldier's forte, especially in French names, as witness "Marques Le fiete" and "Count De Asstange." The influence of these allies is shown in the orders which he received to march "back to Reading, toot sweet."

In the *New England Magazine* for February Dr. J. M. Drew presents some documents exculpatory of Ethan Allen and other Vermont Revolutionary leaders from the charge of disloyalty in their negotiations with General Haldimand. These are shown in the light of a ruse —"a necessary political manœuvre to save the frontiers" of the State.

From Moulton, Wenborne & Co., Buffalo, we receive the prospectus of the *Bibliographer and Reference List*, a monthly to be born in May, with the design "to furnish booksellers, public libraries, and individual bookbuyers with a handy help" in the selection of books. It remains to be seen how far it will supersede the bibliography of the *Publishers' Weekly*.

Among the newer magazines we remark *Technology*, a scientific quarterly issued, in good style and with readable contents, by the senior and junior students of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. The first number appeared in September, 1887.

Bookworm for February contains a first paper by William Blades on the origin of printing, to whose latest views respecting the controversy between Holland and Germany we referred specifically the other day.

"O famoso invento de Guttemberg" are the first words of the new *Mensageiro Litterario* published at Oporto by J. J. de Mesquita Pimentel. Apology is made for the defects of its bibliographical department, and we may well await further issues before describing its character.

We have received from Chas. Scribner's Sons the first two numbers of the year of *Art and Letters*, which is simply *Les Lettres et les Arts* in an English dress, retaining all the embellishments and general typographical luxuriousness of the French edition. We say "simply," but we are well aware how great an undertaking it is to maintain a second parallel issue, even if, as would appear inevitable, the poetry has to be left untranslated. No one who can read French would hesitate which to prefer, but we doubt not that the publishers rightly calculate on a sufficient support from solely English-reading lovers of costly illustrated works. Our own readers are well aware, from constant notices, what is the character of *Les Lettres et les Arts*—a periodical without a rival in kind or in degree; the highest result yet reached of a combination of literary and pictorial art.

There is little that calls for remark in *Le Livre* for February, whose solitary full-page adornment is a curious portrait of Théophile Gautier, etched from a photograph taken in 1856.

The *Revue des Deux Mondes* announces that it will publish during the present year the following novels: "La Vocation du Comte Ghislain," by Victor Cherbuliez, "Un Artiste," by Octave Feuillet, and "Blanches Couronnes," by Ludovic Halévy.

The *Illustrirte Zeitung* for February 11 has two striking maps, the one showing the manner in which the Russian forces are massed on the German and Austrian frontier, the other showing the disposition of the French Army on the German frontier.

Archiv für Soziale Gesetzgebung und Statistik is the title of a new quarterly magazine edited by Dr. Heinrich Braun (Leipsic: H. Laupp; New York: Christern). The first article on the list of those engaged is on the condition of the unemployed in the East End of London. Others relate to Austrian savings-bank legislation, workingmen's homes in Havre, Sunday rest in Germany, to Russian, Swiss, and Belgian topics.

The principal articles in the last number of the Journal of the Royal Statistical Society are the inaugural address of the President, the Hon. G. J. Goschen, on the "Increase of Moderate Incomes," and that of Mr. Robert Giffen before the British Association, "On the Recent Rate of Material Progress in England." Among the other papers is an amusing review of Mr. Mulhall's works by M. de Foville, entitled "The Abuse of Statistics." His conclusion, after an apparently careful examination of the figures relating to France in the 'Dictionary of Statistics,' is, that "errors absolutely swarm." This is translated from a French statistical journal, as is also M. François Bernard's paper "On the World's Wheat Production."

— The *Atlantic* for March opens with an admirable short story of but half-a-dozen pages by Sarah Orne Jewett. It is a character sketch of two women, one poor and one well-to-do, who watch the body of a third according to the old New England custom, and so fall into confidences and talk of the dead woman's charities, and of the different ways of people in giving. The scene, the dialogue, and the memory of the dead as a kind of felt presence about the night-watchers as they speak together, are blended naturally (and yet with real art) to make a perfect little study from New England life. The story is much beyond the ordinary line of what is thought good work, and is as excellent as the best Miss Jewett has done. There is much other fiction in the number, and in the first place ranks the beginning of Mr. Henry James's "Aspern Papers." Dr. Holmes, however, is the real new-comer of the month, with a new series of papers which he calls, with a faint reference to the celebrated Breakfast Table, "Over the Teacups." He does no more than display his design here, and tell a story of such coincidence as the Psychical Research Society is pleased to hear of, and he has a word to say of the Boston group of its investigators. It is intimated that other characters than the "Ego" will be introduced. Several weighty articles, which cannot be noticed at length, deserve mention. Mr. Cook's discussion of "The Marriage Law in the Colonies" is supplementary to his contribution last month, to which we called attention, and is equally wide in compass and historically interesting. Mr. Fiske's American paper is general in character, but as usual one reads it through; and Prof. Thayer's analysis of the Dawes bill, and the situation of the Indians under it, is a real help to the understanding of a complicated matter, in which many persons take a humane, and would be pleased to take an intelligent interest. The article points out what is left undone by the bill, and so stands as a summary of the present state of the Indian question.

—*Harper's* for March has many beautifully printed engravings which give it the look of a holiday number; and in the article upon modern Spanish pictures they are the principal means of informing us of the characteristics of the school. The text is mostly biographical—details of names, dates, education, and the leading triumphs of the artists make its substance, with a real sketch only of Fortuny, which gives us a close view of the man, his habits and character. The topic of travel is of most importance in the number. Mr. Warner's paper on the Northwest is especially admirable and instructive, because he does not merely record what he saw, but attempts very successfully to explain the greatness of the country that lies behind St. Paul and Minneapolis, give a full account of its railroad activities, of its spirit of advance, of the vast interests which are being created there, and generally to show that when the Westerner speaks of his country as being "big," he has much more in his mind than the extent of its acreage. It is altogether as good a paper as could be wished, to inform the Eastern mind of what the opening of the Northern wheat fields involved in the way of character as well as of material results. Mr. Howells's second Swiss paper is one of minor incidents and passing characterizations, after his usual style, and he has a quotable felicity of expression in his description of Geneva as "outwardly a small moralized Bostonian Paris." The region of the Saguenay is picturesquely treated, with as much attention to its poor, blueberry-picking, unkempt, and unhopeful people as to the beauties of its summer and winter scenery; and here, too, the illustrations are most excellent. An account of the Cherokee Nation, with some particular reference to the working of their land system, and one of the estate of the youngest son of Gen. Lee in Virginia, with some colonial reminiscences, take us to other parts of our country. Col. Higginson has a sketch of a provincial New England vagabond, and in near neighborhood to it is one of the Empress Eugénie, very well done; and there are several other articles, all interesting. The number altogether is one that ranks at an unusually high level of excellence.

—The leading article in *Scribner's* is a study of the campaign of Waterloo, by Mr. John C. Ropes. He remarks upon the confused and contradictory records of the battle to be found in different histories, and makes this the excuse for returning to the subject, which he tries to treat impartially, and he has given great attention to it. The paper, which is to be supplemented by a second, is confined to the battle of Ligny and the movements immediately preceding it. The narrative is remarkably clear, and the various lines of advance and action are treated in so orderly a way, and kept so distinct, that one has no difficulty in following them. The result is a curious illustration of Tolstoi's view that in war the things that are expected to happen never occur, and the issue depends on the bearing of many fortuitous influences. One could pick out half-a-dozen important instances of this in the two days' manœuvring which is here described, and, if Mr. Ropes's view is correct, these chances were what determined the campaign against Napoleon. He thinks Wellington was altogether in error at the outset, and "guessed wrong," as did also Napoleon. The occupation of Quatre-Bras by the English was an accident, and the wandering of Erlon's corps between Ney's and Napoleon's battlefields was the blindest kind of bad fortune, for if this body of troops had either supported Ney or enveloped Blücher's flank (and it just missed doing both), the advantage to the French might have been decisive.

The confusion of actual warfare, even under great generals, the limits of prevision, and the accidents liable to occur in execution of a definitely formed and ordered plan, are most notably exemplified. Another interesting article is Mrs. James T. Fields's account of the books of Leigh Hunt, which came practically in an unbroken whole to Mr. Fields, who scattered a good many of them, but retained enough to make a real literary treasury. Many of them were annotated after Hunt's familiar fashion, and, of course, several have associations with other literary men. Shelley's 'Diogenes' is here, noted by him in Latin and Greek. It was a favorite volume, and we may be allowed to express the hope that these notes may be copied off before they have entirely faded out—a fate which Mrs. Fields says is rapidly overtaking them. The article is illustrated with many cuts and facsimiles, and among the rest Severn's drawing of Keats from memory.

—In the forty-second annual report of the Director of the Harvard College Observatory, Prof. Edward C. Pickering states that the work of that institution has been largely increased during the past year by means of three important accessions to its resources. The plans for the study of stellar spectra have been greatly enlarged by Mrs. Draper's continued liberality; the fund left by the late Uriah A. Boyden for the establishment of a mountain observatory has been transferred by its trustees to the President and Fellows of Harvard College, and the researches undertaken by its means are now directed at Cambridge; and finally the income of the large bequest of the late Robert Treat Paine has been available for the support of the work of the Observatory during the entire year. Each of the three sources of income above enumerated is greater than that often provided for the entire maintenance of an independent observatory; and in comparison with what is ordinarily attainable, the Observatory of Harvard College can no longer be regarded as inadequately endowed. Perhaps the most urgent need of the Observatory at present is a new building, or such modifications of the old one as will adapt it to the requirements of modern astronomy; and the erection of a new residence for the Director seems desirable.

—As at other observatories, the interference of the unusually unfavorable weather is remarked; no more than sixteen eclipses of Jupiter's satellites, for example, could be obtained by the new photometric method, whereas sixty-eight might have been observed had the weather permitted. The work undertaken with the meridian photometer in southern skies is about half completed. No work of greater moment is now in progress at the Observatory than the researches in stellar spectra provided for by Mrs. Draper, and known as the Henry Draper memorial. Of the varied investigations undertaken, the work of photographing the spectra of all the brighter stars north of the twenty-fifth parallel of south declination is now complete. By means of the unique apparatus of prisms, eleven inches square, and having refracting angles of 15° placed in front of the object-glass of the telescope, spectra of stars have been obtained which bear enlarging to a breadth of four inches and a length nearly three times as great, and in which hundreds of lines may be counted. Nearly 28,000 spectra have been photographed in this work, and good progress has been made in the direction necessary to make these researches available to the astronomer and physicist everywhere. As the effect of color in stars is eliminated in this spectrum work, the results are becoming useful in fixing the absolute magnitudes of the stars with a greater precision than is possible with either the eye or the photometer. In pursuance of the terms of the Boyden bequest, much progress has been made in the determination of the fitness of certain mountainous regions for the location of a permanent observatory, by means of apparatus, spectroscopic and other, by which the steadiness and transparency of the air are tested and recorded. All the meteorological conditions of the atmosphere are examined by means of self-recording instruments. During the summer of 1887 complete sets of all this apparatus were tried by Prof. Pickering and his assistants on Pike's Peak, at Seven Lakes, and at Colorado Springs, at altitudes of 14,000 feet, 11,000, and 6,000 respectively. Also, Mount Lincoln, 14,300 feet, and Mount Bross, 14,000 feet, as well as other places, were visited, to determine the availability of these points for the permanent station.

—'Montaigne, Moraliste et Pédagogue,' by Mme. Jules Favre (Paris: Fischbacher; Boston: Schoenhof), is a volume written by a thoughtful student of Montaigne, who has wished to study him *à fond*, and who desires to communicate, "to all souls who are endeavoring to perfect themselves," the moral strength and elevation she has found in this study. She has thought she could achieve this object by a collection of sentences, paragraphs, and pages—texts of greater or less length—arranged under subjects, with a running comment of her own. Unfortunately, texts from Montaigne, like Bible texts, may be made to assume, when presented disconnectedly, a very different significance from that which naturally belongs to them. Unfortunately, too, Mme. Favre does not tell her readers from what edition of Montaigne she quotes, which renders it difficult to follow up her references. And again, unfortunately, a considerable number of her extracts are from the 'Natural Theology' of "Raymond Sebon" [*sic*], and she accepts the thoughts of the Spanish author as those of him whom she calls "son prétendu traducteur." The author, who is the widow of Jules Favre, the famous Republican leader of the later years of the Empire and the earlier ones of the Republic, is now the *directrice* of a school for girls at Sèvres, and the present work is the result of her reading of Montaigne with her classes there. This explains the general direction that she has had in view throughout, as well as the arrangement and choice of the extracts which she has given.

—All who are interested in the development of German historiography in the nineteenth century will welcome a recent monograph containing a short acount of the life and works of Germany's great master of constitutional history. It bears the title 'Zur Erinnerung an Georg Waitz, von August Kluckhohn' ("Sammlung gemeinverständlicher wissenschaftlicher Vorträge. Neue Folge. Zweite Serie, Heft 9." Hamburg: J. F. Richter. Pp. 36). Professor Kluckhohn was one of Waitz's numerous pupils, and occupies the same chair of history at Göttingen that Waitz once held. In speaking of the latter's influence, the writer says: "It is a fact that in France, Germany, and England, during the past twenty or thirty years, there has been no noteworthy investigator of the constitutional history of the early Middle Ages who has not in his researches leaned upon Waitz, deriving the greatest aid from his admirable literary knowledge and his exact investigations of innumerable questions of detail" (p. 11). "The figure of the fane of science and the priests in the service of the same has often been abused; but George Waitz was a real priest in the temple of science. He regarded the latter as something divine, and its service as a holy one. On that very account he was called to initiate others into it" (p. 17). Professor Kluckhohn's paper deepens one's impression that Waitz exerted a very widespread influence, and that he was a man of great versatility, though commonly regarded as one of the most conspicuous prototypes of minute historical investigators.

—Besides the various publications of M. Pierre de Nolhac, chronicling his successive discoveries of Petrarch autographs, the last few months have otherwise notably increased that abundant literature which clusters around the name of the leading personage in the interesting drama of the Renaissance. Two productions, in a certain way complementary to those of M. de Nolhac, are 'Un Decennio della Vita di M. Pietro Bembo,' by Vittorio Cian, in which three chapters are devoted, in great part, to the Cardinal's library, and to the autographic Petrarch codices once belonging to it; and an essay of much value by Dr. A. Pakscher, "Aus einem Katalog des Fulvius Ursinus," published in the *Zeitschrift für romanische Philologie* (vol. x., pp. 205–245), stating the results of a critical examination of the same codices, which passed from the library of Bembo into that of Fulvio Orsini, and thence into the Vatican. The outcome of Dr. Pakscher's investigations is to confirm—if confirmation were needed—the genuineness of the four Vatican codices. His article comes in good time as a response to the assault on the authenticity of the loose folios of "rough drafts" (Vat. 3196), made by Carl Appel (pp. 30–54 especially) in his very elaborate description of 'Die Berliner Handschriften der Rime Petrarca's.' This work is a memoir on the seven codices, containing the lyrics of Petrarch, which were acquired by the Prussian Government through its purchase of the Hamilton manuscripts. All but one of the seven are on vellum, but the oldest can hardly go back further than the first quarter of the fifteenth century. Dr. Appel gives them, however, an importance perhaps not quite deserved, by using them as the basis of some interesting discussions concerning the dates, form, and order of the sonnets, the text and arrangement of the Trionfi and other kindred topics. As to the variants of the Canzoniere which he cites, they are, of course, now rendered almost undebatable by the rediscovery of Petrarch's own final copy of his lyrical productions.

—'The Peasant Songs of the Ufimsk Government, District of Menzelinsk,' noted down by M. Paltchikoff, is an extremely interesting collection of Folk Songs which has just been published in Russia. This collection differs from that of the ordinary type, *i. e.*, from the collection of a few songs with pianoforte accompaniment, arranged according to the taste of some musician. And in the second place, it is restricted, not to a single government, nor to a single district, but to even less—to one locality. In the ordinary collection, the changes effected in order to render the songs presentable in cultivated form sometimes extend as far as a rewriting of the air, a change of time, and so on. The result is almost invariably the same: a peasant singer is unable to recognize an air with which he is familiar. The difficulty lies in the fact that hitherto all collectors (with the exception of Melgupoff) have failed to observe that no one singer executes the whole air when singing with a chorus. There are, practically, as many parts as there are voices, and rarely less than four; hence, attempts to represent a chorus by a song for one voice have never succeeded. M. Paltchikoff began his

labors like his predecessors, but, finding the single-voice system utterly inadequate, he listened more attentively, and this volume represents the result of his observations. Unfortunately for many persons whose skill in music is not great, the author has not furnished a single instance of combined harmonies, contenting himself by giving a number of them separately in exact illustration of the peasants' mode of procedure. Out of the 125 songs contained in the volume, 80 have never appeared in print. The text of the book presents more than 30 ballads which are not to be found elsewhere. The collection presents a very valuable mass of raw material, and is accompanied by a careful musical and literary index of the songs and collections used by the author for verifying his work, which will facilitate comparisons with material already published.

HISTORIES OF THE COLORED TROOPS.

A History of the Negro Troops in the War of the Rebellion, 1861–5, preceded by a review of the military services of Negroes in ancient and modern times. By George W. Williams, LL.D., Colonel and late Judge-Advocate in the Grand Army of the Republic. Harper & Bros.

The Black Phalanx; A History of the Negro Soldiers of the United States in the Wars of 1775–1812, 1861–5. By Joseph T. Wilson, late of the 2d Regt. La. Native Guard Vols., 54th Mass. Vols., Aide-de-Camp to the Commander-in-Chief G. A. R. Hartford, Conn.: American Publishing Co.

THE history of the American colored regiments is yet to be written. That remarkable achievement, the creation of a serviceable force of nearly 200,000 soldiers out of a race of helots, was not merely one of the most picturesque, but one of the most essentially interesting features of the great Civil War; and yet it has hitherto only found fragmentary chronicle in a few regimental biographies. The delay is easily explained. Unlike the white volunteer regiments, which usually came from a certain well-defined locality and went back to it again—their remnants kept together, their record safely cherished by local pride—the colored troops were either utterly scattered when disbanded; or else, if the rank and file of a regiment remained in one locality, they were soon separated from their officers, were stranded in a more or less hostile community, and had not themselves the education to write out their record. An attempt to form a national organization of those who had served with colored troops went to pieces, some fifteen years ago, on the question whether it should be confined to the officers or include private soldiers also, and it remains to be seen whether that projected last year in Boston will secure a more permanent existence. Meantime the materials for such a work have been steadily accumulating, and many misapprehensions, personal or local, have been cleared away. It is understood that an elaborate chapter on the origin and career of the colored troops has already been prepared for the series now in course of publication by the Century Company; and two independent histories by colored authors have appeared almost simultaneously to sum up the information already gained.

Both of these books show honest intentions and a certain amount of praiseworthy diligence. Both claim to be the result of much labor in archives and in personal intercourse; both are by authors who served with colored troops and who have had some literary experience; but both show a want of method and an inability to command their own materials, so that they leave the reader with a renewed interest in the subject, but with a very imperfect sense of clear comprehension. Each gives some facts and documents which the other omits. Of the two Mr. Williams's book is the more grandiloquent, while Mr. Wilson is grandiloquent once for all by yielding to the whim of calling the colored troops a "Phalanx"—a phrase corresponding to nothing said or done in the actual army, but so insisted upon by him that he speaks of the 54th Massachusetts Volunteers, for instance, as the "54th Phalanx Regiment," which is very confusing.

The want of clearness in both books is felt from the beginning, in the absence of any distinct and systematic account of the origin and first service of the pioneer colored regiments. Not that there is not much information given in regard to them, but it is so distributed in the different chapters of both books as to fail of all methodical impression on the mind. Mr. Wilson even says: "The date of the first organization of colored troops is a question of dispute, but it seems as if the question might be settled either by the records of the War Department, or the personal knowledge of those interested" (p. 123). But the facts are in reality well enough known, and nothing is needed to set them distinctly before the reader except a little method in the statement. Any apparent confusion results from the irregular action of the Government itself, which at first enlisted colored troops under some especial impulse or pressure, here and there, and immediately strove not to let its left hand know what its right hand was doing; which postdated the muster of the early regiments until the time when the regiment reached the minimum, even where they had been mustered in by companies; and which finally enhanced the general confusion by renumbering nearly all its colored regiments at haphazard, so that the earliest raised had often the latest numbers, and in four cases, at least, there were duplicate regiments with the same number—this happening with the 79th, 83d, 87th, and 88th. This was, however, later; but at the very beginning, although there were five infantry regiments of colored men organized during 1862, they were yet raised under such different conditions that all claims to priority must depend wholly on the ground on which such a claim is to rest. When we speak popularly of the priority of a regiment we may mean either (1) priority of actual enlistment, or (2) of *authorized* enlistment, or (3) priority in muster, or (4) in coming under fire, or (5) in sustaining actual loss of life. Now, if we adopt (1) the first standard thus given, the precedence belongs unquestionably to the 1st South Carolina, which began recruiting under Maj.-Gen. Hunter's orders (May 9, 1862), and one company of which was not, like the rest, disbanded under orders from Washington, but became the nucleus of the reorganization of the regiment under the same name (afterwards 33d U. S. C. T.), by authority given Brig.-Gen. Rufus Saxton (these orders being dated August 22, 1862), and commanded by Col. Higginson. But if we adopt (2) the second standard, the precedence belongs to the 1st Kansas colored (afterwards 79th U. S. C. T.), which was raised under authority given to Maj.-Gen. James H. Lane about August 1, 1862, had its recruiting officers appointed August 4 (see Wilson, p. 227), and had its first enlistment August 6; but was not mustered in (by companies) until much later, nor was its Colonel (Williams) mustered until May 2, 1863. If we accept (3) the date of muster as the basis of priority—as is the case with the rank of officers—the three regiments raised by Maj.-Gen. Butler at New Orleans should have precedence, being, indeed, enlisted after August 22, 1862—three months later than the (original) 1st South Carolina, and nearly a month later than the 1st Kansas Colored—but mustered in more promptly (September 27, October 12, November 24). These three regiments were the 1st, 2d, and 3d Louisiana Native Guard (afterwards 73d, 74th, and 75th U. S. C. T.), and commanded by Cols. Stafford, Daniels, and Nelson. But if (4) precedence under fire is in question, we come back to the 1st South Carolina, the pickets of which had a skirmish on St. Helena Island, S. C., under Capt. Trowbridge, October 26, 1862 (Official Army Records, xiv, 189). But, as no casualties occurred on this occasion, if we give precedence (5) to the regiment which first lost men in action, it belongs again to the 1st Kansas Colored, of which one officer (Lieut. Crew) and eight men were killed and nine men wounded at Island Mound, Mo., October 29, 1862 (Official Army Register of the Volunteer Force, viii, 256, 336), although this regiment, like the 1st South Carolina, had not yet been mustered in when thus under fire.

We are aware that Gen. B. F. Butler has recently made for the Louisiana Native Guard statements inconsistent with this, but we follow official authority. Gen. Butler's claim, made in the Boston *Herald*, August 6, 1887, that his colored troops were "out" fighting under Gen. Weitzel in "September or October, 1862," is unfortunately refuted by the correspondence between him and Weitzel (Official Army Records, xv. 158–171), from which it appears that Weitzel wrote (November 1, 1862) that the colored regiments had not yet arrived, and again (November 5) that he was not willing to command them. The first official reports of the Louisiana colored troops in action are dated April 11, 1863, when Col. Daniels reported to Gen. Sherman that a part of the Second Louisiana Native Guard had had a skirmish at (East) Pascagoula, and had behaved exceedingly well (Williams, p. 223). In this affair the regiment had three men killed and seven wounded (Official Army Register, viii, 249). It must be remembered by the historian of the war that these Louisiana regiments were at first enlisted under a proclamation calling only for "free colored citizens," and that Gen. Butler wrote to Secretary Stanton that "the darkest of them was about the complexion of the late Mr. [Daniel] Webster," and to Gen. Halleck that he had "kept clear of the vexed question of arming the slaves" (Official Army Records, xv, 555–6, 559). This is not said to diminish the great importance of the action of Gen. Butler in enlisting these regiments, but only to state it more definitely. It was very valuable as another entering wedge, but had an exceedingly limited scope as compared with the direct enlistment of slave regiments, as undertaken previously by Hunter, and subsequently carried out on so large a scale throughout the country.

The two works before us really supplement each other from the fortunate circumstance that each happens to fill gaps in the other. Mr. Williams's book is better arranged, although it leaves in this respect much to be desired; and although Mr. Wilson's has no index and his arrangement is confused, it is made so in part by the insertion of important documents not to be found in that of Mr. Williams. He has, for instance, a valuable narrative of the pioneer Northern regiment, the 1st Kansas, which has never yet had its fair share of prominence, partly because of the burning of the early records of the Kansas Adjutant-General, and partly through the more conspicuous service of the 1st South Carolina, and afterwards of the 54th and 55th Massachu-

setts. He also has some valuable reports from Gen. Gillmore's artillery officers as to the service of colored troops in the siege of Charleston. On the other hand, Williams has a fuller account of the earlier South Carolina operations, of the extensive recruiting under Maj. Stearns, and (on the whole) of the service of colored troops with the Army of the Potomac. He also gives the text of the Confederate orders which threatened the first officers of colored troops with hanging, and Wilson (p. 527) gives an instance where this threat was executed. Both writers give very fully the contest of these troops for full pay. Both do adequate justice to the pioneer officers in the matter, except that Williams omits all mention of Gen. J. H. Lane, to whose influence the organization of the 1st Kansas was due, and he also subordinates Gen. Saxton quite too much to Gen. Hunter. The latter will stand in history in unquestionable precedence as to arming the blacks; but it is also unquestionable that he did it, as he did everything, in a thoroughly impetuous and haphazard way; that he was habitually under influence of staff officers who had no sympathy with his efforts, and often thwarted them; and that his whole project would have gone to pieces unless revived, as it was, by the firmer purpose of Saxton. Even then there was no severer blow to the enlargement of the colored troops than when Hunter, with easy changeableness, recalled them from the St. John's River, whither they had been sent for the express purpose of penetrating into the interior and recruiting on a large scale. Mr. Williams is in error, by the way, when he speaks of Gen. Saxton as having "relieved Gen. Hunter at Port Royal, S. C." (p. 100), inasmuch as Gen. Saxton was not in direct military command at Port Royal, but received permission to enlist troops in the somewhat anomalous position of Military Governor; an office which he held under several different Department Commanders, including Mitchell, Hunter, and Gillmore.

Both these historians give what may seem a rather disproportionate amount of space to the early days of recruiting, and to the service of the first regiments organized. This is, however, inevitable; for the first contest of the black soldiers was really for the right to exist, to be trusted, to be decently treated both by friends and foes. After colored regiments had ceased to be a novelty, their history was inevitably merged in that of the army corps or divisions to which they respectively belonged. The whole number of individual colored soldiers mustered into the service—including, doubtless, as in similar estimates of the army generally, some reënlistments—is given by both Williams and Wilson, from the Adjutant-General's returns, at 178,975. These are further analyzed by Williams (pp. 139-40) as including 99,337 organized by the general Government itself and 79,638 by separate States and Territories. Of these, 36,847 are reported by him as having been killed or as dying in the service (p. 329); and the number of separate engagements in which they took part is given as 449. Such a list necessarily includes many trivial skirmishes; but as the official index of battles in which the colored troops actually sustained casualties includes 249 separate occasions (Official Army Register, vol. viii, Appendix) it is probable that the above larger estimate—including also those skirmishes where no casualties took place—may not be very much out of the way. The record of the colored troops, if painted in rather too glowing colors by these historians of their own race, is nevertheless a solid and honorable one; they not merely did all that which was originally expected of them by many of their advocates—namely, to hold points already gained by white troops—but really a great deal more; they held their own, as a whole, without need of special allowance; and they worked under many disadvantages in the way of poor arms, disproportionate fatigue duty, and slowly yielding distrust. When we consider the many curious and almost inexplicable disappointments of the war—as, for instance, how much less aid than was expected the Union Army received from the officers trained in European wars—the actual service rendered by the colored troops needs only to be modestly stated in order to be fully recognized. And had that actual service been far less, the mere fact of their existence was an important element in the whole bearing of the strife on public sentiment. Each new volume of the invaluable 'Official Records of the War' reveals to us, by the letters and despatches of Confederate officials, the fact that the arming of the blacks produced precisely the impression desired upon the Southern mind, and was an essential element in the gradual discouragement and decay of the Confederacy. The predictions of Chase and Wilson at Washington, of Hunter, Saxton, Phelps, and Thomas in the field, were being vindicated all the while, had the North but known it, in the solicitude and anxiety produced behind the lines on the other side; while, at the North, the fact that the negroes had actually borne arms for the Union and on so large a scale, was perhaps the most important immediate factor in that great change of public opinion which ultimately placed the ballot in their hands.

LESSEPS'S RECOLLECTIONS.

Recollections of Forty Years. By Ferdinand de Lesseps. Translated by C. B. Pitman. 8vo. 2 vols. D. Appleton & Co. 1888.

M. DE LESSEPS is one of the notable old men of our era of old men. He is the junior of the Emperor William by eight years, and of Moltke and Bancroft by five, but he is the senior of Bismarck by nine years, of John Bright by six, and of Gladstone by four. He entered the consular service at the age of twenty, and was employed in that and in the diplomatic service for almost a quarter of a century. After his voluntary retirement from office, the great enterprise which he carried to a triumphant conclusion, and which cannot fail to secure his permanent fame, brought him into contact with the leading spirits of the age, with whom he treated on a footing of equality.

The genuine memoirs of such a man could not help possessing surpassing interest, and would be received with acclaim by the entire reading world, and also by the world which seldom if ever reads. But the book which he now gives forth is far from meeting the expectations which its title naturally arouses. Only a very small portion of it can by the most strained construction be included under the designation of "Recollections." It is difficult, indeed, to surmise what purpose its author had in view in offering it to the public. Much of it is devoted to the two gigantic schemes to which M. de Lesseps has given the last thirty years of his life, and may be regarded as a huge pamphlet designed to influence public opinion in favor of the Panama Canal. Whatever effectiveness it may possess in this capacity would probably have been enhanced by omitting several chapters which swell the bulk of the volumes, but make the impression of being dragged in without rhyme or reason.

Fully one-half of the entire work recounts the beginnings of the Suez Canal, but presents very little new material. It consists of extracts from a journal kept from 1854 to 1863, supplemented by letters, documents, and speeches. Its chief interest lies in recalling the marvellous energy, persistence, and force of character which M. de Lesseps displayed in overcoming the obstacles he encountered before the canal was even begun. It may be assumed that his object in rehearsing this history is, not to vaunt himself, but to reason by implication that inasmuch as he made the Suez Canal a perfect success in spite of all the drawbacks he had to contend with, he can do as much with the Panama Canal. The difficulties, however, differ radically in the two cases. His great trouble in the first was the narrow policy of British statesmen who, following the lead of Palmerston, opposed a dogged resistance. The only notable exception was Gladstone. Lord Palmerston's hostility was rendered more formidable by the professional opinion of Robert Stephenson, who was very positive that the project was not practicable. The result has demonstrated how easy it is for great men to commit great blunders; but this is not a new discovery, as equally great blunders were committed by the eminent experts who confidently predicted that no locomotive could drag a railway train, and that no steamship could cross the ocean.

In the case of the Panama Canal, M. de Lesseps has struck upon a rock which has wrecked many a magnificent project. An error in calculation seems a small matter in itself, but it has proved fatal in many instances, and bids fair to do so in this. If the Panama Canal turns out a failure, it will be mainly for lack of money. Perhaps the most instructive lesson to be drawn from the contrast between the two undertakings is this: When M. de Lesseps conceived the project of a canal at Suez he was forty-nine years old; he went to work cautiously, deliberating on every step he took; he had the more or less active support and sympathy of several powerful governments, and he fell upon a sanguine and optimistic period. On the other hand, when he embarked on his Panama project, he was seventy-four; he was naturally flushed with success, and animated by the same exaggerated confidence in his star that led the first Napoleon to his doom; he had to depend for material support upon a country and a time which had suffered severe drains and losses, and was neither able nor willing to furnish the unlimited funds without which he was helpless. If the final verdict should be that M. de Lesseps, like many other famous men, has outlived his usefulness, it will be well to remember, not only that no subsequent failure can dim the splendor of his one great achievement, but that even before he entered on that he had already, although a comparatively young man, a useful and honorable career behind him.

The first three chapters of the present work give some intimation of the interesting reading which his genuine autobiography would have offered. The first, of 119 pages, relates the circumstances under which he accepted a mission to the short-lived Roman republic in 1849, and how, in consequence of not receiving the support of his Government in the course he pursued, he retired permanently from the diplomatic service. His mission was a difficult one, and the impression one gains from his recital is that he was made a cat's-paw by the home authorities, and became a victim of their vacillating policy. The French Government was in a transition stage, and did not know its own mind, being torn by internal conflicts which culminated in the *Coup d'État*. M. de Lesseps, in a letter written November 30, 1859, ten

years after, gives the following no doubt accurate account of his political status:

"My whole life has been spent in the service of my country, nor have I ever meddled in home politics. I have never once set my foot, even out of curiosity, in a public political meeting of any kind. During my thirty years' consecutive employment abroad I was only four times on leave in Paris, and I was not present at the revolutions of 1830 or 1848. Put out of active employment upon my own demand, in 1849, and receiving no pay or pension, I devoted myself entirely to my family, and succeeded in making good the inroads upon my small fortune caused by the expenses of my latest missions abroad" (vol. ii, p. 134).

From an American point of view this seems an odd statement to be made by a man who on many occasions demonstrated his patriotism; but in France the conditions here indicated are almost the only ones on which an honorable man could remain in the public service without forfeiting in some degree his self-respect. It is a sad commentary on French history of the past half century, but it is a true one.

Another interesting autobiographical fragment is the following, on page 129 of the first volume:

"At the age of twenty I was sent upon a mission, in the year 1825, under the orders of my uncle, J. B. de Lesseps, the sole survivor of the La Pérouse expedition, who was then Chargé d'affaires at Lisbon. Since then I have held different posts in the administration of foreign affairs at Tunis, in Algeria, in Egypt, in Holland, and in Spain. At the outbreak of the Revolution of 1848, M. de Lamartine summoned me from Barcelona to Paris, and sent me to Madrid as Minister Plenipotentiary. I had been eight years in Spain, during which time I had been upon terms of intimacy with the principal generals and public men, and though I had never mixed myself up in the political dissensions, I had established friendly relations with all the different party leaders. Lamartine said to me, 'We are at the beginning of a revolution here; we cannot tell if foreigners will be friendly to us. It is important for us that things should be quiet in Spain. You know the court, the representatives of the different political parties, and the population at large.'"

M. de Lesseps remained in Madrid only a year, and was then sent to Rome, after which, as already related, his diplomatic career came to a close. According to his own statement, his return from Rome was the origin of the Suez Canal, to studying which he gave up his time because he had nothing else to do. Mr. Senior, however, in his 'Conversations and Journals in Egypt and Malta,' relates that it was mainly by the advice of M. Mathieu de Lesseps, French Consul-General in Cairo, and father of M. Ferdinand de Lesseps, that the Sultan selected Mehemet Ali as Pasha of Egypt, and that when Ferdinand became Consul-General, Mehemet Ali reposed much confidence in him, and intrusted to him in a great measure the education of his favorite son, Said Pasha, Viceroy of Egypt from 1854 to 1863, under whom and whose successor the canal was undertaken and carried to completion. M. de Lesseps's own account is as follows:

"The successor of Abbas Pasha, the Viceroy of Egypt, was the youngest son of Mehemet Ali, whom I had known well as a child, and taught to ride. He was enormously fat, and I made him take exercise, much to the delight of his father. This lad, who was very intelligent, was made to learn fourteen lessons a day. Mehemet Ali said to me one day: 'As you are interested in my son, here are his notes.' I told him that I did not wish to see them, as I could not read even then very well, and all I wanted to see was the last column showing his weight for the past and the present week. If there was an increase, I should punish him, if there was a decrease, I should reward him."

This must have been between 1836 and 1838, while the consulate of the elder De Lesseps was thirty-three years earlier. It would thus seem as if fate had decreed in advance who should build the canal, for it is highly probable that but for the circumstances just detailed there would never have been a canal.

Among other passages which throw an amiable light on the straightforward character of M. de Lesseps, is one, a little too long to cite, in which he recounts how, in 1848, he recovered from the mob in possession of the Tuileries the jewels and other valuables belonging to the Infanta of Spain. M. de Lamartine, to whom he applied for the property in the first instance, said that the people in the Tuileries had erected barricades and would allow no one to enter the palace. He had no power over them, but referred De Lesseps to the Mayor of Paris. The Mayor was also afraid to tackle the mob, but gave him a letter of introduction to their leader, without knowing whether they had one. De Lesseps took this letter to the gate, and said that he was the Ambassador of the French Republic in Spain, and wanted to recover the property taken from the Infanta. The result of taking the bull by the horns in this courageous manner was that, after some parleying, all of the goods were surrendered to their lawful owner.

There are other instances of boldness and dash which only increase the regret of the reader that M. de Lesseps did not omit his incongruous chapters on "Steam," "Abyssinia," "The Origin and Duties of Consuls," and the like, and give us, instead, more copious extracts from the journals which he seems to have kept, and which it is to be hoped will some day see the light.

RECENT FICTION.

Sabine's Deception. By Princess Olga Cantacuzene-Altieri. Translated by E. Nute. Harper & Bros.

The Last Von Reckenburg. By Louise von François, translated by J. M. Percival. Boston: Cupples & Hurd.

Narka the Nihilist. By Kathleen O'Meara. Harper & Bros.

Hithersea Mere. By Lady Augusta Noel. Macmillan & Co.

The Right Honorable. By Justin McCarthy and Mrs. Campbell-Praed. D. Appleton & Co.

Free Joe. By Joel Chandler Harris. Charles Scribner's Sons.

'SABINE'S DECEPTION' is a good story of French provincial life, wretchedly translated. Its atmosphere is pure and clear, and the people have a moral excellence which would repay the study of Parisian journalists and playwrights. Sabine's whole life had been so open to the sunlight that the little deception practised to insure her sister's happiness seemed to her a deed of darkness, and doubtless caused her more anguish than did the relinquishment of her lover, so faithful in letter and faithless in spirit. Sabine is drawn carefully from nature. The author perceives, as it almost seems that only French novelists can perceive, that truth has many sides. Sabine is positive, prejudiced, rigid, but she is also courageous, loyal, and full of passionate tenderness for those dependent on her. No sort of perfection is ascribed to Sabine, but a natural proportion is observed between her defects and her good qualities. Of course, the sacrifice which marks the victory of her strength over her weakness, is made for people who can never remotely appreciate its fineness. In fiction such a sacrifice is rewarded by the reader's sympathy. The Sabine of romance gets enthusiastic admiration; the Sabine of reality goes on till the end, managing the farm, studying the causes of potato rot, and spoken of behind her back as a hard, cross-grained old maid, who has no soul above a sixpence, and never had.

Women novelists are too apt to imagine an ideal beauty in instances of self-sacrifice that are wild or foolish and lack any sense of personal dignity. The author of 'Sabine's Deception' does not confound fantastical nonsense with real nobility, nor does the half-French, half-German author of the 'Last Von Reckenburg.' The noble Fräulein Eberhardine is not unlike Sabine, and is forced by the same natural characteristics to a similar act of renunciation. She is bound, by what in fairy tales is described as the mysterious laws of her being, to defend the weak and unworthy who depend upon her, no matter how great the cost to herself. Then the obligation is increased by a sense of what is due to her own rank when protection is demanded by a plebeian, one whom circumstances have made her companion and, with certain reservations, her friend. The novel in which Fräulein Hardine displays the nobility of her nature and of her order is thoroughly romantic. The scene is laid in the early years of the century in a German village where the Von Reckenburgs subsisted chiefly on the consciousness of their long descent and on the deference accorded it. Their feeling that a Von Reckenburg is neither degraded by poverty nor exalted by riches, that personal dishonor is as impossible to them as personal dishonesty, is so genuine and delightful that a fiery radical could scarcely withhold respectful acquiescence. The village never dreams of questioning the validity of the poverty-stricken Von Reckenburgs' claim to superiority. When Dörl, the common sinner, grovels at the patrician Hardine's feet and is lifted, comforted, and shielded from the worst consequence of her sin, there is an almost comical recognition of the immeasurable social distance between the two. The beauty of the story is that the reader accepts the situation as naturally as Dörl and the rest of the villagers, and the credit of this effect should be given to the author's unpretentious, sincere literary manner. The interest in Hardine's sorrows and Dörl's sins is strong enough to survive the artistic blunder of telling the end before the beginning. The translator has done his work well, and has resisted the temptation to sacrifice his author to prevailing fashion in style or to personal idiosyncrasy.

The opening of 'Narka the Nihilist' promises an exciting display of heroics. Narka is a Jewess dependent on a noble Russian family; her father and brother have suffered a shameful death from Russian tyranny, and her personal beauty is of the superb, heroic type. All these preliminary statements prepare the reader to assist at midnight conspiracies, to hear the whiz of bombs, and to wade with Narka through tyrants' blood to victory or death. Expectation of horrors is, however, disappointed. Narka aids her lover, Prince Basil Zorokoff, implicated in a plot against the Czar, to escape across the frontier, and herself suffers a short imprisonment in Cronstadt. But she escapes to Paris, where, being inveigled to one Nihilist meeting, the dirt and disreputableness of the conspirators disgust her and terminate her Nihilistic career. The author has herself no fixed ideas about Narka, and her uncertainty about Prince Basil is equally certain. Sometimes he appears to be splendidly firm and loyal, and sometimes he is a vacillating cringer to authority and caste. He is a miserable creature by contrast with his sister, the Baron-

ness de Beaucrillon. She is an unimpeachable Russian aristocrat, an exquisite creature, all grace and delicacy and charm, with a high and holy belief in the knout as the instrument appointed by God for keeping people in their proper place. There is no evidence that the author has ever personally observed Russian princes and princesses, or that she has thought out the behavior of sane people in situations of vital import. Her plan is as undetermined as are her characters. She is not hampered by any necessity for arranging events which march in logical succession to a catastrophe, but alternates storm and calm mechanically, and introduces capriciously occurrences which have nothing to do with what is supposed to be her original motive. The summing up of the whole matter is not a dénouement, but an end which is just as delightful for a novel about a Yankee girl as for one about a Russian Jewess. Narka, having "tasted something of the inebriation that comes to those who drink the bitter cup with courage," appears in "Norma" at *La Scala*. The King of X——, a most excitable monarch, is present. He "rushes on the stage, and conducts the beautiful artist to the royal box, where the Queen embraces her, and, drawing a costly diamond ring from her own finger, places it on Narka's amidst cries of *Evviva la Regina! Evviva la Narka!*"

'Hithersea Mere' is another novel written on the happy-go-lucky principle. The beginning foreshadows a tale of decorous sorrow verging on solemnity, and we so attune our mind. The theologian and poet, Jasper Somerville, is dead. The world mourns its loss; his widow is plunged in woe, and his daughter, Rhona, knows that no matter for whom the amaranths may bloom in future, for her they bloom not. The first gleam of light comes with the suggestion that a biography of the honored dead be written. Rhona eagerly accepts the proposition, and drives her reluctant mother to the work. Together they proceed to an uncle's house in Essex, close by Hithersea Mere and several other natural features equally entitled to the distinction of supplying a name for the novel. Round this house centre the people who make the story, and there would centre the movement if there were any. These people are quite remarkable. There are four or five men who love but once and love for ever; there are several maidens who spontaneously bestow their affections unsought, and one who dies rather than recall or transfer hers. This modern Elaine is the last person to be suspected of intensity. Her name is Hilary. She is the granddaughter of a bishop. She practically lives in a donkey-cart in the society of ferrets, which it is her delight to turn loose on the county rats. When in very high spirits, she takes the ferrets home and sets them on to bite her grandfather's stockinged legs. Her apparently light nature is steadied by her love for a blind man who won't have it, and coldly permits her to die rather than yield. While all this is going on, Rhona is nagging her mother to despair about the biography, and, at the same time, making her running with Adrian Mowbray, the lord of Hithersea Mere and territory lying adjacent. He, like the blind man, has loved once and for ever. He is a power in politics, and has written for reviews articles not to be mentioned in the hearing of Christian ears. His services are enlisted for the biography. The divine's letters break down his scepticism, and the divine's daughter takes the place of the lost first love. This outline can convey no idea of the agony in which these rare souls are perpetually writhing—an agony which they lay aside as a garment when duty calls them to county dinners, garden-parties, and Sunday-school feasts. The scenes and people have been common property of English novelists for two generations, and the author's talent is most conspicuous in the original conceit of the biography, and in her erratic principle of selection.

'The Right Honorable' is what it professes to be, a novel of English politics and society. No attempt is made to philosophize London society, with its extremes of refinement and vulgarity, its forms and ceremonies arbitrarily enforced and as arbitrarily scattered to the winds by the few who have the privilege of making and breaking; but a fairly good panoramic view is presented, and the showmen never linger long enough on one scene to weary the audience. Excepting that a change of form of government at the end of the reign is foreshadowed, the political crisis imagined has no serious significance. The sketches of British politicians and their methods are clever, and some scenes in the House of Commons are described with vivacity and notable literary effectiveness. The plot is conventional, but is the construction of people who know their trade, who have the end in view from the start, and never lose sight of it or distract the reader by a wild-goose chase.

The first scene is on a home-bound Australian steamer, where the principal characters, Sandham Morse and Kooràli Middlemist, meet for an hour and part. Ten years afterwards they come together in London. Morse is the Right Honorable and happily married to Lady Betty, a frivolous, bright, good woman, with a great regard for the court, to which her radical husband is antagonistic. Kooràli is Mrs. Crichton Kenway, with a husband at once a scamp and a cad, and two children. It is directly foreseen that Morse and Kooràli will love each other, and as instantaneous is the conclusion that even if in reality any harm and scandal should come of it, in a novel written by respectable British authors for the respectable British public nothing very shocking will be permitted. Therefore the interest in the dénouement is not too intense to exclude enjoyment of all that leads to it. Therefore, too, one cannot enter into Morse's emotional difficulty about "ordering his stout heart to bear it" when his wife, Lady Betty, has run away from him with her father, and Kooràli, after much agitated discussion, has decided to run away both from him and her intolerable husband with her children. It is all so much a foregone conclusion that Morse's agonized reminiscence of Horace is decidedly foolish. It is a symptom of laziness when experienced novelists resort in a strait to the *deus ex machina* of the distraught playwright, the virtuous, all-helpful, not to say irreclaimably meddlesome friend. Such a one appears here in the person of Lord Arden, a quiet, well-bred gentleman, whom the authors, meaning to exalt, have really maligned.

The literary workmanship is so smooth that though from knowledge of their separate work one may ascribe certain passages to Mr. McCarthy and others to Mrs. Praed, the two hands are not easily distinguishable. The intellectual level is never low. The prevailing tone is lightly satirical, but the whole history of humanity is not reduced to a series of light ironical jests. The most flippant and silly have moods that resemble seriousness, and, through all the clatter of ready tongues and clash of conflicting interests, there is an echo, a murmur, of the great movement of a great world.

Mr. Harris's stories bound together under the title 'Free Joe' depict the life and characters with which he has already made us familiar. The Georgian negro, bond and free, the poor white, and the mountaineer are given enduring life by his pen. It may be heresy to suggest it, but one feels that his portraits of the Southern aristocrat, as he was before the war, are no less truthful. The rich young slave-owners with rather provincial tongue, views, and clothes, who rejoiced to sit by the hour in the corner grocery with their heels in the air, have a startling semblance of reality. The war undoubtedly deprived them of traditionally magnificent surroundings, but it can hardly be responsible for a total disappearance of the haughty mien tempered by infinite condescension, the unvarying elegance of diction, the chivalrous virtue, with which fancy loves to invest the old-time despot. In all his stories Mr. Harris prefers to describe the relation between master and slave as one of loving protection and grateful devotion, rather than one of brutal terrorism and craven fear. The master is always a hero to his valet, and the valet's love for the master passes that of a brother. Fortunately for those who like a pleasant tale, the author stands apart from the crusade to divorce the true and the beautiful.

TWO ENGLISH TOWNS.

Oxford. By Charles W. Boase. [Historic Towns. Edited by Edward A. Freeman and the Rev. William Hunt.] Longmans. 1887. 8vo, pp. viii, 230.

Exeter. By Edward A. Freeman, D.C.L., LL.D. [Historic Towns.] Longmans. 1887. 8vo, pp. xiii, 255.

Mr. Boase gives as the argument of his book the following quotation from Mr. J. R. Green:

"The University of Oxford is so far from being older than the City, that Oxford had already seen five centuries of borough life before a student appeared within its streets. The University found it a busy, prosperous borough, and reduced it to a cluster of lodging-houses. It found it among the first of English municipalities, and it so utterly crushed its freedom that the recovery of some of the commonest rights of self-government has only been brought about by recent legislation. The story of the struggle which ended in this usurpation is one of the most interesting in our municipal annals, and it is one which has left its mark not on the town only, but on the very constitution and character of the conquering University" (p. v).

Mr. Boase describes in detail this long struggle between "town and gown," showing us how, in consequence of a riot in which the townsmen killed about forty scholars, Edward III. in 1355 deprived the city of important judicial and administrative powers, and conferred them upon the University (p. 90); how from that time the latter grew steadily in power (p. 91), and how, at Wolsey's request, Henry VIII. in 1523 granted a charter which "virtually placed the greater part of the city at the mercy" of the Chancellor and Scholars (p. 103).

After this, the author has so very little to say concerning the civic constitution of Oxford that the uninformed reader will, we fear, infer that the city as a municipal entity ceased to exist. But this was not the case. In chapter ii. Mr. Boase ably describes the early organization of the municipality, which differed very much from that of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. He alludes to the latter on page 182 when he says: "The townsmen were, in fact, uneasy under the government of a narrow corporation." Mr. Boase nowhere describes this "narrow corporation"; nor does he give us any account of the later courts, officers, and other machinery of Oxford town government. Turner's 'Selections from the Records of the City,' though relating only to the sixteenth century, furnishes sufficient data

to fill up this *lacuna*. Even the important Reform of 1835 is disposed of in a few words (p. 208); we are not told in what it consisted—what was superseded by the new civic constitution. Some of the more minute details concerning the inner life of the University might well have been omitted to make room for a few pages concerning later municipal history.

In justice to the author it must be said that the projectors of this series have very shortsightedly chosen to relegate internal municipal history to a subsidiary place in each volume. But Mr. Boase has shown a somewhat greater neglect of this subject than the other contributors to the series—a neglect which even the domination of the University does not fully justify. We must not, however, dwell too long upon a minor blemish in a book which, taken as a whole, is a most meritorious piece of work. The author displays all the qualities of an accurate, painstaking scholar, with a comprehensive knowledge of his authorities and the power of using them judiciously. He gives us an excellent account of the development of the University and of the participation of Oxford in the national life of England. We highly commend the book to all who are in any way interested in that

"Sweet city with her dreaming spires."

"The present volume," says Dr. Freeman in the preface to his 'Exeter,' "I wish it distinctly to be understood, does not represent any independent research into the Exeter archives. Of those archives, both municipal and ecclesiastical, I know enough to be able to say that they are of very high importance; and it is to be hoped that they may some day be given to the world in the series put forth by the Master of the Rolls. But to study them as they must be studied in manuscript would call for the offering of no small part of a life, and such an offering it is clear that I cannot make." As the printed materials for the study of the history of Exeter are extremely meagre and, in great part, unreliable, no one—not even so distinguished an historian as Mr. Freeman—can write a satisfactory sketch of its annals without consulting the manuscripts in the archives of the town. Is it because the author is inexperienced in the manipulation of original records that he considers "no small part of a life" necessary to explore those of Exeter with any degree of success? As the municipal muniments of this city are remarkably complete, extending back to the time of Edward I., and are admirably arranged and catalogued, we do not hesitate to affirm that a student versed in the mysteries of mediæval paleography and accustomed to investigate original sources, could make very valuable additions to the sum of our knowledge concerning Exeter by working only a few weeks in its archives. That Mr. Freeman refrained from doing this is the more to be deplored because his example is likely to influence forthcoming contributions to the series of which the volume before us forms a part.

This shortcoming is most apparent in the author's account of the municipal development of the city, which is very deficient, especially those portions relating to the Middle Ages. In his account of the momentous transformation of the town government from a democracy to an oligarchical Common Council (pp. 141-153), he plainly stands on shaky ground. Many of his data, whether derived from Izacke or Hoker, are to be accepted with distrust. He does not clearly inform us even in what century the oligarchical element began to prevail, and he is plainly at sea with regard to the early dual character of the Common Council — "the twelve" and "the twenty-four." He himself admits here and there that he needs "further light" (pp. 147, 148, 165). This he would doubtless have found had he scrutinized the dorse of the early Court Rolls in the civic archives of Exeter. Still, it would be unjust not to add that his account of the growth of this "select body," however unsatisfactory and incomplete, is interesting, and that he deserves much credit for confronting an important problem which most local historians of England pass over in silence.

The following few sentences contain some serious errors:

"In the reigns of John and his son, Henry the Third, three changes took place at Exeter which gave an abiding shape to the civic and ecclesiastical state of the city. The municipal constitution of the city, its parochial divisions, the constitution of the cathedral church, were all now remodelled after the types common to other cities and other churches. . . . From the year 1206, or earlier, the *Præpositus* or Reeve ceases to be the head man of the city. A succession now begins which has gone on to our own day, that of the Mayors of Exeter. . . . The Reeve or Provost had been a royal officer; the Mayor was the chosen head of the citizens; . . . the King or other lord now deals with an organized body capable of acting as an artificial person. A little later the lord's dues have changed into a fee-farm rent, and the appearance of the Mayor most likely marks the time of this change also. This great landmark in the history of the city seems not to be fixed by any surviving charter. . . . Exeter has now a chosen chief magistrate, and her citizens are now addressed in various corporate styles. . . . The work of making is now done. The city stands forth fully finished, in all its points, municipal and military, episcopal, monastic, and parochial" (pp. 57-59, 72).

The reeves of English towns, during the reign of John, frequently became elective without assuming the title of mayor. The grant of the mayoralty did not create a corporation, as Mr. Freeman and old jurists assert; it was only one of several steps in the development of the corporate conception. The presence of a mayor had nothing to do with the possession of the fee-farm; the bestowal of the latter, in many cases, preceded the advent of the former by several decades. The municipal constitution of Exeter was far from complete at the close of this period (A. D. 1225). We will call attention to only a few of the many formations added to the civic polity in later times. Here is one which we will describe in Mr. Freeman's own words:

"A charter of this king (Edward II.) establishes the judicial powers of the elective magistrates within the city and its suburbs. The pleas of the Crown were reserved to the officers of the Crown, but the lesser jurisdiction, civil and criminal, pleas of land and tenements, trespasses and contracts, were entrusted to the Mayor and bailiffs. As the city was not yet a distinct county, and as the Earls were dangerous neighbors, this judicial independence was a most timely privilege" (p. 86).

Now, "judicial independence" is regarded by the best authorities as the corner-stone of the English municipal constitution, as its most characteristic feature. Again, Parliamentary representation was not yet a recognized institution of boroughs in 1225. The erection of the city into a separate county was another important step in advance. "In his [Henry VIII.'s] day the city received the highest privilege that can be given to an English city or borough. He gave two charters to Exeter, by the second of which, in 1537, the city was severed from the body of the county of Devon, and became a county of itself, with all the rights of a county, under its own Sheriff" (pp. 98, 99). And yet Mr. Freeman says that already in 1225 "the city stands forth fully finished." The absurdity of his position becomes still more apparent when we consider that he himself takes pains to describe a complete revolution of the town government from a democracy to an oligarchy, which, according to his own account, could not have begun before the fourteenth century. The gravity of such errors is augmented by the fact that he has striven "to make this volume in some sort introductory to the other volumes of this series" (p. v).

In defining the classes of English towns, in pp. 1–4, the author ignores two important modes of classification—both more organic, more exhaustive, and more useful than those which he mentions—namely, the division into royal and baronial (or manorial) boroughs, and the grouping of towns according to their affiliation with certain typical municipalities, whose laws and customs most of the other communities borrowed. (See the *Antiquary*, vol. xi.) Mr. Freeman says that Kingston-on-Hull "stands almost alone as a great and abiding haven called into being at the bidding of a single far-seeing king" (p. 3). This notion concerning the origin of Hull was exploded as far back as 1827, by Frost in his 'Notices relative to . . . Hull.' The statement, on p. 155, that "the Recorder in short is a lawyer; the Chamberlain is bound to be a local antiquary," is more epigrammatic than accurate. The Municipal Reform Act was passed in 1835, not in 1836, as stated on pp. 228 and 230.

The redeeming feature of the book consists in its many apt comparisons between the municipal development of England and that of the Continent. Here are some examples:

"Again, the English town always remained a mere municipality; it never became an independent commonwealth, like an old Greek or Italian city, not even like a free city of Germany, Italy, or Provence, an independent commonwealth, less the rights of the Emperor" (p. 60).

"The history of Exeter is less than the history of Nürnberg because the history of England is greater that the history of Germany" (p. 61).

"The home of a city in its municipal character, its place for assembly and debate and administration of justice, is the Guildhall. In idea it is the first of the three chief buildings of a city, alongside of the church of the Bishop and the castle of the King, or other lord. . . . But it comes of the special character of English history that nowhere in England does the municipal element stand forth before all eyes in the shape of a building on a level with those which represent the military and ecclesiastical element. Nowhere does the municipal house proclaim itself as the true head of the city, nowhere does it announce its presence from afar, like the cities of Italy and Flanders, by towers rivalling the proudest of those that shoot up from the minster or the fortress. In England the palace of the King at Westminster has become the *palazzo pubblico* of the whole nation" (p. 179).

Biographies of Words and the Home of the Aryas. By F. Max Müller. Longmans, Green & Co. 1888.

Like all Professor Müller's publications, this book addresses itself both to scholars and to the wider public. He eminently possesses the art of making philological research generally attractive, and popular discourses interesting to those who know; but of the dozen essays composing the collection, only the two longest, "The Home of the Aryas" and "The Earliest Aryan Civilization"—together more than two-fifths of the volume—possess a general interest. Though strictly philological, they have an historical character, and they complete each other. In them the author contends, both with the weapons of comparative philology and discursive dialectics, for the correctness of the view that the original common home of the Aryan, or Indo-Germanic, nations was somewhere in the interior of Asia, and probably in

the vicinity of the upper course of the Oxus, whence, at a remote period of antiquity, the Indic and Iranian peoples migrated southeastward, toward Hindostan and Persia, and the Hellenic, Italic, Celtic, Teutonic, and Slavic northwestward, spreading over Europe. A quarter of a century ago this view was generally held by scholars, but latterly it has been repeatedly assailed in learned monographs. At one time Professor Müller himself, on the strength of a few linguistic facts, was inclined to follow Benfey in fixing the Aryan home on the borders of Asia and Europe, near the shores of the Black and Caspian Seas; but he has returned to his earlier conviction, after a study of the bolder antagonistic opinions lately propounded by philological dissenters.

Of these Lazarus Geiger places the original home of the Aryan race in Germany, Cuno in the centre of that country, Poesche in its southwestern corner, Tomaschek in eastern Europe, and Penka in Scandinavia. One of the main facts that have induced philologists to declare against Asia as the cradle of the race is the absence of common Aryan names for animals which must have been known to the early inhabitants of that continent. Such animals are the lion, tiger, elephant, and camel, the names of which in the Indo-Iranian languages are different from those more or less common to the Aryan idioms of Europe. The name of the dog, on the other hand, is common to both main divisions of the Aryan family, being *kyōn* in Greek, *can-is* in Latin, *hun-d* in German, *kú* in Irish, *szů* in Lithuanian, *svan* in Sanskrit, *span* in Zend. (Let those of our readers who may be startled by such apparently bold identifications reflect that in the Latin subdivision itself *can-is* has been modified into French *chien*, which a Slav would phonetically write *šj*; *calx*, lime, into *chaux*, which in English is to be spelled *shō*; and *caulis*, cabbage, into *chou*, pronounced *shu*). This is a negative argument against the Asian home, but the positive is stronger. The northwestern and southeastern Aryas have a common name for the bear, for instance—identical in derivation, though not in sound; consequently "they must, unless it can be proved that one language borrowed the word from another, have known the bear before they separated, and have lived in a country where that animal was well known." Their common name for the birch tree—*bhūrga* in Sanskrit, *bereza* in Russian, *Birke* in German—points in the same direction.

But these arguments are far from decisive; in fact, our author treats them as crumbling at the first touch. That the Aryas sprang from a very southern climate he and his school never pretended; it has long been known that they had common names for winter (Sansk. *himā*, Lat. *hiems*, Slavic *zima*), ice (Iran. *isi*), and snow (Slav. *snieg*, Lat. *nix*, Zend. *snizh*, to snow). The region which is generally fixed upon by the upholders of the Asiatic origin of the Aryas has long winters, ice, and snow, and birch-trees, and neither lions nor tigers, as appears from the following "classical passage" of the Central-Asiatic traveller, Ujfalvy: "Les vallées qui avoisinent le Pamir . . . satisfont à toutes les données de la paléontologie linguistique. Il y a là un pays froid, de la glace et de la neige en hiver; l'été est court. Les plantes alimentaires et les animaux domestiques sont bien ceux que signale le vocabulaire aryaque. On trouve le pin, le bouleau et le chêne. Les grands fauves n'y vivent pas. . . ." The bear may have lived there, or may have been brought there, and carried about, as he is in many a country of which he is not a native. And as to the absence of common Aryan names for the largest animals, "suppose that the elephant and the camel had really been known and utilized as beasts of burden by the united Aryas, when living in Asia, would it not have been most natural that, when transplanted to more northern regions, their children, who had never seen a camel or elephant, should have lost the names of them?" And if "Drs. Penka and O. Schrader have shown that the picture which linguistic palæontology has drawn of Aryan life previous to the separation coincides with the picture which archæological palæontology constructs from the neolithic remains discovered in Scandinavia" and the lacustrian dwellings of central Europe, "how would this prove that the Aryas were autochthonous in Scandinavia, or in Switzerland, or along the Po?"

In this way, and by a great deal of arguing, defensive and aggressive, Professor Müller makes out a very plausible case for the Central Asian theory, but one far from fully convincing; for, as he himself says, "the evidence with which we have to deal is so pliant that it is possible to make out a more or less plausible case" for many regions, Asiatic or European. He is not over-positive himself, and generally treats his opponents with studied courteousness, though he almost loses patience when the question of greater primitiveness is raised between his favorite Sanskrit and any language of the western Aryan branch. He is convinced that "even the blackest Hindus represent an earlier stage of Aryan speech and thought than the fairest Scandinavians," though, on the other hand, asserting and reasserting that when he speaks of Hindus, Greeks, Romans, Germans, Celts, or Slavs, he means "neither blood nor bones, nor hair nor skulls," but simply those who speak the respective language, whether inherited or adopted from a conquering or a conquered people. As to the history of the Aryan development—the date of the Aryan separation, the way it took place, or the rise of Sanskrit literature—he confesses almost complete ignorance, and his expositions of the relations of languages and dialects to each other, of linguistic growth and decay (not here originally presented), are marked by characteristic clearness and moderation; but in the comparative list of words, collected from the dictionaries of the seven principal languages of Aryan descent, from which a collective picture of "The Earliest Aryan Civilization" is to be abstracted, he more than once transcends the line which separates the certain and probable from the possible—as, for instance, when he connects Pers. *Yakh* (which is probably borrowed from a Turanian idiom; *cf.* Magy. *jég*, Ostyak *yenk*, ice) with Teut. *Eis*, *ice*, Zend. *isi*; Sansk. *gyâ*, bowstring, with Gr. βιός; or Sansk. *sâlya*, shaft, with Gr. κῆλον and κήρ.

Shakespeare in Fact and in Criticism. By Appleton Morgan, A.M., LL.B. New York: William E. Benjamin. 1888.

THE author of this volume begins one of his essays with a compliment to Richard Grant White. "The lamented Richard Grant White," he says, "was that rarest of all creations—a Shaksperian commentator with no nonsense about him." It is apparently the ambition of Mr. Morgan to follow in Mr. White's footsteps, and especially to have "no nonsense about him." Such a man necessarily begins by asserting that other persons in his trade have a great deal of nonsense about them; and consequently we find in these pages little more than a loud and heated denunciation of the æsthetic and scholarly commentators on Shakspere, and particularly of Mr. Furnivall. There has been, certainly, enough of "too curious considering" about the development of Shakspere's mind and art, and the legitimacy of intrinsic evidence has been strained to the extreme in obtaining more from the plays and sonnets than meets the ear, with reference to Shakspere's life and character; but Mr. White, on his side, also pushed to the extreme the opposite view, and by his negations was forced to end with turning Shakspere into a sordid person. Mr. White, however, had something to say in the occasional explosions of temper in which he indulged. He did not simply fume and call men fools and crazy-bodies, and think the argument done when he had only expressed his feelings violently; he showed some cause with which one might agree or not, independently of the critic's expletives. In the present volume, however, we find no unusual learning, no ingenuity or originality in dealing with the well-known materials, no critical power or penetration of mind which would entitle the writer to speak with authority or palliate his indulgence in violent language respecting the scholarly and cultivated, and sometimes eminent, men whom he attacks. If he had allowed himself towards them a small portion of the charity which he shows for the Baconians, with whom he agrees as little, the volume would have avoided its worst features. In the matter of his essays there is nothing which requires consideration.

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NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 8, 1888.

The Week.

THE correspondence between Secretary Bayard and Sir Charles Tupper on this side of the water, and between Minister Phelps and Lord Salisbury on the other, anterior to the recent fishery negotiation, establishes beyond question the necessity of the Commission which has lately concluded its work. It shows that any other mode of reaching a peaceful solution of the difficulty was impossible, owing to the great distance between the two seats of government and the length of time that must elapse in exchanging notes respecting each grievance arising under the enforcement of Canadian fishing regulations. It proves that Mr. Bayard has been moved by the most sedulous care for the interests of his own country and of American fishermen. Whatever opinion may be held concerning the outcome of the negotiations, the good faith of the parties cannot be impeached. The moral effect of the negotiation has been most wholesome. Whether the treaty is ratified on our part or not, the *rapprochement* accomplished by it has been salutary. It has softened asperities everywhere except among the fishermen themselves, who, of course, "claim everything." It is significant of this softened feeling that the desire for reciprocity between the two countries is gaining ground. The most pointed evidence of this fact is the introduction of a joint resolution by Mr. Hitt of Illinois to promote commercial union with Canada. Mr. Hitt is the foremost Republican member of the House Committee on Foreign Affairs. The movement initiated by Mr. Butterworth of Ohio a year ago, and substantially endorsed by Senator Sherman in his recent speech in Boston, has secured so strong a reinforcement in Mr. Hitt that we may almost say that it is now an unproclaimed part of the Republican creed.

Mr. Joseph Chamberlain's speech on Friday evening left a very strong impression of the bona fides of all parties to the fishery negotiations. Good faith and an earnest desire on all sides to remove causes of dissatisfaction must commend the treaty to public approval in the end, whatever hasty adverse judgment may be formed at the outset. Mayor Hewitt gave a very brief and terse expression to this common-sense view of the matter after Mr. Chamberlain had concluded. His remarks were in notable contrast to the string of half-truths that the Chamber of Commerce was induced to give its sanction to a few days ago. The idea that we are giving an equivalent to Canada by offering her something that neither party wants, in exchange for something that she wants to keep and we want to get, is perfectly absurd. We do not believe that the resolution passed by the Chamber of Commerce expresses the mature opinion of that body, still less that of the commercial community of New York. Look for a moment at the situation of Newfoundland. The very existence of her people depends upon the fishing advantages which nature has given her. Take those away without an equivalent, and the inhabitants must starve or abandon their homes. "He takes my life who takes the means whereby I live." Newfoundland buys all her supplies from us. She has nothing but fish and fish-oil to give in return. She has bait and sailors and a base of operations for her dower and her livelihood, and she has nothing else. She asks in exchange for these the equal privilege of selling her catch in our market. These things were reserved to her in the Treaty of 1818, which we have elected to stand on in preference to that of 1870. Yet some of our merchant princes would take the bread out of the mouths of these humble people inhabiting the margin of storm-swept rock, on the ground that we have given them a fair equivalent when we have offered them bait and sailors and a base of fishing operations where there are no fish. Mr. Chamberlain has done something to dispel the prejudices born of ignorance and inattention which stand in the way of a ratification of the treaty. But the prejudices which grow out of a selfish desire to monopolize the American market will, of course, yield to nothing but superior force. The duty on pickled fish being at the bottom of all our fishery disputes, its eventual fate is involved in the larger tariff controversy that is now dawning upon us. What all good citizens should hope for is that no accident may happen in the meantime contrary to the peace of nations.

The Internal-Revenue Reduction Bill reported by the Committee of Ways and Means repeals the taxes on tobacco (not cigars and cigarettes), and reduces the various license taxes, the details of which are not yet published. The estimated reduction of the revenue from this source is $24,500,000, of which $16,000,000 comes from the excise duty on manufactured tobacco. It is stated that the licenses of retail liquor-dealers are to be repealed in favor of the States. These amounted last year to $4,587,268. In order to bring the total reduction up to $24,500,000, it will be necessary to repeal all the license taxes, including those on dealers in tobacco, cigars, and malt liquors, leaving in force only the excise duties on distilled spirits, cigars, cigarettes, snuff, beer, oleomargarine, and bank-notes. The internal revenue will thus be cut down to $94,300,000, the present taxes and licenses yielding $118,800,000.

The *Financial Chronicle* notes symptoms of tightness in the money market, growing out of the large collections of revenue and the locking up of money in the Treasury. Since the 1st of February, it says, there has been an addition to the net currency holdings in the Treasury vaults of $13,500,000, notwithstanding the Secretary has added to the deposits in national banks $2,500,000, and has sought to make the deposits larger, but has been unable to do so, the banks to which the deposits were offered declining to take them. The *Chronicle* considers this state of things dangerous, and urges speedy action by Congress "for immediate and liberal reductions of the revenue." It considers the bill reported by the Senate Committee on Finance "directing" the Secretary of the Treasury to invest in Government bonds 80 per cent. of the bank-note redemption fund, now amounting to upwards of $98,000,000, an extremely unwise measure, since it leaves no discretion to the Secretary, and virtually enables the bondholders to exact whatever premium they please. "It is a positive direction to invest $80,000,000 in bonds regardless of price at a time when the Government is expected to invest probably $150,000,000 of additional surplus in the same way." This is certainly very reckless legislation. We do not believe that such a bill can pass the Senate, however much the Republican party may desire to put the Secretary "in a hole."

The House has passed a bill authorizing the Secretary to invest the surplus in the purchase of bonds in his own discretion. This is a repetition of an existing law, and is passed to overcome the scruples of the Secretary, who has stated officially that he desires contemporaneous authority for so grave a responsibility. The rumor comes from Washington that the Senate will not act upon the House bill at all, taking the ground that it is mere surplusage to reënact an existing law concerning the surplus. If the Senate should adhere to this position, the Secretary would be obliged to recede from his, so far as to assume that the failure of Congress to rescind the existing authorization, after their attention had been called to it, was equivalent to a reënactment of it. A law is a law until it is repealed, and it is immaterial whether it was enacted by the Fiftieth Congress, or the Fortieth, or the First. There is probably some party spite in the refusal to consider the Secretary's scruples, but the Senate's position, if it shall take such a position, will be a defensible one. So much cannot be said of the bill reported by the Finance Committee, which leaves the Secretary no discretion as to the investment of $80,000,000, but invites the bondholders to corner the market against him.

Mr. Randall's remarks on the bill to authorize the Secretary of the Treasury to purchase bonds with the surplus revenues caused no little sensation on both sides of the House. His discourse on this bill led him to make some remarks on the coming tariff bill. He said that it had been given out that there was a conspiracy against the protective system of the United States. He did not believe that there was any such conspiracy. "I beg to say," he continued, "to those who have an affrighted fancy, that, so far as American industries are concerned, they are not to-day in any danger." In conclusion, he expressed the belief that the Democratic party would remain united. This means that Mr. Ran-

dall has decided not to oppose the Ways and Means Committee's bill, and thus land himself and his flock in the Republican party. This is wise. The Republicans have no use for Mr. Randall, except as a Democrat. If he were one of them, they would give his seat in Congress to some "old-timer" of their own. The significance of Mr. Randall's remarks is all the greater for this reason. It implies that Pennsylvania will make shift to get on even without a duty on wool, and with something less than $17 per ton on steel rails.

The remarkable feature of the pension debate which has been running in the Senate for the past week is the readiness shown by the Republican Senators to do the bidding of the Grand Army of the Republic, whatever that bidding might be. Mr. Manderson of Nebraska, in explaining the bill of which he had the management, said that he "had been charged by the Grand Army of the Republic with the duty of helping to pass this bill as it came from the hands of its Pension Committee." Mr. Davis of Minnesota, a Chairman of the Pension Committee, defended that Committee from the charge that it had brought in a carelessly drawn bill, by saying that "the members of the Grand Army of the Republic formulated the bill introduced by the Senator from Nebraska," and that "your Committee, when many of these features which have been called to the attention of the Senate were called to their attention, felt exceedingly loath to disturb the phraseology or the principles upon which it is based." Mr. Plumb of Kansas raised the question whether the bill really represented the wishes of the Grand Army, and Mr. Manderson replied that "this bill in exact language was formulated by the Pension Committee of the Grand Army of the Republic." The whole course of the discussion showed that the Republican members of the Senate were ready to pass any pension bill upon the assurance that the Grand Army wanted it, and that they considered the assurance that the Grand Army wanted it the only reason necessary to be given.

Senator Vest of Missouri told the exact truth when he said, of the pension debate, that the Senate had been engaged for some days past in a political auction for the "soldier vote," and he was abundantly justified in the satire which he employed in describing the various bids of the Republican candidates for the Presidential nomination. It is another illustration of the great advantage which the Democratic party reaps from having such a President as Mr. Cleveland, that his pension record enables Democratic Senators to feel a confidence of popular support in opposing the pension-grabbers which they never before experienced. Timid Democrats in Congress a year ago were afraid that his veto of the Dependent Pension Bill was going to harm the Democratic party, but they have learned that Republican papers were right when they declared that "the country will applaud and sustain him in it" (Albany *Express*); that "the veto will be generally approved by public sentiment throughout the country" (Troy *Times*); that "the people of the United States owe recognition to the courage of President Cleveland for his action" (Poughkeepsie *Eagle*); that "undoubtedly the country is with him" (Buffalo *Express*); that "the veto will prove a great public service" (Philadelphia *Press*); and that "he has justified himself at every point" (Chicago *Tribune*). The amazing thing is, that Republican Senators should fly in the face of public opinion as thus expressed by Republican papers.

It is very plain that all the friends of free wool are not in the Democratic party. Mr. McCreary of Kentucky having introduced a bill (H. R. 1473) for a pan-American conference, in order to promote arbitration for the settlement of disputes and "to encourage such reciprocal commercial relations as will be beneficial to all, and secure more extensive markets for the products of each of said countries," Mr. William Walter Phelps made a "rousing speech" in favor of it in the House last Thursday, and claimed the glory of this conception for Mr. Blaine, and taunted the Democrats with sluggishness and general ineptitude in that it had taken seven years for them to understand and appreciate the advantages of pan-Americanism in commercial intercourse. All that Mr. Phelps said was very fine, but what, we beg to inquire, becomes of the tariff on wool when the pan-American reciprocity treaty comes into force? Reciprocal commercial relations require the mutual repeal of duties. What are the dutiable articles that South America desires to sell to us? First of all, wool; second, copper and copper ore. Coffee, hides, and India rubber are already on the free list. When the pan-American conference that Mr. Phelps is so anxious for assembles, the first thing to be put into the reciprocity treaty will be wool and copper. Unless these are admitted free from the Argentine Republic, Chili, etc., the conference may as well not be held at all. It would be a lame and impotent conclusion to hold the conference merely to promote arbitration for the settlement of disputes. All that could be arranged without a conference. Indeed, we have so few disputes with South American countries, and they are so much accustomed to acknowledge our primacy in the affairs of the Western Hemisphere, that, however much a general system of arbitration might be to their advantage, it would not be to our advantage, because we have things pretty much our own way now.

Mr. Edward Atkinson has brought out in the last number of *Bradstreet's* his reply to Sir Morton Frewen, Mr. Bear, and other English critics who had called in question his statement made before the British Association for the Advancement of Science, that the American farmer could make as much profit to-day on wheat at 34s. per quarter in Liverpool as he could make at 50s. per quarter in 1873. The statement of Mr. Atkinson was made from his general knowledge of the cheapening of transportation and production since 1873. Mr. Bear and others denied Mr. Atkinson's statements very roundly and very sharply. He now publishes his justification in an article of three pages, not only sustaining his former statement, but affirming that American wheat growers can do as well with wheat at 28s. as they could in 1873 at 50s. In other words, he has lowered his margin as much as 6s. per quarter. The reductions in cost since 1873, which are shown separately and in detail by Mr. Atkinson, are as follows, in terms of English money:

Reduction in the railway charges...	11s. or more
Reduction in the steamer charges ..	5s.
Reduction in planting and reaping .	2s. or more
Reduction in milling and sacking...	3s. or more
Reduction in elevating, handling, etc	1s.
Minimum reduction per quarter..	22s.

Take 22s. reduction in cost from 50s., the Liverpool price in 1873, and we have 28s. as the equivalent which puts the American farmer on the same footing that he held in 1873. Mr. Atkinson gives his authorities for his several calculations, and we think that he has made out his case. The fact that wheat continues to go to Liverpool in large quantities at about 30s. per quarter, would seem to confirm Mr. Atkinson's original thesis, and to establish presumptively his later one.

Senator Sherman has bestirred himself and induced the Senate to pass a resolution requesting the President to negotiate a treaty with the Emperor of China providing that no Chinese laborer shall enter the United States. Mr. Sherman's motive is transparent—too transparent to effect its purpose. He has found that his votes against the Anti-Chinese Bills years ago have made him unavailable as a Republican candidate for President on the Pacific Coast, and he is trying to "make himself solid" on the other side of the continent by extraordinary zeal against the Chinese now. But it will not avail. The people will remember that he voted against the Anti-Chinese Bills when the issue was a vital one, and no death-bed repentance will atone for that offence.

In the long list of political Americanisms, we meet with no fitting name for christening the pet stratagem of our Florence statesman. His master-stroke is rejecting in good set terms a proffered and coveted honor, while all the while hoping that no number of refusals will prove a rebuff. The keen eye of the ancient comedians detected this weakness in Athenian demagogues who declined office with a view to making their election surer, and Philippides gave it the name *accismus*. Accismus is not to be found in Webster. Though never as yet discovered in any English book made to be read, it has been printed by Chambers, Smart, Worcester, and the New Dictionary, as if with prophetic instinct that it would be needed. Dr. Murray defines it "a feigned refusal of that which is earnestly desired." This form of words comes pat for describing Blaine's declinatures, and preëminently the last. We must always eke out our vocabulary with Greek. How could we do without telegraph, telegram, telephone, phonogram, telepathy, etc.? Let us thank the Greeks for teaching us accismus, which

our idiom may perhaps shorten to accism, as it contracts *schisma* to schism. Accismus is better than "still hunt," which befits a process rather than an action. It is better than *nolo episcopari*, which is worn out, and has an ecclesiastical squint, as growing out of the canon-law maxim, "Indignus est sacerdotio nisi fuerit ordinatus invitus." It is better than Cæsarism, which is consecrated to indicate cravings not for a first, but for a third Presidential term. In fine, a word in its newest gloss is demanded to brand the newest mock-modesty in our political aspirants.

The "Pauper Immigrant" Law was put to a curious test a short time ago when our Consul at Liverpool sent to New York a seaman who shipped on an American vessel at San Francisco, and who was left sick and crippled at his consulate. As a foreigner without means of support, he was not permitted by the Board of Emigration to land, and, with the concurrence of the Treasury Department, he was returned to Liverpool at the vessel's expense. Now, under an old and well-known law, our consuls are required to furnish relief to all American seamen found destitute within their districts. This relief includes board, clothing, medical aid, and transportation *to the United States*. The subjects of this relief must be American seamen, but the regulations of the Department of State have for many years included in this class all persons, of whatever nationality, who ship with an American vessel from one of our home ports. As a matter of fact, the majority of American seamen to-day entitled to the privileges mentioned are not American citizens. When left upon a consulate, they are not only entitled to be sent to the United States at the expense of the Government, but no master of one of our vessels can refuse to take them on board when the Consul requests it. The troublesome individual in this case was a foreigner, but he was, under the relief laws mentioned, an American seaman, and it was not possible for the Consul at Liverpool to refuse him transportation, or for the captain of the vessel to deny him passage, without incurring the penalties of the law. We understand that upon his return to Liverpool the Consul made a report to the Department of State, which led to a conference between it and the Treasury Department, resulting in an agreement that hereafter such seamen, known as "consuls' men," should be permitted to land unmolested.

The homicidal mania seems to be breaking out again at the South with renewed virulence. In Culpepper (Va.) two young editors, Mr. Barbour of the Piedmont *Advance* and Mr. Williams of the Culpepper *Exponent*, had a deadly encounter. As usual, "the families of both are very prominent in the county." The trouble arose over a satirical letter about Williams's uncle in the *Advance*, signed "Jack Clatterbuck." Barbour resented it bitterly in the *Advance*, and after several exchanges of vituperation came the usual closing observation, that Williams was "a little dog barking at a gentleman's heels." Thereupon Williams "armed himself" and went to see Barbour, and then Barbour's first shot went through Williams's heart, and Barbour also fell to the floor dangerously wounded. "The excitement over the tragedy" in the county is, we need hardly say, "intense." About the same time a "terrible battle occurred among citizens of the Fifth District of Monroe County," Miss., at a meeting of school trustees to consider the action of a teacher who had expelled some pupils. The affair had been arranged, and the meeting was breaking up when the "difficulty" suddenly broke out. James Bailey, jr., killed R. A. Rutledge and his son Edward and Benjamin Fish, and shot off accidentally one of his own brother's fingers, and then made his escape through a window, receiving a shot in the ribs and a stab in the back as he fled. There were others as active and energetic as Bailey, but no record has been kept of their deeds. The school-house is riddled with bullet-holes. How the teacher fared does not appear, but he probably escaped. The affair, we need hardly say, "has created a great sensation in that portion of the country, and may not be over yet." In fact, we fear "the battle" was only adjourned. The friends of the dead Rutledges have to kill some one in order to close up the account. The bullet holes in the school-house will remind the children of what the Fifth District of Monroe County expects of them when they get their pistols and enter on manhood.

That a clever novelist may not be a wise judge of public affairs surely should need no demonstration, and yet it is difficult to see what else than this is shown by the long article on "The Negro Question" which the *Tribune* on Sunday published from the pen of Mr. George W. Cable. The substance of it all is that Mr. Cable is greatly discouraged over the present situation, and that he does not have faith that time will work an improvement, while he has, after all, no definite remedy to suggest. Really, it is hardly worth while for a man, even though he be a good story writer, to fill seven long columns of fine type in a newspaper to reach so lame and impotent a conclusion as this. Mr. Cable shows an ignorance alike of past developments in the North and of present tendencies at the South, which unfits a writer for intelligent and candid treatment of the subject. He talks as though, on the one hand, the negro everywhere in the North received as fair treatment as the white man, and as though, on the other hand, no progress in the right direction were anywhere making in the South. Both of these theories are fallacious. In Brooklyn, "the City of Churches," the negro who goes to the theatre, even as a Grand Army man at a Grand Army entertainment, is relegated to the gallery, whatever his wealth or standing, and in Ohio and Kansas negro parents, within a few months, have had to fight through all the courts the most bitter opposition to the admission of their children to schools attended by white children. Of the progressive tendency at the South it is sufficient to cite two illustrations. Mr. Cable complains that "an expensive isolation of race from race is kept up even in the teachers' institutes," whereas this isolation was broken down in Kentucky some years ago and is beginning to yield in North Carolina. At the recent public reception to the President in a hotel at Jacksonville, Fla., negroes were admitted on a perfect equality with whites. Mr. Cable is unduly depressed.

The truth is, that there is no possible offhand solution of the negro problem at the South. It was never solved, so far as it has been solved, in any such fashion at the North. The negro did not secure his rights in the North summarily. In 1865 Connecticut gave 6,000 majority against an amendment to the Constitution giving him the right to vote, and Minnesota 2,500 majority against a similar amendment. In 1867 Kansas refused by 9,000 majority to strike out the word "white," and Ohio gave 38,000 majority the same way. It was more than twenty years after the close of the war before Ohio, which meanwhile had been boiling with indignation over the maltreatment of the negro at the South, reached the point of abolishing the last of the "black laws"; and even then communities which prided themselves upon being educational centres fought bitterly against mixed schools, carrying the controversy up to the Supreme Court, which has just decided that they must yield. When Mr. Cable has lived longer at the North, and learned more of its history, he will find it necessary to reconstruct the theories which he has ignorantly framed as to the race line in this part of the country. Meanwhile, it is to be hoped that he will not be more impatient with his old neighbors in the South than Northern people, who have noted the slowness with which race prejudice has declined under the most favorable circumstances here, and who have a great deal of charity for their brethren in a region where even slower progress is reasonably to be expected.

The strike in the Lehigh collieries, which had been dragging along for six months, collapsed utterly on Friday, when all the strikers made a rush for reëmployment on the old terms. All were taken back except the leaders, who have not only been refused employment by the companies, but find themselves so bitterly condemned and distrusted by the strikers that they are likely to have to leave that part of the country. The men declare not only that they were duped by their leaders, but that the latter have made a great deal of money out of the strike. Of course they have—that is what most strikes are for. It is most encouraging to find the duped workingmen coming to a realization of this truth. A curious fact about this strike is that it lasted precisely as long as the strike in the anthracite region in 1877, which seems to show that six months is the maximum period during which miners are able to subsist without work.

THE TARIFF BILL.

THE bill reported by the majority of the Ways and Means Committee is so moderate in its reduction of duties, and so little calculated to disturb or unsettle any established industry, that the Republicans in Congress will have to strain themselves heavily to make any kind of fight against it. It does not go beyond the average reduction recommended by the Tariff Commission of 1883, although differing in details from the bill then recommended. It is in harmony with the recommendations of Senator Sherman and Representative Dawes in 1872, made at a time when there was no necessity pressing upon the Government to reduce a surplus revenue, as there is now. In his speech supporting tariff reduction in that year Mr. Sherman said :

"It must be remembered that the present duties, taken together, are far in excess of what they were before the war, and that they have been three times largely increased since the passage of the Morrill Tariff Act of 1861. . . . The result of such duties is to secure to mechanical industries higher wages than can be earned in other kindred employments. Such excessive protection not only ceases to diversify production, but forces labor into protected employments. If the present rates of duty were high enough during and since the war, when home industry was burdened with heavy internal taxes—with stamp duties, income taxes, and high rates on raw materials—then, surely, they are now too high when all these taxes are removed. . . . I have listened with patience day by day to the statements of gentlemen who are interested in our domestic productions. I am a firm believer in the general idea of protecting their industries, but I assure them, as I assure their representatives here, that if the present high rates of duties, unexampled in our country, and higher by nearly 50 per cent. than they were in 1861, are maintained on metallic and textile fabrics after we have repealed the very internal taxes which gave rise to them, and after we have substantially given them their raw materials free of duties, we shall have a feeling of dissatisfaction among other interests in the country that will overthrow the whole system, and do greater harm than can possibly be done by a moderate reduction of the present rates of duty. And I am quite sure that intelligent men engaged in the production of various forms of textile and metallic fabrics feel, as I do, that it is wiser and better to do what is just and right, to make a reduction in their products, at least to the extent of the reduction in this bill on their raw materials, rather than to invite a controversy in which I believe they will be in the wrong."

That all that Mr. Sherman then said is applicable to the present tariff, and more, is evident from the fact that the average rate of tax on dutiable goods is nearly 4 per cent. higher now than it was then. It should be remarked also that, although protective tariffs have been maintained in this country continuously for ninety-nine years—that is, during the whole period of our national existence under the Constitution—they are now higher than they ever were before in our history, being upwards of 47 per cent. average on dutiable goods, the highest previous tariff (that of 1828) having averaged only 43 per cent.

The circumstances being such, and the necessity of bringing the revenue down to the measure of the public expenditures being immediate and pressing, we are not surprised to find that the Republican attack upon the bill is made rather upon the mode of its preparation than upon the merits of the measure. It is called a "dark-lantern bill," because the majority of the Committee did not admit the minority into their confidence while it was in course of preparation. The answer to this is, that the minority have it now, and can try their teeth on it to any extent. They can offer as many amendments now as they could have done at any time. The darkness has been dispelled and the light of day has burst upon the scene. The disclosure is by no means dreadful. American industry is not flat on its back. The earth will still yield her increase, even though wool goes on the free list, and certainly manufacturing industry will not be harmed by that proceeding, or by the corresponding reduction on woollen goods. The truth is, that we have been importing the wool in the form of cloth that we ought to have imported as wool and manufactured ourselves. The wool tariff is the very key and pivot of the tariff situation, and the repeal of the duty on that article is the chief merit of the present bill, regarded as a measure of industrial reform.

The greatest merit of the bill is that it reduces the revenue $50,000,000. The calculation of the Committee is that the reduction on sugar will be $11,000,000, on raw materials $22,250,000, on woollen manufactures $12,000,000, and on miscellaneous articles $5,000,000. In order to secure the requisite reduction, say $70,000,000, and to provide against possible increase of importations of some articles on which the duties are reduced, but not repealed, it will be necessary to cut down the internal revenue by $25,000,000 to $30,000,000. Of the measure by which the Committee propose to effect this reduction, we have spoken on another page.

Looking at all the difficulties surrounding the Committee, and considering the enormous jungle and morass that the present tariff has placed in their way, we think that they have done very well. Undoubtedly changes of detail will be made before the bill comes up for general debate, but the public will not fail to bear in mind that the most menacing condition that is or can be placed athwart the country's pathway, industrially and morally, is the piling up of money in the Treasury for which the Government has no honest use.

THE PUBLIC AND THE LOCOMOTIVE ENGINEERS.

A MEETING of delegates from fifteen divisions of the Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers was held in Tammany Hall on Sunday, at which the following curious preamble and resolutions were passed:

"Whereas, It is learned from good authority that the managers of the various railways throughout the country have combined in secretly aiding and assisting the management of the Chicago, Burlington and Quincy Railway in their present trouble, and

"Whereas, Such action on the part of said managers is cowardly and unfair, therefore be it

"Resolved, (1.) That we, as representatives of the various divisions of the Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers in this vicinity in convention assembled, do hereby denounce said action on the part of said managers, and declare that we, as an organization, are justified in resorting to extreme measures in overcoming this outside interference with the affairs of our brother engineers upon the Chicago, Burlington and Quincy Railway.

"(2.) That to this end we recommend that, if the aforesaid difficulty is not settled within a reasonable time, upon a fair and reasonable basis, all the Brotherhood men upon the connecting lines of the Chicago, Burlington and Quincy system will resign their positions upon a given date.

"(3.) That if this action, as a means of last resort, is not sufficient to gain the just and reasonable demands of the engineers and firemen upon the aforesaid railway, we, as an entire organization throughout the United States, Canada, and Mexico, join issue with them in a universal demand for their acknowledged rights—of being paid the established rates for work actually performed."

One of the oddest hallucinations of labor agitators and organizers is the notion that they can somehow start a select little society which will be so strong that it will, by doing something on "a given date," in obedience to a preconcerted signal from somebody, be able to bring the whole American people to their knees, and be able to exact from them such concessions as are usually made only to the demands of a conquering army. Poor Powderly had this dream in his weary head when he started the Knights of Labor. His notion was that by getting all the trades into one organization, ruled despotically by a small Council, he could order "general strikes" on a "given date," and thus bring all the industry of the country to a standstill, and compel the community to treat with the Grand Master Workmen and the General Worthy Foremen as it would treat with the commander of an invading force which had just crushed the last attempt at armed resistance.

The public has been for some years—in fact, for nearly as long as people in our time remember any news of the day which does not concern them personally—accustomed to hearing Mr. P. M. Arthur and the Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers spoken of as a very conservative, prudent, and public-spirited body, forming a marked contrast in their management of their affairs to the other trades-unions. This view of them, too, has been fully justified by their course during the past ten years, and no journal has been more careful to take it than the *Nation* has been. We have refrained from any allusion to the hot-headed and demagogic beginnings of Arthur's career as a labor agitator. But now that he seems disposed to repeat his old follies, and convert every trade dispute into an attack on the whole community, and to try to paralyze the business of a whole nation, in order that a few hundred men may force a corporation to employ them at rates fixed by themselves, it seems time to recall his earlier performances as a labor manager.

He succeeded in 1873, as head of the Brotherhood, a very conservative man named Wilson, who refused to countenance a strike on the leased lines of the Pennsylvania Company in that year. When he took office, he was full of fight, and began a policy of steady striking on the New England roads. His strikes, being novelties both to the public and the roads, were mostly successful. The roads succumbed because the public opinion was in that early, rudimentary stage in which everything that "Labor" did or said seemed right. His plan of operations at

that time was to decide on a strike secretly and give secret instructions to the engineers as to the hour at which the strike was to take place. Two hours' notice, and only two hours' notice, was then given to the company, and when the time came every engineer stopped his train wherever it happened to be, and stood by the engine for two hours more to give the company an opportunity to give way. If by that time it had made no concession, he took himself off, though we believe it was not uncommon for him to detach the locomotive and convey himself to the nearest station, leaving the train standing in the middle of the track, no matter how many passengers it contained, or what was the season or the weather. One of Arthur's strikes, and the most atrocious of all, was carried out in this manner on the Grand Trunk Line, in December, in the midst of Canadian snow and ice; and trains containing women and children were abandoned on the track, far from towns or houses, and men who were sent to work the engines were actually mobbed and driven off by the ruffians of the Brotherhood, acting under his directions.

At last, however, the companies were roused into resistance by Arthur's growing audacity. He had carried through five strikes in six months, and had boasted at a meeting of his followers in Faneuil Hall that he had only "to raise his hand to stop every railroad running out of Boston." This impudence was more than the community could stand, so when he made an onslaught on the Boston and Maine Road early in 1877, he was collared and subdued. His formal demands in this case were small—ten cents a day increased pay to sixty-seven men; but the real question involved was whether an irresponsible agitator should be allowed to take the management of the road out of the hands of the owners, and in defiance of the community. The corporation resisted him. They secured men enough to run a few trains during the first two critical days. To one of these men $1,500 in cash was offered if he would leave his engine; another was assaulted and badly beaten; and all of them were coaxed, or jeered at, or threatened and insulted from one end of the line to the other. But the company triumphed. In a few days it had the line in working order, and the public feeling ran so strongly in its favor that Arthur did not dare to carry out his threat of a general strike on the Boston roads. Had he done so, it would have been immediately met by the introduction into the Legislature of a law forbidding any corporation, under heavy penalties, to intrust a locomotive to a member of the Brotherhood. Such a measure, based on the principle that these men paid their highest allegiance to another power than the law of the State, and could not be relied on not to abandon trains full of passengers in dangerous positions, was, we understood at the time, drafted and ready for immediate submission. But it was not necessary. Arthur paused in his mad career, and was so sobered by the exhaustion of the funds of the Brotherhood in supporting the men whom he had induced to strike, that he turned over a new leaf, became the enemy of strikes, and a most useful and influential apostle of conciliation and moderation, and such he has remained until now.

We have no criticism to offer here on his quarrel with the Chicago, Burlington and Quincy Road. He may be right in his contention that the engineers ought not to be paid according to their experience and skill, and the responsibilities put on them, although, if he be, it must be because drivers of locomotives differ in mental and moral constitution from the rest of mankind. But his engineers have left the employment of this corporation voluntarily, and for reasons that seemed good to them. What they are now contending for is the right to be employed, at a rate of wages fixed by themselves, by men who do not wish to employ them on any terms. This is, in the eyes of the rational portion of the American people, a ridiculous claim; but, whether ridiculous or not, they will not permit a business dispute between one small knot of laborers and one railroad, or factory, or mine, to be made the pretext for suspending the trade and transportation of the entire nation, and threatening large cities with scarcity of food and provisions. The man who supposes that this will be submitted to is more foolish than we believe it is likely for any one who has had Arthur's experience ever to become. Therefore we trust he will cease his vaporing, and either settle his quarrel with the C., B. and Q., or give up trying to settle it, and go into some other line of activity. His threats just now are those of a public enemy, and he must be careful or he will get himself treated as such. The community will not put up with insolence from a person of his dimensions which it would resent by a great war if it came from a foreign statesman. If he has the power he says he has, it ought to be taken away from him; if he has not, and is trying to get it, he ought to be stopped.

THE FINANCIAL SITUATION OF MEXICO.

It is only within the last few years that an attempt to give an idea of Mexican finances has been worth the making. The finest calculation might be sponged from the slate, without warning, in the whole chaotic period between 1821 and 1876. Indeed, one of the things which have sorely bothered the heads of the statesmen of Mexico, not to speak of students of her affairs, has been the puzzle of determining the resultant of the various conflicting adjustments and compromises effected, from time to time, in regard to the national debt. Since the comprehensive financial legislation of 1885, however, something like method has been introduced into the madness of this part of the problem. And when we add the solidifying influence of twelve years passed without a revolution, the new impulses given to national development and foreign commerce, the greater regularity in governmental income and expenditures, we find ourselves in a position to arrive at a fair approximation to the true financial situation of Mexico to-day. The greatest single obstacle now in the way is the lack of clear and accurate statistics. In the last report of the Secretary of the Treasury appears a brief historical sketch of the glaring imperfections of the reports of his predecessors, in which it is admitted that, with all the improvements made in the *Memorias* of the present, they still come far short of presenting a full and satisfying account of the nation's finances. This can easily be assented to. Still, the material available is sufficient to enable one to indicate results broadly, and with a degree of accuracy perhaps as great as is necessary.

To begin, then, with Mexico's liabilities, the first thing to consider is the amount and burdensome nature of her foreign indebtedness. Fortunately, as has been said, we are delivered from the necessity of going into the maze of Mexico's numerous and complicated foreign loans prior to June, 1885, since on the 22d of that month a comprehensive law was passed consolidating all of Mexico's foreign debt into a new issue of bonds. This measure was certainly statesmanlike in its intention, at least, and was as little a repudiating scheme as could have been expected. The foreign bondholders, at any rate, submitted to its provisions with a good grace, and have probably been less anxious at the scaling down of the face value of their old bonds than over the question whether their new ones will prove to be a safe investment. According to the terms of the law referred to, the new bonds are to bear interest at 3 per cent., beginning with January, 1890. For 1886 the rate was fixed at 1 per cent., to be increased by the addition of ½ per cent. annually, until the 3 per cent. rate should be reached. The emission was to the amount of $150,000,000, of which, up to June, 1887, something more than $100,000,000 had been received by foreign creditors in lieu of their old bonds. In addition to this "consolidated debt," as it is called, there is a floating debt, secured by Treasury notes and Custom-house certificates, amounting to about $50,000,000. The last Congress authorized an additional loan of $62,500,000, about one-third of which, it is reported, has been negotiated at 8 per cent. There will result, therefore, a total funded debt of about $250,000,000, involving an annual interest charge of something like $12,000,000. For the year ending in July, 1886, the Treasury accounts show payments on the score of the public debt of $2,556,992. That, as we have shown, was when but a part of the consolidated debt was drawing interest, and that at a reduced rate, and when the new loan, involving an annual charge of at least $5,000,000, was not yet authorized. As has been said, then, Mexico's debts will represent after 1890 a tax on the nation of about $12,000,000 yearly.

Turning now to the question of regular Governmental expenditures, we are confronted with a singular difference between the way the Mexican Congress deals with the estimates submitted by heads of departments and the habit of our own House of Representatives in similar circumstances. In Mexico the Government always gets what it asks for, and usually a little more. For example,

in 1885-6 it asked for $38,903,353, got $42,458,323, and spent but $31,672,836. That was the year of notable and forced economy, when public salaries were scaled down and every possible retrenchment was practised, so as to avert the threatening national bankruptcy. For 1886-7 the estimates called for over $37,000,000, and were voted accordingly. For 1887-8 they are $36,270,451. On the whole, taking the average of the last three or four years, and leaving out of the Treasury estimates the amounts needed for payment on the public debt, it seems doubtful if the necessary Governmental expenditures can be screwed down below $30,000,000 yearly. They were slightly over $29,000,000 in 1885-6, and the severe economy of that year is not likely to be repeated soon.

The Government is organized in nine departments, whose names and respective expenditures may be seen in the following table of estimates for 1887-88:

Legislative	$1,002,928
Executive	49,846
Judicial	439,994
Foreign relations	434,930
Gobernacion	3,466,882
Justice	1,399,850
Public Works	4,426,132
Treasury	11,664,391
War	13,386,495
	$36,271,448

Gobernacion includes the administering of public schools, the Post-office, police and militia, etc. The Treasury estimates embrace, of course, interest on the public debt. "Justice" includes the subordinate tribunals and the national technical and professional schools.

The receipts of the Federal Treasury during the five years ending in July, 1886, averaged $31,416,000. In 1883-84 they reached the sum of $37,620,000, undoubtedly the largest in the history of the country. For 1885-86 they were $27,810,909. This income arises from customs duties and internal taxation. The latter is a systematized levying on everything in sight, and appears to have produced about one-quarter of the total revenue in 1885-6. The principal items are: Stamps, $6,103,413; direct taxes (on sales, professions, real estate in the Federal District, etc.), $1,038,074; sales of church property, $220,618; lotteries, $273,074. The remainder of the national revenue is derived from the Post-office and Government Telegraph, from the sale of public lands, and the lease of railroads and other Government property, together with the receipts from customs duties. No clear idea can be obtained from the Treasury reports of the exact amount of the last item. But the total receipts are stated clearly enough, and are clearly enough considerably below the total expenditures. In fact, the budget has steadily shown a deficit for the past five years averaging $5,000,000, except in 1884-5, when it was over $15,000,000. It was unquestionably this repeated running behind that caused the last public loan.

As we have already made clear, the requirements of the Treasury will be heavier as the interest charge on the national debt goes on increasing. What is the prospect that the receipts will be augmented in an equal or greater proportion, as they will have to be, to prevent ultimate bankruptcy? Very poor, it seems to us. Certainly, there appears to be no possibility of extending the system of internal taxation. It had even to be slightly curtailed in the last fiscal year reported, and the revenue from it fell off more than $300,000. The only real hope of an increased income is in larger returns from the duties on foreign commerce. In point of exports, Mexico's foreign trade has shown a considerable growth in the last five years. Exports have increased from $29,928,697 in '80-81 to $43,647,717 in '85-86. Still, the increase has been almost wholly in the one item of precious metals. And, with the practical removal of all export duties, this means nothing for the income of the Government, whatever it may denote as to the general prosperity of the country.

No full and trustworthy statistics of imports are accessible, but it is undoubted that they have fallen off. We know, for example, that England's exports to Mexico fell from $9,513,522 in 1882 to $4,212,162 in 1885, and that the United States exported to Mexico in the same years goods to the value of $13,320,000 and $7,370,000 respectively. It would thus appear that the impetus given to Mexican trade by the opening of the American railroads was not as lasting as was hoped. Something may be expected from the general commercial rally just now prevalent, and possibly from the working of the new tariff, not yet a year in force. But there seems to be no likelihood that Mexico will find in her custom houses material to bridge over the gap between her income and expenses. Retrenchment is scarcely possible, unless in the enormously disproportionate cost of the army. The Government may get up courage to try that, though only as a dire necessity. We sincerely hope that we are wrong in our conclusions, for we sympathize with the rulers of Mexico in their efforts to make head against her immense financial difficulties; but we cannot help anticipating a repetition of the old story of deferred and unpaid interest, then of repudiated (under the name of readjusted) debts.

THE DUPONTS AND THE DURANDS.

THERE is a very amusing story in a recent number of the Paris *Temps* illustrative of what it calls the "Americanization of our Manners." The particular "Americanization" to which it refers is the practice, which it alleges to be growing in Paris, of inviting to evening parties people with whom the host and hostess have no personal acquaintance. The writer evidently believes that American parties are at least partly made up of "entire strangers," and that it is the custom here for those who give balls or dances to send invitations to any one whom they would like to have, or whom they would like to be thought to have had, or of whom they have heard as frequenting other people's soirées. He intimates that it has gone so far, indeed, that at American parties watches and trinkets are as unsafe as they would be at a horse-race or a fire; that prudent people leave them at home when going to such entertainments; and that in Paris their example begins to be followed.

The story he tells in illustration of this is that of a certain M. Dupont and M. Durand, who had apartments in the same house in Paris, but who were bound by their leases not to give evening parties of any description, the proprietor, who lived in the building, having a strong objection thereto. Wishing very much, however, to have dances in their rooms, they demanded his permission and got it, on condition that they would both give their parties the same evening, so that he might not lose more than one night's rest. He then instructed his concierge that when the evening came he was to watch at the entrance and send Dupont's guests to Durand's apartment, and Durand's, in like manner, to Dupont's apartment, which he did. But, as the proprietor anticipated, it made, for a while, no difference to either guests or hosts. As none of the guests knew either Dupont or Durand, and as Dupont and Durand knew none of the guests, the fraud of the concierge was not discovered, and all went merry as a marriage-bell. At last, however, an acquaintance of Dupont did arrive, and, finding himself in Durand's apartment, gave the alarm; a panic spread among the guests, and they made a rush for Dupont's apartment. Their appearance revealed the truth to Durand's guests already there, and they in their turn made a rush for Dupont's apartment. The opposing currents met on the staircase, and the block was so alarming that the concierge, who was in tears of laughter, became alarmed, and sent for the policeman who was keeping order among the carriages in the street. He was an old soldier and a man of decision, and he promptly restored order by calling on all the Duponts to file to the right, and all the Durands to the left, and, when the ranks were properly formed, shouted, "En avant! Circulez!" and all went well, and each host soon had his own guests. But the confusion and nervous prostration in which they found him on their arrival can be readily imagined. The horrible truth had slipped out that his company were unknown to him, that he had filled his rooms with strangers, and had apparently no personal friends of his own whom he cared to see when he gave a fête.

The story is told as an actual occurrence, though doubtless somewhat embellished in the telling. But have similar things happened in this city of New York under like conditions, or might they have happened? Have we Duponts and Durands "in our midst," who appeal to that love of being in a crowd in a well-furnished house, where there is good eating and drinking going on, by which so many of us are animated, without caring particularly how we get there, who our companions are, or who invites us? Between people who accept invitations from rich strangers, and people who like to go to the houses of rich strangers whether they are invited or not, the line of demarcation is very faint, and the consequence is that the two classes are very apt to meet at balls and par-

ties in greater or less numbers. There was a large reception in this city recently at which both were present in great force, and got tipsy together, and jostled the ladies in the dressing-rooms, and stole their wraps, and very nearly turned the fête into a scene of vulgar riot and debauch. But are such things common or even frequent?

Of course such customs are ruinous to anything that can be called manners. When the relation of host and guest is reduced simply to the offer and acceptance of a heavy meal on a certain evening, there can be neither authority on one side nor respect on the other. The house is simply a hotel, in which there is nothing to pay and the landlord is not responsible for valuables. On what costs men nothing, even the best men put little value. Dinners and suppers under one's own roof should stand for something more than a treat in a bar-room usually does, in order to put a guest under a sense of obligation. They should indicate at least previous and favorable knowledge of the guest, however slight or indirect, on the part of the host, some respect for his character, and some confidence that he has better reasons for behaving properly in a man's house than the fear of being kicked out. Hospitality which has no better motive than showing off to as large a crowd as possible how much money one has got, can hardly be called civilized intercourse at all. It is not much better than the show of wives which the King of the Niam-Niams made to Schweinfurth, the traveller. It has none of the moral foundation which all civilized communities now try to give to their social usages.

No city has probably done as much to swell the ranks of the Duponts and Durands as Washington, owing to the almost complete merger which has there taken place between public and private life. The practice of treating every man in office as the personal acquaintance of everybody who lives in the city, or can raise money enough to get there from any other part of the country, and obliging him to open his house to everybody who walks the streets, has brought attempts at privacy into more or less disrepute, and given everybody a sort of "natural right" to the hospitality of everybody who entertains at all. What makes this all the odder is, that there is no city in which there is so much talk about "etiquette," and so little etiquette which is of the slightest value as a regulalator of social intercourse. Discussions about etiquette and decisions of knotty points of etiquette, in fact, if one might judge from the letters of newspaper correspondents, occupy a large part of the time of all those who are not seriously occupied with politics; but in no capital in the world has etiquette so little power, or is knowledge of it of so little use. In fact, if Washington customs were to spread to New York, the simplest hospitality would rapidly go the way of "New Year's calls."

AMOS BRONSON ALCOTT.

It is often noticed, when the tie between two life-long associates is broken by the death of one of them, that the other shows the effect of the shock from that moment, as if left only half alive—*nec superstes integer*. So close was the intercourse, for many years, between Mr. Alcott and Mr. Emerson—so perfect their mutual love and reverence—so constant their co-operation in the kind of work they did and the influence they exerted—that it was difficult to conceive of Mr. Alcott as living long alone; and it seemed eminently appropriate that part of the remaining interval of his life should be employed in writing his friend's memoir. They were singularly different in temperament, and yet singularly united. They were alike in simplicity and integrity of nature, as well as in their chosen place of residence and in the elevated influence they exercised. In all other respects they were unlike. Mr. Alcott was conspicuously an instance of what may be called the self-made man in literature. Without early advantages, and with no family traditions of culture, he took his place among the most refined though not among the most powerful exponents of the ideal attitude; whereas Mr. Emerson came of what Dr. Holmes called Brahmin blood, had behind him a line of educated clergymen, and had received the best that could be given in the way of training by the New England of his youth. Their temperaments were in many ways different: Emerson was shy and reserved, Alcott was effusive and cordial; Emerson repressed personal adulation, Alcott expanded under it; Emerson found in literature his natural function, Alcott came to it with such difficulty that Lowell wrote of him,

> "In this, as in all things, a lamb among men,
> He goes to sure death when he goes to his pen."

Emerson's style was enriched by varied knowledge, his use of which made one always wish for more. Alcott's reading lay only in one or two directions, and his use of it was sometimes fatiguing. Emerson's most serious poems were prolonged lyrics; Alcott could put no lyric line into his grave and sometimes weighty sonnets. Emerson was thrifty, and a good steward of his own affairs; Alcott always seemed in a stately way penniless, until the successful career of his daughter gave him ampler means. Emerson gave lectures with an air of such gracious humility that every hearer seemed to do part of the thinking; Alcott called his lectures "conversations," and then was made obviously unhappy if his monologue was seriously disturbed by any one else. Emerson's most startling early paradoxes were given with such dignity that those hearers most hilariously disposed were subdued to gravity; Alcott's most thoughtful sentences, at the same period, came with such a flavor of needless whimsicality as to make even the faithful smile.

Yet there was between them a tie as incapable of severance as that which united the Siamese twins. Mr. Emerson found in the once famous Chardon-Street and Bible Conventions no result so interesting as the "gradual but sure ascendancy" of Mr. Alcott's spirit—"in spite," wrote this plain-spoken friend, "of the incredulity and derision with which he is at first received, and in spite, we might add, of his own failures." Mr. Alcott, as has been said, devoted his last years to the delineation of Emerson as the greatest of men. Yet so sincere was this mutual admiration, so noble this love, that it is impossible to speak of it with anything but reverence; and the far wider fame and influence of Emerson made it for Alcott, during his whole life, an immense advantage to have the unfailing support of a friend so eminent.

For it must be remembered that during many years the public was scarcely in the habit of taking Mr. Alcott seriously. It received him, as Emerson said, "with incredulity and derision." His antecedents seemed a little questionable, to begin with. Born in Wolcott, Conn., November 29, 1799, and occupied for many years in the humble vocation of a travelling salesman in Virginia—not to say peddler—he came, in 1828, before the somewhat narrow intellectual circles of Boston in a wholly different light from Emerson, who had every advantage of local prestige. His school, which became celebrated through the 'Record of a School,' by his friend and assistant, Miss Elizabeth P. Peabody (Boston, 1835; 2d ed., 1836), was generally regarded as coming near the edge of absurdity, because of the rather obtrusive reverence paid in it to the off-hand remarks of children six years old, and because of the singular theory of vicarious punishment which sometimes led to the giving of physical pain to teacher instead of pupil. Yet this school undoubtedly anticipated in some respects the views of teaching now recognized; it won the warm approval of James Pierrepont Greaves, the pupil and English interpreter of Pestalozzi; and it led to the establishment of an "Alcott House School" at Ham (Surrey), in England, by Henry G. Wright, afterwards Mr. Alcott's co-laborer in another direction. Mr. Alcott himself visited this school in 1842, and was lionized to his heart's content—which is saying a good deal—among English reformers. Some account of this visit and of the English enterprise will be found in a paper by Mr. Emerson in the *Dial* for October, 1842. Mr. Alcott's first conspicuous social movement was in the very vague direction of the Fruitlands Community, at Harvard, Mass., a scheme which was as much wilder than Brook Farm as Brook Farm was than Stewart's dry-goods shop, and which was amusingly delineated by Miss Louisa Alcott in one of her minor sketches. His first intellectual demonstrations were in the "Orphic Sayings" of the *Dial*, which were regarded at the time as the *reductio ad absurdum* of Transcendentalism. How were people to take a man seriously who wrote, "The popular genesis is historical," and "Love globes, wisdom orbs everything"? These sentences now seem quite harmless, though perhaps a little enigmatical; but they were then held to be the worst shibboleth of that new bugbear, Transcendentalism, and they represented the most unpopular aspect of the *Dial*, while the more plain-spoken essays of Theodore Parker were what sold the numbers, so far as they ever did sell. Then, what Mr. Alcott called conversations, in his earlier days, were such startling improvisations, so full of seemingly studied whim and utter paradox, that those who went to learn remained to smile. There was plenty of thought in them, and much out-of-the-way literary knowledge; but, after all, the theories of race, food, genesis, and what not, left but little impression on the public mind. It awakened some surprise when the first volume of 'Appletons' Cyclopædia' (in 1857) contained a sketch of Alcott, written by Emerson. Thenceforward his claim to recognition stood on a basis a little firmer; but he had up to this time paid the price which a hopelessly ideal temperament must pay before it has established its right to live.

It was fortunate for Mr. Alcott that with this ideal tendency he combined in a high degree the qualities of moral and physical courage which have in all ages been held essential to the true sage. This was hardly tested in the milder and safer reforms, in which he took a certain enjoyment, partly founded on the prominence they gave him. He was unquestionably one of those who like to sit upon a

platform, to be pointed out, *digito monstrari*, and he may have liked to feel that his venerable aspect had the effect of a benediction. But he was equally true to the anti-slavery movement, when that meant the sacrifice of friends, the diminution of his always scanty finances, and even the physical danger involved in mobs. Once at least, in a very conspicuous instance, he proved himself personally brave when many others proved cowards. On the night of the attempted rescue of the fugitive Anthony Burns, in Boston (May 26, 1854), after the door of the United States Court-house, where the slave was imprisoned, had been burst in, the few abolitionists who got inside were met by a much larger body of the Marshal's men, and were forced out again, after one of the deputy marshals had been killed. The crowd outside was amply sufficient to have made its way in and rescued the slave from the United States Marshal, who had but about thirty men and was taken wholly unprepared, as he afterwards admitted; but, unhappily for the assailants, owing to a miscarriage of the notice given at Faneuil Hall, the crowd itself was composed mostly of lookers-on, and not of men who meant business. The invaders being ejected, the Court-house steps were left empty, the crowd forming a semicircle below; while the Marshal's men fell back to the stairway, over which their pistols could be seen pointing into the empty and lighted hall which had just been the scene of conflict. It was a picturesque situation—a moment of truce; everybody waiting to see what would happen next. The next thing that happened was the calm advance from among the crowd of the dignified form of Mr. Alcott, who had just arrived on the scene. Ascending the first step, he paused, and said to one of the ejected assailants—as placidly as if in one of his own "conversations"—"Why are we not within?" The person addressed replied with some indignation, "Because these people will not stand by us." Mr. Alcott returned no answer, but, grasping his cane, ascended the steps, entirely alone, and stood for a moment a conspicuous figure, at the brightly-lighted doorway. A pistol-shot was fired from within, presumably at him, upon which the philosopher, looking quietly round and seeing that he had no followers, and that it would have been throwing away his life to proceed, turned and walked down the steps, with the same measured gait and without the slightest precipitancy of manner, reëntering the crowd which opened to receive him. This anecdote has not before appeared in print, so far as we know, but we have it from a participant in the affair, who declares that under the circumstances neither Socrates nor Plato could have behaved more handsomely.

It is probably true that in the later years of his life Mr. Alcott felt some reaction from the theological radicalism which at one time marked him, and which made him in this direction a source of influence over others. At the first annual meeting of the Free Religious Association in 1868, he reaffirmed his old attitude of the simple humanity of Jesus Christ, and of the essential identity of all forms of the religious sentiment. He said of this position:

> "So fine, so sublime a religion as ours, older than Christ, old as the Godhead, old as the soul, eternal as the heavens, solid as the rock, *is and only is;* nothing else is but that, and it is in us and is us; and nothing is our real selves but that in the breast."

And so identified was he with the whole spirit of that meeting that he said of it, "I have seen many charmed days, and shared sublime hopes; but this, of all days I have yet seen, is the most sublime." But during the later years of his life, though he took part in the very last meeting of the same Association, he seemed to revert more towards the historical Christianity in which his childhood was reared; although it is claimed by some of his intimate friends that his position was not essentially altered from what it was when he was held among the chiefs of liberalism. At any rate, the apparent change led to his taking an active part in various "symposia" held by Mr. Joseph Cook, at which the veteran free-thinker was received with many blandishments, and was introduced to strangers without compunction as "Mr. Alcott, the American Plato."

Mr. Alcott's published volumes were as follows: 'Conversations with Children on the Gospels, conducted and edited by A. B. Alcott,' 2 vols. (Boston: Munroe, 1836-7); 'Spiritual Culture, or Thoughts for the Consideration of Parents and Teachers' (Boston: Dowe, 1841 [this was anonymous, but was attributed to Mr. Alcott by Charles Lane in *Dial* iii, 417]); 'Tablets,' (Boston: Roberts, 1868); 'Concord Days' (Boston: Roberts, 1872); 'Sonnets and Canzonets' (Boston: Roberts, 1882). To these must be added a preliminary sketch of Emerson, printed but not published, and also many contributions to the *Dial* (1840–44), the *Radical*, and other magazines. In the *Atlantic Monthly* (ix, 443) he wrote one of the best sketches yet made of Thoreau, under the title "The Forester." But he was less disposed to pride himself upon his books than upon his chosen mode of influence, the conversation; and it was through this, rather than by anything placed in the permanent record of print, that his influence was exerted. He wrote in the *Dial*, in 1842, "We must come to the simplest intercourse—to Conversation and the Epistle. These are most potent agencies—the reformers of the world" (ii, 431). And he might well feel it a tribute to his real power in this chosen form of propagandism, that, after his audiences in the Eastern States had grown less numerous and less attentive, he should have found a wide circle scattered through different Western cities, who opened parlors and pulpits to him for an annual tour of conversation and discourse, sending him back each year happy, refreshed, and—wonder of all wonders!—with money in his purse.

Mr. Alcott contributed even less than Emerson to anything that can be called systematic thought; he was indeed more remote than Emerson from anything to be called a system. Yet the good that he did was not merely fragmentary and sporadic; it might rather be called, using one of his own high-sounding adjectives, atmospheric; it lay in the atmosphere of the man, his benign face, his pure life, his only too willing acceptance of everything that looked like original thought in others. More than all, it lay in the persistent moral activity that could outlive what Emerson called his "failure," could outgrow the censure of his critics, outgrow even his earlier self. In some respects he always remained the same, even to his weaknesses; there was always a certain air of high-souled attitudinizing; he still seemed at times what some one long since called him, "an innocent charlatan." Even his latest achievement, the "Concord Summer School of Philosophy," had always an indefinable air of posing for something that it was not. It undoubtedly fulfilled Mr. Alcott's most delicious visions to find himself the centre of an admiring group of young disciples, having the Assabet River for an Ilissus and the Concord elms for the historic plane-trees; but, after all, the institution, like its name, was a little incongruous; there was plenty of summer, something of philosophy, and very little school. Probably most of those who were assembled came with the desire to place themselves in contact with Mr. Alcott; and this was the highest compliment they could pay him. They instinctively felt, as all may well feel, that the essential fidelity of the man to great abstract principles made him a living exponent, not merely of the temporary school of Transcendentalism, but of the whole ideal attitude. Now that he has passed away, all his little vanities, if he had them—all his oracular way of peering into the dark and winning but little out of it—these defects, if they were defects, disappear in the sweetness and dignity of a life so prolonged and so honorable. There lives no man who ever found in Mr. Alcott an enemy; there exists no man who ever went to him for counsel and found him unsympathetic or impatient; while there are many men who, at the forming period of their intellectual existence, have derived from him a life-long impetus towards noble aims.

BULGARIA.—II.

HEIDELBERG, February 9, 1888.

THE assassination of the well-intentioned Emperor Alexander II. forms an important epoch in Bulgarian history. The Prince lost his kind and faithful protector, Bulgaria a well-wisher, and when Prince Alexander travelled to St. Petersburg to be present at his uncle's funeral, he became exposed to a number of subtle and dangerous influences. The Ring, having lost its confidence of spoiling the Bulgarians with the consent of their present representatives, did their best to bring about a change in the Constitution. They knew that, thanks to the venality of the Opposition leaders and to the unreasonableness of their followers, the Prince well-nigh despaired of furthering the development of his country through the existing ultra-democratic institutions. They hoped to get him into their hands, if he established his authority more firmly, and they set to work upon him and Alexander III., and the Russian Government in order to encourage the idea of suspending the Bulgarian Constitution. And as soon as the Prince had obtained from his people (July 13, 1881) full powers for organizing the country, we see the railway concession coming up again for discussion.

This time the Ring had summoned a formidable array of allies. Besides the Minister of Public Instruction, a native of Bohemia, only two Bulgarian Ministers attended the meeting of the Cabinet on July 30, 1881, whereas Russia was represented by M. Hitrovo, by Lieut.-Col. Remlingen (at the head of the Home Office and the Board of Public Works), by M. Kopitkin, and by a Gen. Struve, who had just arrived from St. Petersburg and gave himself out as being charged by the Imperial Government to claim the right of constructing a line from Rustchuk to Sofia. Struve suggested that the amount to be spent in preparatory labors should be left to him, but Messrs. Vulkovitch and Zhelaskovitch insisted upon fixing the amount at 300,000 francs, and maintained that the concession, subject to the consent of the Chamber, should be ultimately bestowed by public competition. If Gen. Struve should not obtain it, the 300,000 francs were to be refunded to him either by the contractor or by Government. Col. Remlingen was charged officially to notify Gen. Struve of this decision. But what did M. Remlingen do? He wrote to the General that the Government accorded him the exclusive privilege of studying the line, having his expenses paid, and submitting pro-

posals for the construction of the railway. This shameful manœuvre was brought to light and frustrated, and when Col. Remlingen tried to prevent a Frenchman, Guyon, and a Bulgarian of the name of Adyenot from studying the line, the Prince interfered.

At this period the Prince and his Bulgarian Ministers began to doubt Gen. Struve's assertions as to the importance attached by the Russian Government to the construction of a "strategical" line. They finally prevailed upon M. Hitrovo to go to St. Petersburg and obtain from his Government either an advance of funds or the guarantee of a loan destined to the construction of the line. The Russian Cabinet met for the purpose, and refused both requests. At the same time Prince Alexander received permission from the Emperor to discharge Col. Remlingen, and to confer his post on one of the most able and trustworthy Bulgarians, on M. Natchevitch.

The Ring was driven to change tactics. M. Hitrovo leagued himself with the Extreme Left, whose press was showering abuse on the Prince. He organized armed bands and sent them across the Bosnian frontier to provoke an insurrection. Austria expressed its dissatisfaction in very clear terms, and the Prince felt exasperated at having to bear the responsibility for such a breach of international law. Not satisfied with this, M. Hitrovo tried to provoke a military pronunciamiento against the Prince. He issued a proclamation to all Russians serving in the Bulgarian army, notifying them that, he being the Emperor's sole representative, they need not obey any orders except those proceeding from him. The notice fell flat, as the Prince was popular among the officers, and the Russian Government found itself in honor bound to recall its Consul-General Hitrovo, and the Minister of War, Kryloff. To be sure, Prince Alexander had been obliged to proceed to Russia himself (April 27, 1882) in order to obtain their recall, and he was obliged now to accept Gen. Alexander Kaulbars as War Minister, and Gen. Soboleff as Minister of the Interior. The latter, a member of the Ring, was indefatigable in his efforts to obtain a railway concession for his friends, and both the new ministers flagrantly transgressed the instructions which Emperor Alexander III. had given them in his cousin's presence. He had told them to support the Prince with all their might in his efforts to reorganize Bulgaria, and he had ordered them to make common cause with the so-called Conservative party, which ought more justly to be denominated the Moderate Liberal party.

The two generals adopted a haughty and overbearing tone towards the Prince and his advisers; they allied themselves with the Opposition, and as soon as they discovered that their Bulgarian colleagues Natchevitch, Vulkovitch, and Greshoff were determined not to sacrifice their country's interests to a foreign ring, they founded a newspaper, the *Balkan*, out of Government funds, for the purpose of injuring and calumniating the Ministry. The Russian paper, *Novoye Vremya*, zealously joined in this abuse; and as soon as voices were raised in the Russian press in favor of Bulgaria, the official censors stepped in and silenced the Ring's adversaries. The two generals had within a short time acquired the epithet, *zhelezno-dorozhnie, i. e.*, "railroaders," so sharp was the insight of the people into the leading motives of their new ministers' policy. An honest man, M. Arsenieff, happening to be in charge of the diplomatic agency at Sofia, the generals annoyed him to such a degree that he did not rest till he was transferred to Berlin. Naturally, it never suited these intriguers that truthful reports on Bulgarian events should reach Baron Giers and his master.

The Sobranye which met on December 22, 1882, and in which the Conservatives had a majority, showed fight. It decided not to discuss the railway question until the Department of Public Works had been transferred from Gen. Soboleff to a Bulgarian. When M. Natchevitch had been charged with this post, the Assembly granted 300,000 francs for tracing the line, but only on condition of a public competition for the concession. The Russians did not accept their defeat; they were wily enough to conjure up an episode—a quarrel between the Synod and the Archbishop of Sofia—which led to the resignation of their Bulgarian colleagues. The Prince unhappily agreed to their leaving office, as he did not feel equal to an open rupture with Russia, which was inevitable if the two generals had been requested to give way. On taking leave, the three Ministers handed a memorandum to the Prince, in which the situation was clearly described and the future foretold. They pointed out that if he allowed the Russian generals to have their way, the patience of the country would be soon exhausted, and that if he opposed them, Russia would throw him overboard. It must be supposed that Prince Alexander was not unaware of this dangerous dilemma, but that, owing to the new Emperor's promise to continue his father's policy towards him and Bulgaria, he relied on setting matters straight at Moscow, where he was to assist at the coronation. It was merely a question how to tide over the period from February to May, and he saw no other way than by letting the Russians do as they pleased. He did make one attempt, to be sure, to denounce the two generals to the Czar and his Minister of Foreign Affairs, by despatching M. Stoiloff to St. Petersburg as diplomatic agent. But the Ring took care to keep all the doors closed at which M. Stoiloff knocked, and he had finally to return home without having seen either the Czar or M. de Giers.

While the Prince was travelling to Moscow via Constantinople and Darmstadt, the Bulgarian Assembly despatched its President and five members to St. Petersburg to lay the people's grievances before the Czar. The Ring was equal to the occasion. Soboleff himself was made to start from Sofia with a counter-deputation, and, the Czar refusing to receive Archbishop Simeon except in Soboleff's presence, the opportunity for confidential disclosures was lost. At last the Prince found himself in the Emperor's presence, and his earnest representations and solicitation produced an impression both on the Czar and on M. de Giers. He was promised the recall of Soboleff and Kaulbars, and the return to Sofia of Gen. Ernroth, who had earned such an excellent reputation there, and who told M. de Giers openly that he was opposed to all ideas of Russian railway enterprises in Bulgaria. Hardly, however, had the Prince turned his back on Russia, than he was officially informed of Ernroth's appointment being cancelled, and of M. Yonin's being appointed Consul-General at Sofia. He hurried home and arrived just in time to prevent the execution of Soboleff's latest design. The Ring had settled with the banker, Günzburg, that he should advance a loan of 75,000,000 francs for Bulgarian railways. To guarantee the interest on this loan, the cash in the Bulgarian exchequer, amounting to 15,000,000 francs, was to be despatched to St. Petersburg and deposited there. Though the Prince arrived in time to frustrate this plan, he was too late to prevent M. Barmoff from concluding an arrangement by which funds were procured for the future revolt. The principality owed Russia 26,000,000 francs for the military occupation during and after the war. The Czar generously decided that this money should not be transmitted to Russia, but should be exclusively spent for the good of Bulgaria. Sobeleff, however, signed an arrangement with the unprincipled Director of the Bulgarian Financial Department, to the effect that, in payment of the indemnity, a yearly sum of 1,600,000 francs should be placed at the disposal of the Russian Consulate-General. From this fund, according to our author, 1,500,000 francs were taken for the purpose of corrupting the officers, soldiers, and cadets, who kidnapped the Prince on August 21, 1886. There is a discrepancy between this statement, made on the authority of Major Gruyeff, the chief conspirator, and the pretty well-authenticated declaration of the Russian Ambassador in Turkey, that they had rid themselves of Prince Alexander at the cost of 300,000 francs. But it is easy to reconcile both statements, if we suppose 1,500,000 francs to have been withdrawn from the fund by M. Bogdanoff, the acting Agent, and by Col. Sakharoff, the military attaché, of which sum 300,000 francs were divided among the Bulgarians, while the rest was kept by the Russian conspirators.

It may be imagined that, flushed with this triumph over the Prince and the Bulgarians, the insolence of the two generals became insupportable. At M. Yonin's instigation, Gen. A. Kaulbars assembled the Russian officers in the beginning of September, 1883, at the camp of Kniazhevo, and told them that the Prince was Russia's enemy; that he had resolved to replace the Russian officers with Germans. Consequently, it became necessary that he should be deposed. To the General's surprise, he met with little response; the majority of the officers declared that, the Czar having ordered them to swear an oath of fidelity to Prince Alexander, he alone could discharge them from their obligation. They hastened to inform the Prince of Kaulbars's treachery; he showed himself at the camp, and, after an enthusiastic reception, was escorted home by the whole body of troops, 10,000 men, under command of their non-commissioned officers. Emboldened by this loyal demonstration, the Prince upbraided the generals, and, receiving an insolent answer, he bade them leave the palace, and told them that they had ceased to be his Ministers. The next day M. Yonin called and informed the Prince that, according to orders just received from St. Petersburg, the generals would remain and retain office. In this exasperating state of things, the Conservatives formed the plan of gaining over the Opposition by offering to make a coalition Ministry, and to accept the reëstablishment of the Tirnovo Constitution as a common programme. The Prince signified his approval, and when the new Assembly was opened on September 19, the generals were astounded to hear from M. Zankoff's own lips that all parties had coalesced for the purpose of saving Bulgaria. Soboleff and Kaulbars tried in vain to obtain M. Yonin's assent to the seizure and despatch to Siberia of all the leading politicians, and, not succeeding in this, they resigned office and left the country.

The Ring had in the meantime succeeded in persuading the three principal powers in Russia, the Czar, the military party, and the Panslavist leaders, that an independent Bulgaria was not reconcilable with Russian interests and Slavophil policy. It was resolved to upset the Prince's throne. Col. Nikolai Kaulbars was charged with the secret mission of sending home all Russian officers who had shown more obedience to Prince Alexander than to Gens. Soboleff and A. Kaulbars. It was settled that the Russians serving in the Bulgarian

Army should in future not remain longer than three years in the country, so as to run less danger of becoming attached to the Prince and people, and of preferring Bulgarian liberty to Russian oppression. Zankoff was prevailed upon to oust his Conservative colleagues from the Ministry, but soon afterwards the Russians tossed him over, and brought Karaveloff into power, who had promised M. Koyander to reserve the Vakarel-Tzaribrod line for Russian contractors. A firm of the name of Gubonin, belonging to the Ring, whose representative, a worthless fellow of the name of Zavatchi, was M. Koyander's guest, felt sure of obtaining the concession, but a Bulgarian company, formed at the last instant by a certain Grosseff, underbid the foreigners, and was charged with the construction of the line. The Russian Consul-General at once abandoned Karaveloff, and took up Zankoff, on condition of his openly advocating the dethronement of Prince Alexander. Partly in the hope of obtaining supreme authority after that event, partly with the intention of wreaking vengeance on the man whose influence with the Czar had brought about the dismissal of so many high functionaries who had zealously toiled for the Ring, the whole set applied themselves to the task of undermining his throne. At St. Petersburg the report was spread that Prince Alexander was secretly leagued with Austria and Germany for the purpose of destroying Russia's preponderance in the Balkan Peninsula, and that he had thwarted all attempts to construct such lines as might be useful to Russia in case of war. Among the Panslavists he was denounced as an enemy of the orthodox faith and Slav propaganda. In Bulgaria he was represented as in disgrace with the Czar, and as the cause of the Czar's displeasure with the Bulgarians.

With the object of effecting this riddance, the rebellion of Eastern Rumelia against the Sultan was prepared by Col. Tchitchakoff, Russian military attaché at Philippopolis. Finding that this failed to effect his overthrow, Servia was either encouraged, or at least not discouraged from making war upon Bulgaria, from which country Russia at once recalled all her officers. To everybody's surprise, the Bulgarian army accomplished wonders under their ruler's able leadership, and so, as a last stratagem, the nocturnal surprise of the Prince was resorted to, and his forcible abduction.

The author believes, or pretends to believe, that it never could have been the deliberate aim of Russian policy to convert Bulgarian gratitude and reverence into hatred, and to overthrow a prince who, up to the very last, recognized Russia's claims to the gratitude of Bulgaria, and acknowledged that he owed his crown and authority to the Czar. He considers the Czar to have been deceived by the calumnies of the Ring, which wished to give the character of national vengeance to its acts of private revenge.

Prince Bismarck has just been telling us, in his great speech of February 6, that Russia has no need whatever of adopting further "defensive" measures on her western frontier, since nobody dreams of attacking her. To-day's papers state, on the other hand, that at a military council presided over by Generals Vannovski and Obrutcheff, it has been decided to go on carrying out all the movements of troops previously fixed upon. According to our author, the latter officer is one of the most important members of the Ring. Are we to infer that the contractors, foiled in Bulgaria, are trying to bring about a war for the purpose of lucre, and have persuaded the Czar that the European Peace League intends to attack him, in order to collect vast armies, huge storers of electricity, on the frontiers? At all events, we see that an individual cannot safely be trusted with the sole responsibility for the fate of one hundred millions of souls. If a government can be led into a series of false moves by a reckless set of speculators, how much more easily can it succumb to the combined influences of religious fanaticism, military pride and ambition, and, above all, of a general dissatisfaction with the internal condition of the country, which are now rampant in Russia!

THEODOR VON BUNSEN.

LANDOR AND ITALY.

GENOA, February 11, 1888.

PERHAPS here in Genoa, instead of thinking of English literature, I ought to be meditating on Columbus and the discovery of America, or on the Bank of St. George and the Italian commerce of the Levant. But then, I am staying at the Hôtel de la Ville, where Lady Blessington once lived and where Byron often visited her; I have seen on the corner of the Place de la Bourse the little tablet which marks the deathplace of Daniel O'Connell, and I have just come from Albaro and from visiting the villas once inhabited by Byron, Mrs. Shelley, Leigh Hunt, Dickens, and Landor. With leisure and opportunity, reading becomes as desultory, and runs in as strange grooves, as does conversation in a party of pleasant people. When I was ill at Pisa last spring, I saw every day the house of Byron on one side the Arno, and that of Shelley on the other; I followed them in their walks and drives, and was induced not only to visit many other places where they had lived or stayed, but to reread most of their poems, their letters, and their lives, as well as much of and about their contemporaries. In the Life of Lady Blessington were some charming letters both from Landor and from Dickens, which as of necessity compelled the perusal of their biographies as written by John Forster.

After all, the pleasantest impression of Landor, except that derived directly from his letters, and especially the glimpses of himself in his 'Imaginary Conversations,' comes from his portrait—one hesitates to call it an exaggerated one—drawn by Dickens in 'Bleak House.' In Mr. Boythorn we find all the pleasantest traits of Landor's character, with just hint enough at the unpleasant parts of it to enable us to see him at his best, as he shows himself in his letters. His intellectual vigor, as well as his violence and his coarseness, is displayed everywhere in his works. The qualities and defects of Landor's writings could scarcely be judged more truly, and certainly not treated more delicately, than by Mr. Lowell in the February number of the *Century;* but I doubt whether the 'Imaginary Conversations' will ever be much read or admired except by those who have lived or who are living in Landor's time, either in reality or in books. They are entirely too personal, too full of the author's own life and character, too restricted to the ideas and events of his time. After so many revolutions in Spain it is not easy to recall the details of the Spanish war in which Landor took part as a volunteer; nor the sequence of constitutional and unconstitutional acts during the reign of Ferdinand VII.; nor all the shades of difference in the characters of the last Grand Dukes of Tuscany. Nor can we now become very enthusiastic over the generals and dictators who founded the South American republics. Although Landor fondly and vainly imagined that he had never made one of his characters utter a word such as the man would not himself have used, all that he really did was to write dialogue between Landor himself and a man of wood or straw, whom he tried to make different from himself, but who still resembled him at least as much as his own brother, whose works he said were sometimes taken for his own. One enjoys them more with the help of Landor's Letters and his Biography.

For reasons of my own, I have been, for the last year, living in the Italy of the first third of this century, and have seldom been out of the Italian society of that time, except to make the acquaintance of the English and French who came here then, as they do now, very often leading an exclusive and insular life in the great towns. Here I have often had occasion to meet and hear of Landor, and have been entertained and amused, and even at times indignant, at his prejudices, his enthusiasms, and especially at what seemed to me his incapacity to understand the character of the people among whom he moved. Even when he is most violent and wrong-headed, he at times expresses himself with so much humor—which is not *always* coarse or obscene—as to disarm resentment.

Fiesole and Florence seem more particularly associated with Landor's name, but curious glimpses of him may be caught during the years when he was at Como, Pistoja, and Pisa. He saw very strange goings on between Queen Caroline and her low-born lover, when idling in his boat under the summer moon,

> "Where loveliest of all lakes the Lario sleeps
> Under the walls of Como";

and was much disturbed when an agent came out from England to take his testimony. From here, too, he wrote, "A scoundrel, one Monti, wrote a most violent invective, in the form of a Sonnet, against England."

At Pisa he refused to meet Shelley, who, he says later, "had got into a scrape about me with Byron," because "his conduct towards his first wife had made me distrustful of him," not thinking for a moment of any deficiencies in his own marital life. With Byron, who was also at Pisa, he was, of course, at loggerheads. Miss Clairmont, in giving an account of the odd English in Pisa, mentions "Walter Savage Landor, who will not see a single English person; says he is glad the country produces people of worth, but he will have nothing to do with them." From Pisa, too, in a letter to Southey, he writes one of his odd criticisms of Italian poets: "Some time or other I propose to finish Dante, which I began about eleven years ago, but wanted perseverance; a twentieth or thirtieth part of what I read was excellent. You cannot say the same of Ariosto. He is a carnival poet, but he is never very bad."

Landor was much influenced by his surroundings, and frequently a passage in the 'Imaginary Conversations' not only reflects the mood in which he sat down to write, but tells of something which he had just seen or heard, or records a recollection which had come back to him. Take, for example, the Ninth Conversation of volume i between the Marchese Pallavicini and Landor himself, the scene of which is laid on the steps of the very villa which I saw just now at Albaro. It is to lead up to an exposure of the brutality of an English general during the British occupation of Genoa — an exposure which Landor naïvely thinks far more scathing and effective than a speech in Parliament. The talk, however, is chiefly about Italian architecture, trees, gardens; one particular tree on the lake of Como for which Landor would have given millions rather than have it cut down; the lack of the appreciation of the beautiful shown by modern Italians, their general bad manners, dirt, and

uncleanliness, both in country and town. Or take the Twelfth Conversation between Peter Leopold and the President Dupaty, with its discussion of Italian and especially of Tuscan character, running on into a rambling talk about miracles, religion, and superstition. Another example is the Conversation between Cavaliere Puntonichino and Mr. Denis Eusebius Talcranagh, in which the author tells the story in great detail of his petty quarrel with an English secretary of legation at Florence, full of abuse of Florence, of English, and especially of diplomatists.

Indeed, one of the great charms of the 'Conversations' is their unexpectedness and want of visible sequence; one never knows whither the writer's quickly changing moods will take him, or what surprises are not in store for the reader. In the long dialogue—if such it can be called—between the Duc de Richelieu, Sir Fire Coats, and Lady Glengrin, which begins in Genoa, is continued on board ship, and ends in Dublin, we have a long story about Tom Paine; the ill effects produced by his 'Age of Reason' on the life of an English country schoolmaster; long interviews with Paine at Paris, during and after the Revolution; the character of Napoleon; scenes of clerical and country life in mid-England, with the whole of a novel worthy of Fielding condensed into a few pages; an Irishman's visit to Rome and the Pope; life and manners in Ireland, and a discussion of the Irish question. In "Landor, English Visitor and Florentine Visitor," we find a picture of the life and character of the Grand Duke Ferdinand; a talk on Italian manners and customs; abuse of England, and especially of English Cabinet-government; curious criticisms on Italian literature and art; verses in praise of Shelley, Keats, and Burns; a reparation to Byron and Shelley; abuse of the *Edinburgh* and *Quarterly Reviews;* a skit at Wordsworth; and a lament at the contempt shown for art by all English sovereigns since Charles I.

The apologies to the *manes* of Shelley and Byron seemed necessary to Landor in the revulsion of feeling which came upon him after their untimely deaths; and they occur more than once. To Shelley, who was one of the earliest and warmest admirers of his "Gebir," he had been personally insulting; and Byron he had unfairly and spitefully attacked and criticised without mentioning his name, not only in the dialogue between Bishop Burnet and Humphrey Hardcastle, where Byron was represented by George Nelly, and Southey (in the blindness of Landor's admiration) stood for Milton, but also in an absurd, petty, and even ignorant way, in the Conversation between the Abbé Delille and Walter Landor, which contains some remarks on French and Italian poets that, if not just judgments, are at least clever and original.

When Landor leaves the domain of what he has himself witnessed and experienced, he becomes wild, absurd, and too often trivial. The Conversations between ancient Greeks and Romans should be excepted, because of the fitness and propriety of these the judgment of the reader must be guided by a great familiarity with the classics, which Landor had, and by a large experience of humanity, in which he was notably deficient. What I particularly refer to are the Conversations the scene of which is laid in Russia, Poland, or the East, on which his authorities were imperfect, and the spirit of which he by his nature could not understand.

Dialogues have been a favorite device of literary men since the times of Plato and Lucian; but it is a curious coincidence that the appearance of the first volumes of the 'Imaginary Conversations' should have been so nearly contemporaneous with that of the 'Operette Morali' of Leopardi. Landor's first volume, if my memory serves me right, came out in 1824, Leopardi's book in 1826, but his dialogues had all previously appeared in periodicals either in Milan or Florence. The inspiration, the leading motives, of the two books are very dissimilar, but I can never read one without thinking of the other. E. S.

Correspondence.

A CORRECTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the article headed "The Civil Service as a Profession," published in the current number of your journal, you say:

"Therefore, let the candidate observe carefully whether he has passed a 'general' or a 'special' examination, for if the latter, his chances of appointment are slight. In 'special' examinations (as for examiners in the Pension Office), the entire eligible list is sent to the appointing officer, and the man at the foot is as likely to be appointed as the one at the head."

Will you permit me to say that upon this subject you have been singularly misinformed? The whole list of eligibles is not certified as stated by you. It is true that formerly the whole list was certified whenever a requisition was made for persons eligible to the position of special pension examiner, but within a few months after I became one of the Civil-Service Commissioners an order was made by the Commission that only the usual number of names—at that time four—should be certified in response to such a requisition. The practice of certifying the whole list of special-pension-examiner eligibles was a bad one, and would probably never have been deemed necessary to the efficiency of the pension service if the appointment of the 150 special pension examiners appointed in 1884 had not been authorized at the commencement of the very exciting Presidential campaign of that year. It is also true that formerly the whole list of persons eligible to places in the Department of State was certified, but under the new rules such a certification cannot now be made. Only three names from any list of eligibles—the three at the head—can be certified to any department. In short, in no examination for admission to the classified civil service is the whole list of eligibles now certified to any appointing officer.

I have probably said enough to convince you that the objections made by you to the manner in which the Civil-Service Act is being executed are without foundation in fact.

I have written this, for your information, with a hasty pen; but the pen, though hasty, is an accurate one.

In conclusion, I am constrained to say that I deprecate your use of the doubting word "if" in the sentence: "If the Civil-Service Act continues to be maintained," etc. That act will continue to be maintained. In the best interests of the Government it must be maintained; and all that is necessary to assure its maintenance by general consent—no, by general demand—is the enlightenment of the people concerning its operations, and the extension of the system of appointments which has been established by it within what is known as the classified service, to every part of the executive civil service of the United States.

Very respectfully, John H. Oberly.

United States Civil-Service Commission,
Washington, D. C., March 4, 1888.

PENAL EXPATRIATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Perhaps the most questionable feature of a law which itself has proved to be of questionable utility is the paragraph of the revised anti-socialistic bill framed by the German Government and recently presented to the German Parliament for enactment, conferring fuller and more arbitrary power upon the police to banish Socialists and all such persons, subjects as well as aliens, as may entertain and express opinions esteemed dangerous to society and subversive of the empire. The intimacy of modern international intercourse and the comity of civilized States would seem to demand that every nation should deal with its criminal classes within its own borders. The right of any State to banish its objectionable citizens or subjects implies the right to impose upon other States a burden which it confesses itself incapable or unwilling to bear, and thus to use them as penal colonies. If Germany should decide to ship her Socialists to Camerun or to any other territory under her own jurisdiction, no other government would think of protesting against such a measure, however inhuman it might be. Deportation of this kind is solely a matter of internal policy; it may be morally execrable and, from an industrial point of view, suicidal, but it concerns only the nation which practises it, and her colonies which suffer from it. But Germany has no better right to send worthless and hurtful portions of her populations to America, as she is constantly doing, than America has to import into Germany shiploads of rattlesnakes and potato-bugs. The fact that many of the persons thus expatriated were not as wicked as they were assumed to be, and have often become useful citizens of freer countries, does not affect, in the slightest degree, the principle involved.

In the jealous and turbulent democracies of ancient Greece, ostracism was not a mark of infamy, but a badge of honorable distinction; and the same may be said of the exile to which the European revolutionists of 1848 were condemned. Indeed, this holds true, in the main, of all banishment for political or religious opinions. Prussia owes much of her industrial wealth and prosperity to the enlightened policy which in 1685, gave an asylum to the Huguenots banished by the revocation of the Edict of Nantes, and in 1731 and 1732 welcomed the Salzburg Emigrants, victims of the bigotry of the Archbishop Leopold Anton, Count of Firmian. These two events may be regarded as two most important upward movements in the rise of Prussia to her present position of undisputed political ascendency over France and Austria.

Nowadays, however, nations do not, as a rule, send their foremost men into exile. If they happen to have an Aristides or a Themistocles, a Cimon or a Coriolanus, they usually prize and try to profit by the rare possession. They endure with patience even the bunkum of their blatherskites and demagogues instead of putting them over the boundaries as the Athenians did the blatant Hyperbolus. So far from banishing the most intelligent and industrious members of the community on account of theological or ecclesiastical differences, they tolerate such nuisances as walking delegates and professional strike-organizers. There is no doubt that the great majority of those who are now expatriated by European governments are persons who "leave their country for their country's good," and seldom become a boon to the lands in which they take up their abode.

But besides these semi-political refugees, of whom Herr Most and the Chicago Anarchists

are fair specimens, and in the practical application of whose crude theories error leads invariably to crime, thousands of paupers, imbeciles, vagabonds, confirmed invalids without any means of support, incorrigible offenders, and other vicious characters are landed annually on the shores of the United States. Only a few days ago (on the twelfth of February) the Bavarian police in Munich shipped a gang of this sort to New York *via* Bremen. One of them, Carl Fensterwalder, an old jail-bird, confesses that he was permitted to choose between five years' hard labor in the penitentiary (*Zuchthaus*) and emigration to the United States, and naturally preferred the latter alternative, as affording him a fresh and freer field for the peculiar kind of activity for which he had become notorious. Another, Joseph Rietberger by name, was a sickly and semi-idiotic pauper, who just came out of the hospital, and had hitherto passed the greater part of his life in the poorhouse. These two individuals may be taken as representatives of the lot. Each was furnished with a new suit of clothes, and sent under police supervision to Bremen, and thence, in the steerage, to New York, where they were to be paid twenty dollars apiece by the German Consul and forwarded by him to Omaha and other places in the West. Especial care seems to have been taken to distribute them as widely as possible over the country, no two of them having the same destination. This was done in order to avoid exciting suspicion, and not from any merciful desire to lessen the burden of pauperism and crime for us, by letting many American cities bear it, instead of imposing it upon a single community. The Bavarian police magistrate did not bid farewell to his erring and unfortunate countrymen who had had the high privilege of prospective American citizenship so suddenly thrust upon them, without a parting word of advice, and that was, "not to let the United States Consul in Munich know anything of the arrangement, lest he should succeed in frustrating it." It is to be hoped that the Collector of the port in New York, to whom a telegram has been sent, will detect this international fraud and reship the precious cargo to the fatherland. If, unfortunately, the speciousness of new clothes should enable the rapscallions to escape his vigilance, it is certainly desirable that they should be sent westward with all speed, before a reporter of the New York *Tribune* gets hold of them and urges them to apply for a pension as the easiest and quickest way of relieving their distress.

This incident furnishes a good example of what is constantly going on in all parts of Germany. Every two or three weeks the police officers have a so-called *razzia*, *i. e.*, they swoop down on the haunts of criminals, vagrants, and other vicious or worthless persons in different wards of the city and bring them up before the police court. Many are sent to their own homes or native towns, if it is possible to ascertain where they belong, but the worst characters are regarded as only fit to swell the population of the great republic over the sea.

There is also another source from which a vast stream of useless and injurious immigration is poured into the United States every year. Any one who has lived a long time in Germany and become intimately acquainted with the history of many families belonging to the middle and upper classes, will be surprised to discover how very large a number of them have prodigal sons in our "far country." After every other effort to reform the scapegraces has failed, they are sent to America to shift for themselves. In some instances the experiment proves successful; a new environment develops in them better qualities, and they grow into decent and worthy members of society. In most cases, however, they are black sheep dyed in the wool with depravity, which nothing can wash out. It would be easy, too, to make a long list of scions of nobility who are leading the lives of scalawags in our large cities. In view of these facts, it is high time that greater diligence should be used in warding off this floatage of morally and socially wrecked humanity, which is borne to us on every tide of foreign immigration. V.

MUNICH, February 16, 1888.

RAILROAD RATES FIXED BY LAW IN MISSOURI.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue No. 1183, in an article headed "The Iowa Railroads," you use the following language:

"The proposal to fix rates on freight by an act of the Legislature is, we believe, something entirely new, going beyond anything hitherto proposed in any country in the matter of regulation of railroad property. The utmost that other civilized States have done is to create commissions or boards to consider, through actual judicial investigation, what 'reasonable maximum rates' are. No Legislature has, we believe, thus far taken this task on itself."

In the year 1875 the Legislature of the State of Missouri passed an act classifying railroads and regulating passenger rates, and classifying freight and regulating freight rates. By this act all freight transported upon any railroad or part of railroad in the State was divided into "four general classes," designated "as first, second, third, and fourth classes," and "seven special classes," designated "as class D, E, F, G, H, I, and J." The act then establishes "maximum rates" on each class of freight. These "maximum rates" are based on distance, so much "for the first twenty-five miles," so much additional for "the second twenty-five miles," and so much additional for "each additional twenty-five miles or fractional part thereof" over or under "thirteen miles."

For example: "Class E shall comprise flour in lots of fifty barrels or more, and lime in lots of twenty-four barrels or more." The rate of freight on class E is "not exceeding twelve cents per barrel for the first twenty-five miles, and not exceeding eight cents per barrel for the second twenty-five miles, and not exceeding four cents per barrel for each additional twenty-five miles, or fractional part thereof, unless the fraction be less than thirteen miles, in which case the rate shall not exceed two cents per barrel for said fractional part, unless the whole distance be over two hundred miles, when no greater rate than one cent per barrel shall be charged for each additional twenty-five miles over said two hundred miles."

The penalty for a violation of these provisions is "a fine of not exceeding two hundred dollars for each and every offence," to be paid by any agent or officer of the road who shall in any way violate or attempt to violate the law; and the person paying the overcharges can recover "three times the amount taken or received from him in excess of the rates prescribed by" the law. By the same act a board of three railroad commissioners is established, and they are given power to reduce the rates fixed by law "whenever, in their judgment, it can be equitably done." Substantially the same penalty is affixed to a violation, by overcharge, of the rates established by the commissioners as to a violation of the rates fixed by law.

These provisions are still a part of the law of the State of Missouri.

By section 14 of article 12 of the State Constitution of 1875, it is provided that "the General Assembly shall pass laws to correct abuses and prevent unjust discrimination and extortion in the rates of freight and passenger tariffs on the different railroads in this State; and shall, from time to time, pass laws establishing reasonable maximum rates of charges for the transportation of passengers and freight on said railroads, and enforce all such laws by adequate penalties."

The proposed legislation in Iowa would, therefore, seem to be not without precedent.

Yours truly, A. R. STROTHER.

KANSAS CITY, MO., March 3, 1888.

THE IMPORTATION OF LEAD.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The enclosed communication is clipped from the Chicago *Mining Review* of February 16:

"I desire to call attention to serious menace to the lead-mining and smelting interests of the United States, arising from the enormous increase of importations of lead ores from the Republic of Mexico *which come in without paying tariff duties*. Either through the imperfections of existing laws or through the wrongful administration of the laws, Mexican ores containing lead and silver are classified by the Custom-house authorities at Paso del Norte, and presumably at other places of entry, as *silver ores*, and are admitted free of duty when the silver content of the ore, reckoned at $1.29 per ounce, exceeds in value the lead content of the ore at forty cents per unit. . . .

"If free trade in Mexican ores is allowed to continue and grow at its present rate, we can foresee irreparable injury and speedy destruction to lead mining and smelting in the United States. The situation demands prompt and vigorous action on the part of the owners of lead-producing mines, in securing either necessary legislation or the proper enforcement of the laws."

Granting the figures—or doubling them, for that matter—it still remains true that the imposition of any prohibitory tax on these ores merely results in lessening the amount of freight carried by United States railroads, and in a diminution in the smelting industry of the Rocky Mountain region. The prices now ruling are such as to yield only the same average profit on Mexican ores as on those mined in the United States to the smelting concerns treating them.

It is curious to note, too, that coincidently with this "enormous increase" of imported lead ores, the price of lead has materially risen. With the demand for lead (in the ore) at all our smelting works, to enable them to smelt the "lean" ores which prevail in this region, and for which the works pay, quite irrespective of its "nationality," it is not easy to foresee the "irreparable injury and speedy destruction to lead mining and smelting in the United States" predicted in the *Review*. R. C.

GOLDEN, COL., February 22, 1888.

DENOMINATIONAL BLENDING.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your article on "The Blending of Denominations" (*Nation*, No. 1183) interested me very much. I think, however, that one may fairly distinguish between the development of the "denominational instinct" and the "strengthening of sectarian prejudices." The history of American Christianity during the last fifty years presents far more examples of the former process than of the latter. Indeed, I know of but one important Protestant body which can properly be said to be, as a whole, intensely sectarian. Presbyterianism and Con-

gregationalism are a great deal more distinct from each other now, and a great deal less likely to think of "blending," than at the beginning of the century, when they did blend, after a fashion, much to the ultimate advantage of Presbyterianism. But while each of the two systems has become, at least on the ecclesiastical side, more true to its own historical attitude, both have long practically ceased to maintain the old Puritan theory of an unalterable polity, and adherents of both are among the warm friends of church unity. And I can conceive of a very effective organization of Christian forces in this country which would not obliterate denominational lines.

What you say of Congregationalists and conservative Unitarians might be, and has been, illustrated in other ways. Whatever one thinks of the denials of the early Unitarians, it is certain that they were defending the divine fatherhood against men who had unintentionally done their utmost to make it incredible, and the divine unity against unconscious tritheists. As to the latter point, a quotation from the Athanasian Creed was once taken by a Unitarian and by an Orthodox Congregationalist, for a statement of Unitarian doctrine.

Your mention, in another column of the same issue, of the proposed collection at Leipsic of publications relating to the religious history of the United States, prompts the question whether there is anything like a complete collection of that sort in this country. Partial ones of great value, of course, exist, and additions to them are welcomed. But I am not sure that an attempt like that which Dr. Gregory is now making in behalf of a German university has ever been made here, and very sure that, if not, it ought to be made at once. W. G. A.

GUILFORD, CONN., March 3, 1888.

THE CRADLE OF THE ARYAN RACE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your number of March 1st an opinion is ascribed to me, I do not know on whose authority, which I never held. In my book, 'Die Arier,' I distinctly locate the birthplace of the Aryans in the great swampy region, the Palus Magna of mediæval writers, in which the river Dnieper takes its rise. The idea of southwestern Germany being the cradle of the Aryan race sprang from the fertile brain of the late Lazarus Geiger, with whom should rest authorship and responsibility.

Respectfully, THEODOR POESCHE.

WASHINGTON, D.C., No. 1224 12TH ST., March 3, 1888.

[In Max Müller's "Poesche restricts their home to the sources of the Danube" ('Biographies of Words,' etc., p. 107), "Danube" is probably a misprint for *Dnieper*.—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

THE 'Early Days of Mormonism,' by J. H. Kennedy, with portrait and other illustrations; and 'What is the Bible?' by Prof. George T. Ladd, are in the press of Chas. Scribner's Sons.

Thomas Whittaker will shortly publish 'Lectures on the Prayer Book,' by the Rev. W. A. Snively.

Through D. Appleton & Co. the Rev. J. I. Mombert will issue by subscription a 'History of Charles the Great (Charlemagne)' in one octavo volume.

'Ten Years of Massachusetts'—that is, Massachusetts as reflected in her legislation during the past decade—by Raymond L. Bridgman, is announced by D. C. Heath & Co., Boston.

P. Blakiston, Son & Co., Philadelphia, announce 'Chemical Technology: The Application of Chemistry to the Arts and Manufactures,' edited by Charles E. Groves, F.R.S., and Wm. Thorp, B.Sc., F.I.C., in about eight volumes, with numerous illustrations.

Ginn & Co. bring out immediately 'Helps to the Intelligent Study of College Preparatory Latin,' by Prof. Karl P. Harrington.

Among D. Lothrop Co.'s forthcoming publications are 'Volcanoes and Earthquakes,' by Samuel Kneeland, and 'The Deathless Book,' by the Rev. D. O. Mears.

Simultaneously with Macmillan's series of lives of English Statesmen comes the beginning of W. H. Allen & Co.'s "Statesmen Series," to be edited by Mr. Lloyd C. Sanders. The first volume, 'Beaconsfield,' by Mr. T. E. Kebbel, is now ready, and among those to follow are 'O'Connell,' by Mr. J. A. Hamilton, 'Gambetta,' by Mr. F. A. Marzials, 'Gortchakoff,' by Mr. Charles Marvin, and the 'Prince Consort,' by Miss Yonge. The editor will himself write the life of 'Palmerston,' already handled in an earlier and still-born series by the late Anthony Trollope, who was always as ready to prepare the biography of Cæsar, Cicero, Thackeray, or Palmerston as he was to turn out a novel or a book of travels.

The pleasant announcement comes from London that we are to have a new edition of Colley Cibber's 'Apology,' the best theatrical autobiography in existence. It will be published by Mr. Nimmo uniform with his recent edition of Dr. Doran's 'Their Majesties' Servants.' The editing has been intrusted to Mr. Robert W. Lowe, than whom there is no one more competent. Cibber's 'Apology' is one of the books which cry aloud for a new edition, as the latest, the so-called Bellchambers edition, is half a century old and was ill made.

The 'Geographical Review of the Fishing Industries and Fishing Communities for the year 1880,' just issued from the Government Printing Office, is not so stale as its date might imply, for it is really half a census volume by coöperation, though issued by the Fish Commission. Prof. G. Brown Goode is the responsible author, and the contents are full of interest and instruction. An appendix contains a curious compilation of "Historical References to the Fisheries of New England" from the earliest times, by Mr. A. Howard Clark, and its literary flavor makes one wish for it a separate reprint in a more handy form. It appears that at Ipswich, Mass., as far back as 1637, shad and alewives were used for fertilizing the soil.

Cassell's 'Pocket Guide to Europe' comes to us afresh in its very handy form. The revision asserted on its title-page has not extended to the list of United States diplomatic and consular agents on pages 464–467, though, thanks to the stability of that service under our present Administration, the defects we have observed are not serious.

Dr. Francis H. Brown's 'Medical Register for New England' (Boston: Cupples & Hurd) has an established character as a well-edited and trustworthy record for the medicinal, dental, and pharmaceutical professions. It is now issued in a new edition, brought down to the close of the last year. Its scheme is (1) to enumerate and describe the associations and societies within its scope, with lists of officers; (2) to do the same by asylums, etc.; (3) to include miscellaneous allied matters; and (4) to give the membership of the several State medical societies.

Another class is served by Mr. Albert S. Bolles's 'Bankers' Almanac and Register' (Homans Publishing Co.), of which the first of the semi-annual editions for 1888 lies before us. Besides the information strictly pertinent to the title, a "list of reliable attorneys" in the United States and in Canada is appended.

A volume of 'Patriotic Addresses' delivered in America and England from 1850 to 1885 by Henry Ward Beecher has been compiled by John R. Howard (Fords, Howard & Hulbert). The contents have been well chosen, and well represent Mr. Beecher's extraordinary powers as an orator, and his eminent services while abroad to the struggling cause of the Union—services which no other American was, on the whole, so competent to perform. The compiler has prefixed a biographical sketch of Mr. Beecher, written from the point of view of close personal intimacy, but with discrimination. The portrait engravings other than those of Mr. Beecher himself are for the most part pretty bad. The print is clear and the volume well calculated for popular circulation. We quote a passage from the Manchester speech of October 9, 1863, for its bearing on a recent controversy in these columns: "It has been said that she [New York] sold her slaves. No slander was ever greater. The most careful provision was made against sale. No man travelling out of the State of New York after the passage of the Emancipation Act was permitted to have any slave with him, unless he gave bonds for his reappearance with him," etc. (p. 446).

'Reform of London Government and of City Guilds,' by J. F. B. Firth, is the latest addition to Sydney Buxton's "Imperial Parliament" series (London: Swan Sonnenschein). No one has more completely identified himself with this question than Mr. Firth; hence for a succinct survey of the arguments in favor of London municipal reform, no better book than the one before us can be recommended. The question at issue is a momentous one, and must soon come to the front in English politics. Before many decades elapse, turtle soup at the public cost will cease to tickle the palate of the London alderman. Mr. Firth's booklet will help to hasten this consummation.

We have already noticed the memoir of the late Prof. Fleeming Jenkin by Mr. Robert Louis Stevenson as published in its detached form. This memoir forms, for the general reader, much the most interesting portion of the two volumes of 'Papers, Literary, Scientific, etc.,' which are Prof. Jenkin's literary monument (Longmans). The rest of vol. i is filled with reviews in the Scottish quarterlies, and articles in various periodicals, on the "Agamemnon" and "Trachiniae," on Darwin and the 'Origin of Species' (1867), on Lucretius and the Atomic Theory, on Mrs. Siddons as *Lady Macbeth*, on Talma on the actor's art, on the antique Greek dress for women (illustrated), on rhythm in English verse, on George Eliot, on artist and critic, together with an original three-act play, "Griselda." The second volume is occupied with papers on economic, mathematical, and technical subjects—trade-unions, supply and demand, incidence of taxes, technical education, submarine telegraphy, etc., etc. This list shows the range of the writer's sympathies and acquirements. His limitations are suggested by his belief that his argumentation against Darwin in the *North British Review* had demonstrated the theory of the origin of species to be without sufficient support from the evidence, and "false by accumulative proof."

The January number of the *English Historical Review* opens with a review, by Mr. G. W. Prothero, of "Gneist on the English Constitution"—not his 'History of the Constitution' alone, but also his work upon the English Parliament, being the subject of the review—only those works, it will be noticed, which have been translated into English. It is a profitable article to read, as not merely are Gneist's opinions stated with lucidity and criticised intelligently, but the critic has opinions of his own which are worth considering. The next article is by Miss Robinson, "The Claim of the House of Orleans to Milan"—a claim, it is well known, which is the key to the most important international events of the beginning of the sixteenth century. The paper states clearly the nature of the claim, after which we have not so much a discussion of its validity as an excellent sketch of the historical events growing out of it; the present article, part i, ending with the accession of Francesco Sforza to the ducal throne of Milan in 1450. The third article, "Benoît de Boigne," by Sidney J. Owen, is, like an earlier article upon Dupleix by the same writer, devoted to the history of India, in connection with the establishment of the British rule there. De Boigne was, says the author, "the most eminent of these European adventurers, alike from his abilities and character, the greatness of his achievements, and their momentous consequences." He was a Savoyard by birth, was born in 1751, and died in 1830. Of the other contents of the number we will mention a posthumous paper by the late J. F. McLennan on "The Origin of Exogamy," and a review, by Dr. Robertson Smith, of Renan's "Histoire du Peuple d'Israël."

The December number of the *Antiquary* begins with a paper by Mr. G. Laurence Gomme upon "Open-air Assemblies"—the subject of the book by which he first made his reputation. The present article contains some interesting illustrations of this early custom in English towns and manors. This is followed by one of Sir J. H. Ramsay's useful articles upon royal accounts—a concluding article upon the "Accounts of Edward IV." A paper upon "The Customs of Dymock" contains a valuable statement of the legalized customs of the manor, as confirmed by Cromwell in 1657. The article upon London Theatres (No. 7), by Mr. Ordish, is the conclusion of "Whitefriars: Salisbury Court." The illustrated series of articles upon "The Crosses of Nottinghamshire," by A. Stapleton, has part iv in this number and part v in the January number, where we also find an illustrated paper upon "The Bells of Kent." Other articles in the January number are "The Christmas Pantomime," by Mr. Gomme; "London Homes of Dr. Johnson," by C. A. Ward; "English Religious Drama," by W. H. Hudson, and "Henry Howard, Earl of Surrey" (illustrated), by William Brailsford.

Sir Charles Bernard, late Chief Commissioner of Burmah, contributes a strikingly clear and interesting account of that country to the February *Scottish Geographical Magazine*. After describing its physical features, he treats of the people, whose numbers he puts at 9,250,000, a little over one-half being Burmese. Of their condition he draws an unusually bright picture. Their wages are four times as high as those of the natives of India, and their manner of living proportionately more comfortable. There are no great landlords, nobility, nor aristocracy, save the officials. Every village has a school attached to its monastery, in which the boys are taught to read and write. Sir Charles speaks highly of the Buddhist priests, numbering 25,000, the strictness with which they keep their vows of celibacy and poverty, and the respect in which they are held by the people. The staple industry is agriculture, rice being the principal crop. The teak in Lower Burmah is nearly exhausted, but there are still vast teak forests in the upper country, which are to be carefully preserved by the Government. Organized resistance to the English, the guerrilla warfare, has ceased, but dacoity is such a social institution that it will take a generation or two to root it out. A Burmese maiden will not smile on a youth who has not shown his prowess as a dacoit. It is singular that notwithstanding the high wages and the special inducements offered by the Government to Indian immigrants, very few come or can be prevailed upon to stay. Upper Burmah does not yet pay, but Lower Burmah yields a million annually to the Indian exchequer.

The principal article in the February Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society is an account of an exploration of the Rio Dôce, a Brazilian stream falling into the Atlantic just north of Rio de Janeiro, by W. J. Steains. Though the basin of the river is very fertile, containing some of the richest land in the empire, it is almost unexplored, and is inhabited only by a race of Indians, who have prevented any regular settlement on its banks. At Guandú, about a hundred miles from its mouth, Mr. Steains came upon the miserable remnant of a colony of our own people, who, at the close of the war of the Rebellion, were induced by the glowing promises of the Brazilians to leave the South and settle in this wilderness. Four or five only of the original number were left, too poor to get away. The Indians, the Botocudo, with whom he lived for two months, he believes to be undoubtedly cannibals.

The French have recently succeeded in taking a gunboat from eastern Senegambia down the Niger to Timbuctoo. The greatest difficulty which Lieut. Caron encountered was the lack of fuel; the inhabitants of the countries passed through, though unfriendly, not interfering with their progress. Bandiagara, the principal city of the Toucouleurs, is described as a very important Mussulman centre. "The city seems like a vast monastery, where one hears only the chants of the muezzin and sees only people at prayer." Notwithstanding this appearance of devotion, the people are excessively depraved. It does not appear that any of the party actually entered Timbuctoo, nor was the commander able to make a treaty with the Touaregs, who are now the masters of it, so great was the opposition of the chiefs and the Moorish merchants who hold a monopoly of the trade. Though unsuccessful in this respect, the large collection of the fauna and flora, and the observations of the river, its course, commerce, and inhabitants, promise to add very largely to our knowledge of this rarely visited region.

The Russian Imperial Academy of Sciences and the Geographical Society have on hand a new and extensive expedition, which it is intended to carry out during the present year. This expedition, which has in view purely scientific as well as practical ends, aims at the prosecution of various investigations in obscure and little known localities in Siberia, viz.: in the Narymsk district, settled by Tunguses, Ostiaks, and several other native tribes, which are gradually dying out. The expedition intends to prosecute its investigations for the space of three years. It will be undertaken by Mr. Adrianoff, a learned member of the Geographical Society. The programme is not yet fully worked out; the collection of ethnographical and statistical data will enter into it, the latter being taken for the Tomsk Statistical Committee, among others. In addition to this, the expedition will study the local dialects.

The Franklin Society of Providence, R. I., has lately issued a report on the Geology of Rhode Island that will prove of value to the working geologist. It contains a list of all geological and geographical publications concerning the State, and a brief account of their contents; a list of fossils and minerals, and of localities of geological interest. As preparation for future work, the report advocates the preparation of a good topographical map, such as that now under way in Massachusetts. If the Franklin Society and the Newport Natural History Society act in concert, they can doubtless secure this result, and a modest annual appropriation for the geological coloring of the maps as well.

Mr. William R. Jenkins has republished 'La Neuvaine de Colette' in his "Romans Choisis." This pretty little romance appeared anonymously in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* in September and October last, and was republished in a volume in January, still without any author's name, by Calmann Lévy (Boston: Schoenhof). It is bright and lively, in some parts really charming, and always interesting, and it is entirely unobjectionable in the direction in which French stories so often offend. At the same time it has absolutely no moral aim to render it unattractive to the most frivolous reader, and neither psychological analysis, nor realism, nor literary theory of any kind to offend the old-fashioned few who do not read to be tortured or instructed in pessimism, but only to be entertained. An English translation has just been brought out by D. Appleton & Co.

Among recent important Paris publications is the fourth volume of 'La Fontaine,' edited by M. Henri Regnier, in Hachette's collection of the "Grands Écrivains de la France." The first three volumes contained the Fables; the present is the first volume of the 'Contes et Nouvelles.' Hachette has also published 'Beaumarchais et ses œuvres; précis de sa vie et histoire de son esprit,' by M. E. Lintilhac. Another work on the same subject, by the way, has just been issued by Plon & Nourrit: 'L'Histoire de Beaumarchais, par Gudin de la Brenellerie: mémoires inédits publiés sur les manuscrits originaux,' by M. Maurice Tourneux. The same publishers announce, to appear soon, the second and concluding volume of Monseigneur Ricard's work on the famous Abbé Maury, 'Le Cardinal Maury, 1791–1817.' The first volume, 'L'Abbé Maury, 1746–1791' (Boston: Schoenhof), appeared towards the end of last year.

Félix Alcan has just published the second volume of the 'Papiers de Barthélemy, ambassadeur de France en Suisse, 1792–1797,' edited by M. Jean Kaulek, head of the Historical Department of the Archives of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. The present volume embraces the period from January to August, 1793.

New and old are relative terms, and the "new edition" of Webster's Dictionary now being delivered in parts to subscribers in Germany by Asher & Co., Berlin, is, to judge from the specimen page, a simple reprint from the plates of the latest edition in our market (1880). It is sold for seven dollars and a half.

On February 22 a hundred years had elapsed since Arthur Schopenhauer first saw the light in Danzig. It is proposed to publish a complete collection of his private letters. The volume will be under the editorial care of Dr. Ludwig Schemann of the University of Göttingen, well known for his acquaintance with the works of Richard Wagner, who made the great pessimistic philosopher his guide. The

book will be published by F. A. Brockhaus of Leipzig, and all the receipts are to go towards the Schopenhauer monument fund. Letters in the possession of persons in this country may be sent in care of Dr. Cyrus Adler, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Md., who will have them copied and returned to their possessors as soon as possible.

—The March *Century* has no one article that rises very much in interest above the rest, but there are half-a-dozen of real excellence. Mr. John Bigelow's account of the home and personality of De Chaumont, who gave Franklin the hospitality of his house in Paris, is a pleasant illustration of the friendship which existed between France and America in the days of our Revolution; and the story of the speculations of the French syndicate, as we should now term it, in northern New York, is also an interesting piece of local history. The Chaumonts, by means of it, left their name upon our map. The episode of the making of the tunnel from Libby Prison, by which over a hundred prisoners found their way out, is told with great spirit, and gives a touch of variety to the War-Papers series. Mr. Roosevelt's description of his ranch and its employments, and of the character of the Bad Lands, near which it is situated, with a few anecdotes of personal experience, makes a good paper; and the portraits of Bismarck are equivalent to an article. By far the most important contribution is Mr. George Kennan's exhibit of the state of Russian political prisoners while in confinement before trial, or afterwards in the interval between sentence and deportation to Siberia, in which period, according to the words ascribed to a Director of the Imperial Police, the purpose of the Government is "to break their character." This means, to so reduce their physical and mental strength that they will never recover any vigor of mind or body. The instances given are revolting to the extreme of inhumanity, and yet Mr. Kennan states that he does not think there is any exaggeration in the narratives told him. If only a portion were true, however, the verdict of civilized men would be little modified. One touching anecdote is related of how the prisoners in the House of Detention succeeded in eluding the authorities, so that on our centennial Fourth of July they hung their cell-bars on the court with little American flags and colors made of rags, which were of course soon seized by the guards; but at night they illuminated also with inch-long pieces of candle which they had distributed to each other through the water-pipes leading from cell to cell. Considering who these prisoners were, and what their fate probably has been in the twelve years since, the incident is one of unspeakable pathos.

—The moiety of the Walter L. Newberry estate falling to the library bearing his name in Chicago is $2,149,201.60, truly a princely foundation for a library, and an endowment surpassed, we suppose, by no other. Even the Astor, after thirty-nine years of benefactions from the Astor family, counts a smaller endowment fund, $1,430,112.23, summing up donations and increase to date. The Newberry Library's promise, however, is rather more brilliant than the beginning; for it appears that more than half of the property, as well in the aggregate as in the half reserved for the library, consists largely in unproductive real estate. Yet the net income, after deducting $50,000 specially appropriated for the purchase of books and general expenses, amounts, since December 9, 1885, to $67,778.12. But this condition of the funds probably makes it difficult for the trustees to do as much at the start as they otherwise would in the way of building. Temporary quarters are occupied by the collection at present, which numbered January 1 6,457 volumes and 4,907 pamphlets. About 4,500 of the works belong to the class of American history; and 584 are the bibliographical apparatus, a department of the first necessity, if a library expects to do thorough cataloguing. Mr. W. F. Poole, of long experience in the Chicago Library and elsewhere, is the librarian, and his well-known genius for the work may be expected to benefit the public with something original and practical, in building as well as in management. The trustees have decided to make the library a library of reference.

—The death of Miss Alcott, which occurred on Tuesday, is made the sadder by its close sequence upon her father's dying on Sunday. No daughter could have been more devoted, and few have had more trying occasions for filial self-sacrifice. She derived from her mother, to whom the family mainly owed its support while being reared, the practical qualities so wofully lacking in her father. Her literary gift may have been a divided inheritance. With the exception of 'Hospital Sketches,' we believe all her work falls under the head of fiction, and much the greater part of this addressed to the young. Yet she drew so largely upon her own experience that a good deal of the family history and of history in a larger if not very important sense—such as is inherent in Hawthorne's 'Blithedale Romance'—was conveyed in her many volumes. Her success was remarkable, but we doubt if she valued it for any reason so much as for its enabling her to bring comfort to a home always on the verge of poverty, and especially to the parent who has just passed away. Opinions differ as to the quality of her juvenile tales, and we must ourselves profess not to regard them with the same favor that the public has shown, or to think them free from the fault sometimes of unreality, and too often of having the adult reader in mind instead of the child alone. We judge her, too, to have reached the limit of her inventiveness, so that she will be less missed from the walks of literature than from the social circle to which her amiable qualities endeared her.

—If we may judge from the Preliminary Report of the American Eclipse Expedition to Japan, lately published by Prof. Todd, some compensation, if not astronomical, may be found for the severe disappointment of eclipse day, in that the labors of the naturalist of the party, Dr. Holland, may be expected to result in much good to science. During the sojourn of the Expedition, and with the able assistance of native collectors, the work of the botanist went on almost daily—the work of the entomologist by day and by night. The acquisitions of insect fauna will prove much the most valuable, of which, in addition to his own collections of 6,000 specimens representing 1,200 species, mainly *lepidoptera* and *coleoptera*, Dr. Holland obtained by purchase the entire collection of the *pyralidæ* of Japan made by the well-known authority, Mr. H. Pryer, and representing the labors of nearly seventeen years. This contains about 4,000 specimens of nearly 400 species, the larger part of them undetermined as yet, and possibly new to science. The collection covers the entire group of the Japanese islands, including the Loo-Choo and the Bonin Islands, and contains typical specimens of many of the forms described in recent years by Mr. A. G. Butler of the British Museum. A monograph on the *pyralidæ* of Japan is now in preparation. Other work of the Expedition, on the ascent of various mountains and volcanic cones in Japan, from 6,000 to 13,000 feet elevation, will be reported to the Harvard College Observatory.

—Gen. Francis A. Walker, in the *Quarterly Journal of Economics* for January, makes some suggestions about the next, the eleventh census, and presents very interesting information about the last census, concerning which there is no more competent authority. Condemned for its extravagance, the tenth census was, in reality, very economical; the cost of it per head of the population, aside from printing and engraving, being only 9.68 cents, which is less than a cent a head more than the cost of the ninth census, although the population of the country had greatly increased in the meantime, and a great variety and extent of new statistical work was undertaken, and the traditional classes were advanced into far minuter details. Gen. Walker's original estimates of the cost of the work were, for reasons that he states, far exceeded; but the expense of it, $4,853,350, aside from printing and engraving, was kept within this limit only by the most painful economy at all points where saving was possible, and by pushing the clerical force forward at a rate of which Government offices in Washington have little experience. As to printing, engraving, and paper, the cost of printing the last report of the Commissioner of Agriculture was $200,000; and the cost of printing the eighteen quarto volumes of the census, already published, including the four quarto volumes yet to come, including also all the other printed matter of the census—the bulletins, two octavo volumes of the Compendium, etc.—will be less than the cost of printing the Agricultural reports since 1880. Although ninety-nine hundredths of the four remaining volumes have been for some time stereotyped, and only await an appropriation for printing and binding, the duration of the work suggests (so near are we to the beginning of a new enumeration) the advisability, from an economical point of view, of making the office permanent. This would avoid the necessity of suddenly raising and then disbanding a large force, to begin anew with workers without experience. Prof. Walker, also, would have the census taken once in five years, and confined to population and probably agriculture. In the intervening years the other statistics might be collected; and in this way the census takers, having fewer inquiries to make at one time, would attain a greater accuracy. The Bureau of Statistics of Labor in the Interior Department, which has had charge of the work since 1850, should have the supervision of it. The census of 1880 failed outright only in respect to churches and private schools. Our mortality statistics, however, leave much to be desired. Gen. Walker has words of strong praise for the treatment of the returns of deaths by Dr. Billings and his corps of assistants throughout the country; yet seems to think that it requires a very considerable effort to bring the number of deaths reported up to seventy per cent. of those actually occurring during the year. Aside from the class of births and deaths, the United States have occupied almost from their beginning the first place among the nations as to the extent and variety of their statistics. The other main articles in this number of the *Quarterly* are Prof. Hadley's on the workings of the Inter-State Commerce Law, and Mr. Sidney Webb's on the rate of interest and the laws of distribution.

—An unusually interesting discovery has been made by the American School of Classical Studies at Athens. Icaria has been found, the first home of the god Dionysus in Attica, and the birthplace of the Greek drama. The Ger-

man scholar Milchhöfer, on his way from Marathon to Athens last May, discovered at a little place called Sto Dionyso a choragic monument in the apse of a ruined church. The ruins showed that an important sanctuary had stood there, an inscription showed that an offering was dedicated by an Icarian, and the inference was easy that this was Icaria. The ruins lie at the foot of the northeast slope of Mt. Pentelicus, in a thick grove of pines, surrounded by glens rich in springs and large plane trees, with two glimpses of the sea—one of the most beautiful spots in Attica. Milchhöfer issued an appeal for the careful examination of the spot, which was echoed by the French archæologist Reinach. Early last autumn Professor Merriam, the Director of the American School, applied for permission to excavate there. After many delays, the permission was granted. One of the members of the school took a hammock and provisions, and established himself in an untenanted building near the ruins, and hired a dozen workmen. A number of fragments of works of art have been found, and the most complete proof from inscriptions that this was the sanctuary of Dionysus at Icaria.

—We learn further that the site of the sanctuary of the Kabeiroi in Bœotia, mentioned by Pausanias (ix,25,5), has been discovered, and will be excavated by the German Institute in Athens. The manner of its discovery was characteristic: Some small bronze votive cows bearing the inscription ἱερὸν Καβείρων were offered for sale in Athens, and the attention of M. Kavvadias, the Inspector of Antiquities, being called to them, he followed up the matter, and traced them to a dealer in antiquities at Thebes. In company with Dr. Dörpfeld, he went thither, found the men who had dug them up, and from them learned that the site of discovery was near Thespiæ. The two gentlemen visited the place and satisfied themselves of its identity, with the result announced above. M. Kavvadias, by the way, has recently begun work again at Epidauros, it being his intention this time to lay bare everything connected with the sanctuary of Asklepios. We learn that already the excavations have yielded valuable results, such as the discovery of the walls of the sanctuary, fragments of columns, two altars, and a doorway. Among the objects found are 500 votive animals in terracotta, more than a hundred votive cows in bronze and lead, and a large number of fragments of painted vases, probably also votive. These investigations do not seem likely to contribute much to the knowledge of Greek art, but if they clear up some of the mystery regarding the Kabeiroi and their cult, they will be an important contribution to the study of mythology.

—We can recommend as a highly interesting bit of biography the short life of Alfred Krupp, lately written by Schmidt-Weissenfels and published by Rosenbaum & Hart of Berlin. In an age like ours, the story of any man's rise from poverty to almost fabulous wealth can hardly fail of possessing a certain amount of dramatic interest for everybody. All of us—even the austere sociologists who manage the campaign against "capital"—are so keenly alive to the conveniences of a personal surplus that when we hear of a man who has become enormously rich we like to know just how the thing was done. But it is not always that the story of a modern money-king's career has that morally exhilarating quality which ought to pertain to good biography. A fortune made by the manipulation of stocks, or by a lucky investment in the nick of time, or by getting Congress to help one build a railroad, or by securing a monopoly for one's wares through legislation, may perhaps touch the carnal imagination, but it can hardly stir the deeps of one's moral nature. But the life of Krupp, as told by Schmidt-Weissenfels, is a continual object lesson upon the winning qualities of energy, courage, and self-reliance. We do not say that the life has no other suggestions, or that it presents nothing but edification to the moral philosopher. Whether the invention of a cast-steel breech-loading cannon, a little more deadly than anything any one had made before, is to be regarded as a benefit to the human race, is a perplexing question which we cannot now discuss. It was a question in which Krupp did not interest himself. His ambition was for Prussia, and there can be no doubt whatever that the two thousand Krupp guns that encircled Napoleon at Sedan September 1, 1870, were of great "benefit" to Prussia. From beginning to end, Krupp's reliance was upon the superiority of what he had to sell. When competition was going against him, he concentrated his energies upon the production of a better article. Not the least interesting part of Schmidt-Weissenfels's sketch is to be found in the extensive quotations he gives from the various manifestoes issued by Krupp to his workmen after social democracy and the labor question had invaded his territory. In one of these we find the following:

"In the various classes of society there are people who erroneously hope for the betterment of their position from changes in the constitution, the government, or the laws, and in so doing neglect the most essential agencies, which lie in their own power. Industry, order, and economy are the best and safest protection against the distress complained of, and, where these are lacking, the best government and the best laws do no good."

We should think that labor literature of this sort might be useful at the present time both in Germany and in some other countries.

BOLLES'S NATIONAL BANK ACT.

The National Bank Act and its Judicial Meaning. By Albert S. Bolles, editor of the *Bankers' Magazine*, etc. New York: Homans Publishing Co.

THE national banking system has been in operation twenty-five years, and in October, 1887, there were 3,049 national banks doing business, with a capital of $578,462,765 and deposits amounting to $1,249,477,126. The immense resources represented by these amounts are managed by over six thousand presidents and cashiers, to say nothing of directors, all of whom need to know something of the laws of the United States under which their banks are operated. The "National Currency Act" became a law on February 25, 1863. Owing to some imperfections it was superseded by the amended act of June 3, 1864, and the last-mentioned law, with the amendments and additions since made, forms what is generally known as the "National Bank Act."

In the course of twenty-five years the practical operation of this collection of laws has been very thoroughly tested. They have been construed in legal contests between the banks and their debtors and creditors, in judicial reviews of official action, and in opinions of the law officers of the United States. Almost every point upon which questions can arise has been interpreted by the courts. When, to the law itself and the history of its enactment, are added the decisions of judicial tribunals, the opinions of law officers, and the rules of administration adopted by the Comptroller of the Currency, the Treasurer of the United States, and the Secretary of the Treasury, a very large mass of material is collected, which must be studied by those who desire to know the true effect of each section of the National Bank Act. The managers of the 3,000 banks are daily beset with questions arising in the transaction of business, which must be promptly decided with due regard to the latest construction of legal enactment. 'The National Bank Act and its Judicial Meaning' is the result of an attempt to compile and arrange in concise form for ready reference the numerous laws, amendments, decisions, opinions, and official regulations, that form the code under which the business of national banking is to-day conducted, and by which are determined the rights and liabilities of stockholders and customers, and the duties of bank and Government officials. The value of an exhaustive and reliable work of this description cannot be too highly estimated, and every public officer dealing with national banks, and every official of the latter, would find his labors lightened by it.

An examination of this book unfortunately discloses that it does not fulfil the promise that its title and scope imply. It may be said in approval that the arrangement is excellent, the index full, and that the information given in the appendix as to the organization, extension, and management of national banking associations, and for the handling of United States bonds and the redemption of currency, is from official sources, and apparently reliable. Further credit should be given for the accurate references to the judicial decisions applying to each section quoted. There are in the body of the book nineteen chapters, each treating of a special subject, among them: "Powers of the Comptroller," "Organization of National Banking Associations," "Powers of National Banking Associations," "Rights and Liabilities of Shareholders," "Interest," "Taxation," "Criminal Offences," etc., etc. The sections of the National Banking Law applying to each subject are grouped in the corresponding chapter, and, as each section is taken up, the necessary explanations are made, fortified by references to the various decisions, opinions, and regulations which affect the practical operation of that portion of the law.

Mr. Bolles is well known as the editor of the *Bankers' Magazine*, and as the author of a financial history of the United States, and of several other books on kindred subjects. He is also Professor of Political Economy and Finance in the University of Pennsylvania. This, his last work, is one of the best, but it is the least original. Much of the material has been derived from sources to which no credit is given. The impression apparently sought to be produced is, that the book is the result of a laborious exploration of an unknown field; that the cases and opinions cited have for the first time been gathered from the State and Federal reports, and from other original documents. The value of the book would have been materially enhanced if full information had been given as to the origin and growth of the Banking Act, and the commentary upon it, with due credit to the various writers upon these and kindred subjects, whose publications have the high sanction of general approval. These references might have been embodied in a preface sketching the gradual growth of the material which Mr. Bolles has so skilfully utilized.

The absence of such references is a grave defect, and is but poorly compensated for by any factitious credit for original research which the author may acquire. It is important to know the form of the law at different stages of its history; how the language and effect of the act of 1863 differed from that of the act of 1864, or

as it subsequently appeared in the Revised Statutes of the United States. It is further exceedingly valuable in legal practice to understand the underlying reasons that led to the various changes and developments of the law as they occurred from time to time. All this, we repeat, might have been explained in a preface. But, further, an analogous defect pervades the body of the work in that it does not give the dates of decisions cited, or the adjudicating tribunals, or the dates of the official opinions. The preface might have set forth the comparative values of decisions on the same point in Federal and State courts, and thus aided laymen to form some intelligent opinion as to the worth of those decisions. Where there are conflicting decisions, no attempt is made to correlate the points of agreement so as to arrive at the best attainable resultant. This to a lawyer may be no great disadvantage, but the book is intended for laymen, for bankers to refer to at a moment's notice. As another result of the absence of a comprehensive view of the material handled, obsolete laws are given prominence when they should have been omitted; decisions are cited, without distinctive remark, which have been seriously affected as authorities by those of later dates and of higher courts; and laws actually in force are omitted, because erroneously supposed to be obsolete.

An example of the retention of an obsolete law is that of the sections imposing the two-cent stamp tax on bank checks (pp. 272–273) without referring to the repeal, in 1883, of this law, so long regarded by the banks and the public as unequal and burdensome. The chapter on taxation, commencing on page 222, affords an example of a citation of decisions without regard to their order in date or relative force. No subject has been so prolific of controversy in the courts as this, and it is to-day of vital importance to the banks. The decisions rendered have been most contradictory and confusing, and require to be most carefully arranged and considered in order that a national bank in any given State may acquire intelligent information as to the course of conduct it should pursue in order to avoid unjust taxation. The failure so to arrange and consider in this chapter is rendered more conspicuous by the fact that Mr. Chauncey P. Williams of Albany has prepared a most exhaustive and satisfactory paper on the subject, which was read at the Convention of the American Bankers' Association at Pittsburgh in October last.

A most important omission in the book of Mr. Bolles is that of section 5242 of the United States Revised Statutes, providing that no attachment, injunction, or execution shall be issued in any suit in any State, county, or municipal court against a national bank, before final judgment. This section is necessary to the protection of the banking business, and prior to 1882 the courts had rendered several decisions recognizing its force. The act of July 12, 1882, contained a proviso radically changing the standing of national banks before judicial tribunals, and immediately a question arose whether section 5242 was abrogated by the later act. It was then decided that the section had not been affected by the act of July 12, 1882, and that it continued in force as before.

It only remains to consider the sources from which Mr. Bolles has drawn the main part of the material for his book, as to which source he has maintained a strict silence. The ground he has covered, far from being an unknown field, had previously been investigated by many explorers. There are a very large number of works similar in character to the one under examination, in which some parts of the subject have been treated with a skill and tho roughness leaving little to be desired. First and foremost, the reports of the Comptrollers of the Currency from 1863 to 1887 are a mine which has been freely drawn on. The report for 1875 contains a synopsis of all the decisions of the United States Supreme Court affecting national banks made up to that date. This synopsis of decisions was enlarged the next year so as to contain not only decisions of the United States Supreme Court, but those of State courts of last resort, and has been continued and enlarged by new cases year by year to the present time. Another source is the very valuable compilation of national-bank cases by the editors of the Albany *Law Journal*, Messrs. Thompson & Brown, all cases to 1878 having been compiled by the former, and those between 1878 and 1881 by the latter. The work on 'Banks and Banking' by Mr. Morse has doubtless afforded many suggestions to the author. Mr. Morse's work is often cited as an authority in the courts, and has been mentioned with approval in several judicial decisions. Although not of equal merit with the foregoing, another compilation of the National Banking Law has been made by Mr. Ball of Chicago. These compilations and studies of the National Bank Law and its judicial meaning represent an immense amount of preliminary labor in clearing the ground and collecting material, that nullifies the apparent claim of Mr. Bolles to the credit of original investigation.

Similarly, the facts in regard to the relations between the Government and the banks, and the official application of the law, had previously been collected in a number of publications—banking periodicals and books of instructions to national banks. The report of the Comptroller of the Currency for 1878 contained a carefully drawn "summary of the principal requirements and restrictions of the National Bank Act," of nine pages, from an official standpoint, which to-day remains without material change the guide of the Comptroller's office. This summary was reprinted by that office in 1883-84 as part of a little volume of 'Instructions for the Organization and Management of National Banks.' This material is printed entire in the 'National Bank Act and its Judicial Meaning,' without a suggestion of credit or a quotation mark to indicate its origin. Mr. Bolles is not the only one who has treated Government publications in this way. Many book-makers seem to consider them common plunder, and use them without acknowledgment. The Government does not suffer by this. It is rather an advantage to have public documents quoted and intelligently commented upon. The ensuing evil is the lowering of the dignity of authorship and the confounding of all literary morality.

TOLSTOI AND KOROLENKO.

A Russian Proprietor, and Other Stories. By Count Lyof N. Tolstoi. Translated from the Russian by Nathan Haskell Dole. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.

What to Do? Thoughts Evoked by the Census of Moscow. By Count Lyof N. Tolstoi. Translated from the Russian by Isabel F. Hapgood. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. 1887.

What People Live By. By Count Leo Tolstoi. Translated by Mrs. Aline Delano. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co.

In Pursuit of Happiness. By Count Leo Tolstoi. Translated from the Russian by Mrs. Aline Delano. Boston: D. Lothrop Co.

The Vagrant, and Other Tales. By Vladímir Korolénko. Translated from the Russian by Mrs. Aline Delano. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.

In the *Nineteenth Century* of April, 1879, Mr. Ralston, speaking of Tolstoi's 'War and Peace' and 'Anna Karénina,' said: "Neither of these works seems likely to be translated into English." A few months ago we were told in a public print by a New York publisher that "few translations are read, and Russian translations least of all"; and that "one translation in a hundred does pay." And now we have in English nearly all of the twelve octavo volumes of Tolstoi's Russian, to say nothing of other works from the same language. Thanks to translators and publishers for their unrequited enterprise! But, in reality, Russian translations are much read—if not by the million, yet by the thousands who demand things not only new but good. We know of a quasi-public library where recently an applicant found that but one volume of Tolstoi's works was at his service, out of twenty volumes belonging to the library.

The first book on our list contains seven stories: "A Russian Proprietor," "Lucerne," "Recollections of a Scorer," "Albert," "Two Hussars," "Three Deaths," and "A Prisoner in the Caucasus." The first six were written between 1852 and 1859; the seventh is one of the 'Tales for Children,' written between 1869 and 1872. The latter, perhaps because the latest, is by far the pleasantest story. The "Recollections of a Scorer [billiard marker]" and the "Two Hussars" are not pleasant reading. A skilful hand has sketched scenes in the life of the gambler and of the trooper—has filled in, rather, with realistic fidelity, the dark lines of their heartlessness and dissipation, which show the blacker for the few gleams of innocence and manliness that appear. These two tales seem to be told for the sake of the telling; the others, more or less, for their implied moral—implied, but in Tolstoi's writings never expressed. "A Russian Proprietor" (which in the original is called "The Landlord's Morning: a fragment from an unfinished novel, 'A Russian Landlord' [lord of the manor]") describes the Sunday morning experiences of Prince Nekhliudoff while visiting some of his peasants. (This name, it may be noticed, appears also in Tolstoi's 'Childhood, Boyhood, Youth.') The Prince had at the age of nineteen left his university course unfinished, with the purpose of carrying out immediately his new-formed plans for the improvement of his estate, and especially of the condition of his peasants. In this effort more than a year had passed when, on "a clear July Sunday, having finished his coffee and run through a chapter of 'Maison Rustique,' [he] put his notebook in [his] pocket, . . . and started out of doors." Guided by his notebook, he makes his round of visits, but meets discouragement on every side. Anxious to help his people, at whatever cost to himself, he finds them unready, unwilling. One couple will not leave their tumble-down hovel for a new stone cottage that he offers them. On his way home he says to himself: "My aunt was right when she wrote that it is easier to find happiness than to give it to others. Have my peasants become any richer? Have they learned anything? Or have they shown any moral improvement? Not the least. They are no better off, but it grows harder and harder every day for me."

'Lucerne; from the Recollections of Prince Nekhliudoff' has for its text this paragraph, printed in italics near the end of the story:

"On the 19th of July, 1857, before the

Schweitzerhof Hotel, in which there were lodging very opulent people, a wandering beggar minstrel sang for half an hour his songs, and played his guitar. About a hundred people listened to him. The minstrel thrice asked you all to give him something. No one person gave him a thing, and many made sport of him."

After which the writer says: "This is not an invention, but an actual fact." Nekhliudoff describes the really charming music of the Tyrolese; and tells how, after the crowd had sent him off with jeers, he himself followed and brought him back to the hotel, and ordered "champagne, and your very best." Both were treated with scorn, not only by an English lord and his lady, who were in the dining-room, but even by the servants. "I treated the little man exactly like an equal before all that audience of servants; and then, with all the respect I was able to express in my behavior, I took off my hat and pressed his hand with its dry and hardened fingers."

"Albert" is another story of a musician, a talented violinist, who is very weak morally (though not immoral) and very shabby. We are told how a kind-hearted bachelor took him to his own rooms and, with the aid of his servant, tried to make him better. The "Three Deaths" are those of a selfish, querulous "lady"; of a peasant coachman, who just before his death gives another coachman his boots; and of the ash-tree that the latter cuts down to make a cross for the other's grave. Before leaving this volume we ought to mark, for correction, a puzzling error of the proof reader. On page 4 is this: "Ambition is a virtue at your age, and with your means it becomes a fault and an absurdity when a man is no longer in the condition to satisfy this passion." After the word "means" a semi-colon and the word *but* have dropped out.

The next three books on our list are all from the last volume of Tolstoi's works, and belong respectively to the dates 1882–85, 1881, and 1885–86. The title 'What to Do' is from the French translation, the original titles being given in the "Contents" of the volume, namely: "Article on the census in Moscow," "Thoughts evoked by the census of Moscow," "On the significance of science and art," "On labor and luxury," and "To women." It would be superfluous to attempt a description, since the translator has herself given an excellent analysis of the volume in the *Atlantic Monthly* for July, 1887, under the title "Count Tolstoi and the Public Censor." We quote the last sentence of "To women": "Yes, ye women and mothers, in your hands, more than in those of all others, lies the salvation of the world!"

The tale 'What People Live By,' says a recent Russian writer upon Tolstoi, teaches forcibly the lesson of brotherly love "to the old and the young, to the cultured man and the plebeian, to the happy and the unhappy." It and the first of the next volume are told of shoemakers; and it is well known that our author is an active member of that guild.

'In Pursuit of Happiness'—there is in the original no title corresponding to this—contains four tales: "Where there is love there is God," "How much land a man needs," "The two pilgrims," and "Illyás." They belong to the class of which the critic above quoted says: "Concerning all these writings for the common people it may be said, that Count Tolstoi has succeeded better than all Russian writers in solving the difficult problem of a popular literature." In proof, he gives the results of an investigation made in the women's section of the Petersburg prison (formerly the Lithuanian Castle). "All Tolstoi's tales are listened to by the inmates, lettered and unlettered, with great interest, and some with real enthusiasm." Notwithstanding the scantiness of their daily wages (from 7 to 12 copecks, of which they have control of but one-half), they urgently insist upon buying these tracts with their own money. They carry them away into exile or to their village homes, in order there still to treasure them or to give them to others. We may remark here that the author takes no copyright for these tracts; any one may print them, and they may be bought for 5 copecks (about 2 cents), or less, apiece. 'What People Live By' and two in Mrs. Delano's other volume are accompanied by good copies of illustrations made for Russian readers, and these add much to the interest of the tales. But we are sorry for the omission of the New Testament texts that introduce two of the tales. It is said that Tolstoi's literary friends urge him to cease writing tracts for the people and essays in sociology and religion, and to give himself again to the production of works of art like 'Anna Karénina.' Mr. Kennan reports him as speaking "slightingly, almost contemptuously, of his works of fiction." In this he is as clearly wrong as he may be right in taking to tract-writing. Only the future can show.

The author of 'The Vagrant and Other Tales,' we learn from the "Biographical Note," is a young writer, his first sketches having appeared in 1879. The tales in this volume, with two exceptions, are told of Siberian life, or of vagrants (escaped or escaping prisoners). Want of space forbids a detailed account. Suffice it to say that the volume is exceedingly interesting both in matter and in manner. The translator deserves the thanks of every reader for marking the accents of all Russian proper names. And we must put on record to her credit the fact that she did *not* write the note on page 78, which mistakenly speaks of "the Yakúts or inhabitants of Yakútsk"; the Yakúts being one of several races inhabiting the district whose capital is Yakútsk. The editor or proof-reader, in his anxiety to distinguish the author's notes, appended to all others the abbreviation "Tr."

The work of the translators of the volumes under notice is, with some qualification, most praiseworthy. Mr. Dole sometimes misses the meaning, and sometimes obscures it, as though not quite sure whether the point be this or that. When he gets the meaning—which is usually—it is well expressed, with words well chosen. In the matter of the exact and full apprehension of the sense, both Americans stand at a disadvantage in comparison with Mrs. Delano, who, as the publishers' advertisement informs us, is "a cultivated Russian lady living in Boston"; while she, again, has had so much experience with our language that not an idiomatic fault appears, and her work is very smooth. It would of course be a truism to remark that, in translating, not only the sense but also the style should be reproduced as far as possible. In the case of Russian the difficulties are probably as great as in any other language that can be named. But, with all due respect for the opinion of others, we think this object may be more nearly attained by a somewhat closer literalness, a less frequent resort to circumlocution and to the combination of two or three sentences into one. As a simple example, chosen at random, take the title of one of the tales: "Where there is love there is God." A literal rendering would, we think, give both more grace and greater strength: "Where love [is], there [is] also God."

MARTINEAU'S STUDY OF RELIGION.

A Study of Religion. By James Martineau, D.D., LL.D. 2 vols., 8vo. Oxford: The Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan & Co. 1888.

The distinguished "Principal of Manchester New College, London," was educated when Paley and the Bridgewater school were in the ascendant, and their influence is traceable in all that he has ever said upon the affiliated problems of philosophy and theology. He has an unmistakable flavor of conservative sympathies, although not wanting in appreciation for the changes made during his lifetime. A Nonconformist and Unitarian by training and education, if not by birth, we should have expected that freedom from the trammels of traditional views which would insure less recalcitration against the revolutionary effects of progress. Two generations ago he would have been viewed with suspicion, because his resistance to the assumptions of orthodoxy implied logical consequences of the most reprehensible kind. But intellectual development is not always in the direction anticipated by alarmists. Fear and prophecy are not infallible guides. For Dr. Martineau has not kept pace with the tendencies to agnosticism charged to the spirit of rationalism. He appears now to many as a conservative of the conservatives. He is an irreconcilable in regard to evolution, and his previous work on ethics marks close affinities with the theonomic views of Martensen. He is not, however, behind the most advanced discoveries of science; nor is he wanting in the peculiar endowments of the philosopher, that comprehensive range of abilities which extend, like the mind of Leibnitz, with almost equal freedom and ease over all the possibilities of knowledge. Perhaps no Englishman except Herbert Spencer can compare with him equally in this respect. Others may be greater in single fields, but they will be less able to command with his logical and literary power the resources of physics, mathematics, natural history, ancient and modern philosophy, psychology, and theology for a comprehensive survey of all phenomena; or to use so forcibly against opponents the weapons of scepticism.

Nevertheless, after every tribute of praise has been ungrudgingly bestowed, there remains a firm suspicion that any conversion which might accrue to his masterly argument and exposition will only be temporary, and that the next reading of a scientific book will inevitably shunt us off into the fatal vortex of unbelief. The reason for this is a fact which our author, and writers of that school generally, have failed to remark with sufficient clearness. It is the universal demand of science that we put general theories and statements to the test of actual experience. Thus, if we assert the "goodness" of God and also his creation and government of the world, science merely requires that we see whether its administration conforms to our idea of goodness. If God is said to answer prayer, science would test this belief by the same method which it employs to estimate the claims for "thought transference." We shall not decide which is right; we are only indicating a tendency.

The present volumes have been awaited with considerable interest by students and scholars. They are the sequel to the 'Types of Ethical Theory,' which appeared about three years ago. It is an important and significant fact that the author conditions religion upon ethical postulates—a position the very reverse of theonomic systems current in the past, and one which seems to contradict his theory of duty laid down in his 'Types.' There he had traced the

source of obligation in the last analysis to the authority of the Divine will. It was for this that Prof. Sidgwick took him so severely to task, and made his objections so cogent that most writers have acquiesced in their effectiveness. But here ethics are made the condition of theism, and we are left to conjecture in what sense they are so. We suspect, however, that the author is not aware of the full extent of his concession. It is one that certainly accords with the present necessity of reconstructing ethics upon a more assured basis than the changing fortunes of theological speculation. But to reverse the commonly accepted order of dependence will raise the question whether, after all, theistic beliefs have the importance we have attached to them. They may still seem to Dr. Martineau to have it; but he may be unconscious of retaining a reverence for beliefs which came to him from the theological view, and remain by association after he has completely reversed the relation of their connection and dependence. Of course, his defence will be the distinction between the *ratio essendi* of ethical and the *ratio cognoscendi* of theistic conceptions. But after we have conceded a prior importance to the gnosiological, we must apprehend a diminished interest in the ontological problem.

The extent to which the discussion represents the title will depend upon the view we take of "religion." Those whose conceptions of it are determined more by its cult than its creed, more by its forms of worship than its speculative doctrines, will find little to their taste here. Educated Unitarians, to whom the subject is mostly a philosophy, can accept it as a "Study of Religion"; but readers generally must resort to it for metaphysics and not for piety. The definition of "religion" is clear and admissible, and most conservative minds will find the author's emotional sympathies all enlisted in favor of the highest objects of reverence and hope. His philosophy is tempered by the emotional experience of a regenerated humanity, seeking a higher than itself; and, as expounded, comprehends a wider range of mental culture than the colder intellectual tastes of Unitarians usually allot to it. There is no display of intellectual pride at the achievements of liberalism, and none of the spiritual self-gratulation which led even Theodore Parker to say of his own sect, that "they were the most self-complacent people that ever took ship for the kingdom." But still, the spirit of rationalism which more intelligent students will be able to remark in every fibre of its structure, reveals no attachments to that view of religion which makes a fetish of a book, or shows an enthusiasm for surplices and rituals. It is on this account that many will see in it a suppressed tendency towards that position which can only be regarded as the last refuge of retreating thought.

There are four topics discussed, namely, "The Limits of Human Intelligence," "Theism," "Review of Opposing Systems," and "The Life to Come." Throughout the work, philosophic readers will be pleased to find what they missed in the 'Types of Ethical Theory,' namely, discussions of Kantian psychology and ethics, the former in the first, and the latter in the third topic. Most of us have been curious to know what the author would say about Kant, although tolerably able to guess from incidental sources the general direction which his exposition and criticism would take. But we cannot say that he has been happy in his efforts. It is too evident that he has not emancipated himself from the method of Locke and the principles of the "common-sense" school. Indeed, he seems not to have appreciated profoundly the problems raised by the philosophy of Locke, Berkeley, and Hume, and hence misses entirely the true position from which to estimate the great Königsberger. He is everywhere too sensitive about the relativity of knowledge, fearing that the least concession to that doctrine must land him in agnosticism, for which he has an antipathy much like that of Cato against Carthage. Of the discussions in particular we need only notice those on "teleology" and "the life to come."

Prof. Huxley at first thought evolution fatal to teleology, but later confessed his error. The chief difficulty, however, which it raises, Dr. Martineau does not seem to realize. It is not because evolution is a disguised form of chance, as the author imagines, that it seems so fatal to teleology, which implies ethical as well as intellectual attributes, but because its administration in accordance with the right of the strong is inconsistent with our highest ideas of intelligence and goodness. Thus it shows that the strong survive and the weak perish in "the struggle for existence." It is a reduction of the phenomena of nature to a formula in mechanics, where the resultant invariably accords with the superiority of physical force and prohibits all other interference. Now, "the survival of the fittest" so far explains the existence and improvement of organic structures that its most apparent implication indicates a course of things which seems to our minds a limitation of all ability to make it otherwise. The supernatural is subordinated and restricted, if it exist at all. Thus the Divine Being must either be limited in his power, or be identical with physical force. In the former case he is finite, in the latter he is not moral.

The discussion of anthropomorphism is judicious and able, but mostly a refutation of sceptical accusations. The complete confusion to which the author reduces Prof. Tyndall, and such as he, will be appreciated by all lovers of logic, whatever their sympathies. But, although one's argument for intelligence in the "world ground" may be conclusive, the crucial question is: "What relation does it sustain to man?" Does it accord with our ideals and aims, and if not, what qualifications must be added in order to call it intelligence at all? If it is not regardful of human interests, there is a diminished importance in defending its existence. We are in the position of Epicurus, who admitted the existence of the gods, but denied their participation in the affairs of the world. In such a case, theism might be admitted and still derive no value for regulating either conduct or belief.

The reply to the "alleged blemishes in nature" is exposed to a like criticism. While it serves as a most admirable check upon scientific dogmatism, it nevertheless attains its end only by admitting in reality the whole accusation of the sceptic, as the following passage will show:

> "The field-mouse, stealing through the grass in the safe darkness, catches the night-eye of the owl, and is devoured. In all such cases there is undoubtedly a sacrifice of single organisms without realizing their capabilities; and if it were the end of Nature (as it is ours) to preserve each of her offspring to full development, this would constitute failure. But so long as the life that drops into her bosom reappears in new births, nothing is really lost, and her purpose is untouched by mere change of instances. The teleology of nature must be sought, not in individuals, but in kinds."

Now, it is precisely the sacrifice of the individual that the sceptic has to complain of, and it is no refutation of him to point to the general good of the type. Besides, this view has dangerous and unwelcome consequences for another doctrine, as we shall see below.

The point of departure in discussing "the life to come" is enforced by an incident from the life of Schleiermacher, which is designed to show the incurable weakness of pantheism—namely, its affinities with the doctrine of Nirvana. From this, along with other considerations of philosophic import, Dr. Martineau would have us conclude to a personal existence beyond the grave as the only condition which will satisfy the demands of human nature. But if we can rescue the divine benevolence only by showing its exertion in behalf of the race, and not of the individual, can we invoke it when desiring to defend personal immortality against the claims of pantheism? The difficulty here is the old one, and it still remains unsolved. It is the conflict between philosophic tendencies in one direction and human interests in another. Their reconciliation remains for the future.

Robert Southey. The Story of his Life Written in his Letters. Edited by John Dennis. Boston: D. Lothrop Co.

THIS compilation from Southey's correspondence, with an introduction and some biographical notes to connect the letters, is as successful as was to be looked for. The selection is on the whole judicious, and shows the course of Southey's career in its successive periods, with his temperament and circumstances during each; the character of that long labor of his life; his confidence, as yet unjustified, in the immortality of his poems; and his manly constancy and Christian faith under the hard requirements of a bread-winning life and the repeated strokes of misfortune in the loss of children and wife. It was an original, but infelicitous, thought of Southey's to extend the ballad into an epic form, but in spite of having pleased many men worth pleasing, from Sir Walter Scott to Dean Stanley, and even such a poet as Shelley, the whole fleet of Madoc, Kehama, and Roderick have gone down like so many Spanish galleons of the old time, and the ballad has come back to us again with Sir Richard Grenville in its true immortality. It is not likely that the future inhabitants of Brazil will look back to the writer of their early history in the way that he fondly hoped—"No, Chauncey Townshend, it is not all; and I should deal insincerely with you if I did not add that ages hence it will be found among their works which are not destined to perish, and secure for me a remembrance in other countries as well as in my own; that it will be read in the heart of S. America, and communicate to the Brazilians, when they shall have become a powerful nation, much of their own history which would otherwise have perished, and be to them what the work of Herodotus is to Europe." The parallel has not yet been made, save by himself; but the Life of Nelson is still a good narrative, and outlasts everything else from his pen. When that shall have been condensed, and has passed into the British Plutarch, then will still be left the memory of a name which has been honored more than any other of his contemporaries for sterling virtues, as the old phrase went, and as an example of fortitude, labor, and common manhood. It was the perception of this moral strength that made Sir Henry Taylor affirm that it might be said of him "justly, and with no straining of the truth, that of all his contemporaries he was the greatest man"; and, without endorsing the form of the expression, we may acknowledge the truth that it conveys. Letters, however, are an incomplete expression of such a charac-

ter, and yet they have the advantage of making the reader more intimate with Southey than does formal biography. The great fault of the book is the lack of an index, which might have been easily made.

Classic German Course in English. By William Cleaver Wilkinson. Chautauqua Press. 1887.

We have here another popular book consisting of biographical sketches of the principal classical authors of Germany, with illustrative specimens of their works in English translations. Such books have now come to be rather numerous, and Mr. Wilkinson naturally feels himself called upon to explain wherein his volume differs from preceding ones of the same general kind. He accordingly states that his book is, in the first place, smaller than the others. Secondly, it is "not merely or chiefly historical and critical," but is "historical and critical incidentally." Finally, it does not "present long translated extracts in bare unbroken bulk," but does "present considerable extracts, interrupted, connected, elucidated, and appreciated by means of quasi-editorial comment in explanation and appraisal." "In other words," continues our author, "taking translated German text, select and representative, for the basis, the backbone, of the book, we shall seek so to edit the text as to invest it with flesh, its own flesh, to inspire it with breath, its own breath, to give it a heart, its own heart; in short, to make it live, and with its own life, to our readers."

Not a bad programme, certainly. We may add that the book is written from the point of view of evangelical orthodoxy, and that it is, we suppose, intended for use in the Chautauqua classes. The passages translated strike us as in the main well chosen, although many of them have often done duty as illustrative specimens before. The translations are taken from various sources, the author only now and then giving a version of his own. As to the quality of the "criticism, elucidation, and appraisal" which Mr. Wilkinson gives us, we were quite prepared for his statement that the selection, translation, and condensation of the illustrative passages cost him more labor and thought than the writing of the original text. In dealing with Luther, Klopstock, Gerhardt, and other pious writers, our author is sympathetic, and a trustworthy "guide" for those who need such guidance; but in speaking of Lessing, Herder, Wieland, and Heine, he shows his limitations. The essay upon Goethe, for example, is one long misrepresentation. It consists of statements, not usually quite devoid of foundation, but so connected and construed and with necessary qualifications so skilfully omitted, as to give a total impression which is radically wrong. As to the author's literary judgments, we quote a sentence or two: "In 1826 Heine had published the first instalment of his masterpiece, the 'Pictures of Travel'; what has there been in German literature since?" "'Faust' is dull reading, very dull reading, to the average English speaker." "We shall not conceal our own confident opinion that the time will come when men will wonder that ever such a heterolite production imposed itself on several generations of readers, or rather of critics, as a true triumph of genius and art."

The Bastille. By Capt. the Hon. D. Bingham. 2 vols. Scribner & Welford. 1888.

We do not think we can better describe the work of "Captain the Hon. D. Bingham" than by likening it to that of the organ-grinder. Every writer on history who is worth listening to combines natural and acquired qualifications. We do not, in all cases, expect or desire the wild violin-improvisation of Carlyle, or the showy though careless brilliancy of Macaulay, or the correct and conscientious but dull and mechanical proficiency of Freeman, or the degradation of the music to mere accompaniment to a political ditty, which is charged against Taine and Treitschke; but one does demand some scholarship and individuality of mind—not mere crank-turning. Yet this is all that is accomplished by the Hon. Mr. Bingham. Given a subject like the Bastille, and the only limit to the amount of matter, relevant and irrelevant, which one may write thereon, is the publisher's estimate of the cost of manufacture. But even in works of this class there is a difference of quality, to the degree that want of originality may largely be atoned for by grace of style. But Mr. Bingham's style is utterly without vigor or euphony, and is so careless that he ignores the difference between "who" and "whom." There is nothing to say about the topics treated. A popular history of the Bastille is necessarily an anecdotic history of France for four centuries, and this differs from other works of the kind only in being less attractive. Those who have no other means of informing themselves about the League, the Fronde, Mazarin, Richelieu, and the Iron Mask—not to mention two or three hundred less conspicuous characters and incidents—may find the book worth examination. As in all British histories, the print is excellent. The illustrations, on the other hand, are shabby.

The Theory and Practice of Archery. By the late Horace Ford, champion archer of England for the years 1850 to 1859 and 1867. New edition, thoroughly revised and rewritten, by W. Butt, M.A., for many years Hon. Secretary of the Royal Toxophilite Society. Longmans, Green & Co. 1887.

We can recommend this book as a thoroughly comprehensive work on practical archery. It will be especially valuable to those who take more than a superficial interest in the subject, and to whom the ordinary manuals are by no means satisfactory. Mr. Ford was the founder of modern scientific archery, and his best scores, whether at public matches or made in private practice, have never been surpassed. We feel sure that those who have some experience in archery, and who are fortunate enough to obtain a copy of this book, will feel renewed enthusiasm for the pastime, and will find a marked improvement in their scores after a careful study of it. The chapter on aiming is of special interest, as Mr. Ford's experience proved that an arrow drawn directly beneath the aiming eye was more certain in its flight than one drawn to the ear according to tradition, and his unusual success was greatly due to this fact. The last part of the book contains the records of public matches in England, and also gives some remarkable scores made in private practice. These are naturally most interesting and useful to those anxious to improve and to have some standard of excellence. Altogether, the work deserves to be owned by every one who practises archery. It will, we feel sure, meet a long-felt want.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alden's Manifold Cyclopædia of Knowledge and Language. Vol. I. A to America. John B. Alden. 50 cents.
Alexander, Mrs. A Life Interest. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
American Almanac for 1888. Am. News Co.
American and English Yachts. Chas. Scribner's Sons.
Annual Index to Periodicals, for 1887. Bangor, Me.: W. M. Griswold.
Ashton, J. A Century of Ballads. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $7.50.
Barnard, F. P. Strongbow's Conquest of Ireland. London: David Nutt; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Becker, K. F. Friedrich der Grosse. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan & Co. 90 cents.
Besant, W. Herr Paulus: His Rise, his Greatness, and his Fall. Harper & Bros. 35 cents.
Bigelow, J. Complete Works of Benjamin Franklin. Vol. VI. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $5.
Bradley, H. Story of the Goths. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.
Burnett, Mrs. F. H. Sara Crewe. Chas. Scribner's Sons.
Cary, Rosa N. Only the Governess. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 25 cents.
Cassell's Complete Pocket-Guide to Europe. New ed. Cassell & Co. $1.50.
Chadwick, Rev. G. A. Gospel according to St. Mark. A. C. Armstrong & Son. $1.50.
Clayton, G. Pleasant Waters: A Story of Southern Life and Character. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Clodd, E. The Story of Creation: a Plain Account of Evolution. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.75.
Colton, G. Q. Shakspere and the Bible. Parallel Passages. Thos. R. Knox & Co.
Comenius, J. A. Orbis Pictus. Syracuse, N. Y.: C. W. Bardeen. $3.
Cook, W. W. Trusts: the Recent Combinations in Trade. L. K. Strouse & Co. 25 cents.
Cushing, W. Initials and Pseudonyms. 2d Series. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $3.
Darnell, H. F. Philip Hazelbrook; or, The Junior Curate. Buffalo: C. L. Sherrill & Co.
Dulac, G. Before the Dawn: a Story of Paris and the Jacquerie. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.
Emerson, J. M. Stimulants. Dick & Fitzgerald. 50 cents.
Forbes, G. Lectures on Electricity. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Goldsmith, O. The Traveller, and Deserted Village. Macmillan & Co. 50 cents.
Goldsmith, O. The Vicar of Wakefield. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Hawthorne, J. David Poindexter's Disappearance, and Other Tales. D. Appleton & Co. 50 cents.
Hawthorne, J. Section 558, or the Fatal Letter. Cassell & Co. $1.
King, Harriet E. H. The Disciples. 9th ed. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $1.50.
Koopman, H. L. Orestes, and Other Poems. Buffalo: Moulton, Wenborne & Co. $1.
Lewis, Rev. A. H. Critical History of Sunday Legislation (321—1888). D. Appleton & Co.
Life of P. T. Barnum Written by Himself. Brought up to 1888. Bridgeport, Conn.: H. E. Bowser. 60 cents.
MacLeod, A. C. Love the Fulfilling of the Law. Extracts from the Writings and MSS. of the late Norman MacLeod, D.D. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $1.75.
McCosh, Rev. J. The Religious Aspect of Evolution. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Mercier C. The Nervous System and the Mind. Macmillan & Co. $4.
Meyer, Prof. L. Modern Theories of Chemistry. Longmans, Green & Co. $5.50.
Moore, Miss N. Pilgrims and Puritans: The Story of the Planting of Plymouth and Boston. Boston: Ginn & Co. 85 cents.
Murray, W. H. H. The Doom of Mamelons. Philadelphia: Hubbard Bros.
Newell, C. M. The Voyage of the Fleetwing. Boston: De Wolfe, Fiske & Co. $1.50.
O'Rell, Max. John Bull, jr., or French as She is Traduced. Cassell & Co. $1.
Palmer, Mary T. The Doctor of Deane. Boston: D. Lothrop Co.
Pennell, J. and E. Our Sentimental Journey through France and Italy. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.75.
Proudhon, P. J. System of Economical Contradictions; or, the Philosophy of Misery. Vol. I. Boston: Benj. R. Tucker. $3.50.
Rambaud, Prof. A. Histoire de la Civilisation Contemporaine en France. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.
Richter, Prof. V. von. Text-book of Inorganic Chemistry. 3d ed. Philadelphia: P. Blakiston, Son & Co.
Robinson, Rev. Chas. S. Laudes Domini. Abridged ed. The Century Co.
Ross, Rev. A. H. The Church-Kingdom; Lectures on Congregationalism. Boston: Congregational Sunday-School and Publishing Society. $2.50.
Russell, Irwin. Poems. The Century Co. $1.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 15, 1888.

The Week.

THE Senate on Thursday passed a new Dependent Pension Bill, in the precise form in which it was prepared by the Pension Committee of the Grand Army of the Republic, and accepted by the Pension Committee of the Senate. The bill was drawn by the Grand Army men expressly with a view to avoiding the objections urged by the President to the bill which he vetoed last year, chief of which was the fact that the language of the latter regarding "disability" was "so uncertain, and liable to such conflicting constructions, and subject to such unjust and mischievous application, as to alone furnish sufficient ground for disapproving the proposed legislation." The new bill does seem to meet this objection, inasmuch as it expressly provides that the disability which entitles men to pensions must be a disability "which *totally* incapacitates them for the performance of labor." Strong efforts were made by Mr. Plumb and other Republicans to strike out this word "totally," as a concession to the President's scruples which the Senate ought not to make, but the majority insisted upon finally passing the bill with this important qualification retained.

Unfortunately, there are other features of the bill which are not so clear as might be desired, and Senators themselves differed so much as to the construction of sundry clauses that the real scope of the measure must remain a matter of doubt. This uncertainty of mind is reflected in the vote. The yeas on the passage of the bill were 44 and the nays 16. Allowing for 10 Senators who were paired, 70 out of the 76 members of the Senate virtually declared their attitude, of whom 49 favored the measure and 21 opposed it. Of these, 36 were Republicans and 34 Democrats. All of the 36 Republicans favored the bill. Of the 34 Democrats 13 favored it and 21 opposed. The Republicans could have been counted upon to support any pension measure, however sweeping, while the Democrats would probably have been solid in opposing a bill which they considered as opening the door to a great and unwarrantable extension of the pension list. More than half of the Democrats evidently held to this view of the pending bill, but nearly half of them thought it so well guarded as to deserve their support. It is noteworthy that among these Southern Democrats in the affirmative were "Confederate brigadiers" like Hampton of South Carolina, George and Walthall of Mississippi, Kenna and Faulkner of West Virginia, a rebel "war Governor" like Brown of Georgia, and a Confederate legislator like Pugh of Alabama, to whom must be added that Republican "rebel," Riddleberger of Virginia.

The investigation of Trusts has been taken up at Washington city. This is the right place, because it is at Washington city that the Great Trust, viz., the Tariff, is under investigation. It is altogether proper and fitting that the little Trusts and the great one should be put alongside of each other. As we anticipated, one of the pleas for the little ones is that Trusts are necessary because wages are so much higher here than in Europe. Mr. Parsons, in behalf of the Sugar Trust, according to the *Herald's* report, said that "labor was paid two or three times as high here as in Europe." This is probably an erroneous report of what Mr. Parsons said, because there is no such disparity between the United States and England, which was the country under consideration. In order to find a place where such disparity exists, we must go to some country like Russia, where wages are so low, as compared with those of England, that protective tariffs are maintained to keep English goods out. It is a singular fact that low wages in England constitute the reason for protective tariffs in the United States, while high English wages are the reason for protective tariffs in France and Germany. But it is not at all singular that the wages argument should be harnessed into the service of the Trusts. Every reason that brings this argument into the service of the tariff fits equally the case of the Trust. A high price for the article sold enables the producer to pay high wages—*argal*, he pays high wages. Let the Trust investigation go on at Washington city, but not at Albany. Let the big Trust and the little ones stand side by side, and prove their absurdities by comparison with each other.

The Burlington Railroad has promptly initiated legal proceedings against the Wabash, under the Inter-State Commerce Act, for unlawful discrimination in refusing to take freight from the Burlington. The Wabash happens to be in the hands of a receiver, and is, therefore, subject to the peremptory orders of the United States Circuit Court. That the necessary orders will be given there can be no doubt, because, whatever a railroad superintendent like Mr. St. John of the Rock Island may do, no court can set the example of disregarding a law of Congress. The written refusal of Mr. St. John to obey the law ought to be the prelude to his dismissal from the service of his company. He says that his engineers refuse to haul Burlington cars, and that in his judgment it is better not to haul them than to have a strike on his road and put the people along his line to great inconvenience. The law makes Mr. St. John liable to a fine of $5,000 for each refusal to take freight when offered to him. We hope that the Burlington will make several tenders each day and prosecute every one of them vigorously, besides making claim for damages to the parties injured by the non-delivery of their goods. Of course the Brotherhood of Engineers have put it down in their note-books that the Rock Island Company is a soft concern, and a fit subject for future attack and spoliation.

The Hon. Mr. Plumb, a member of Congress from Illinois, has asked and obtained leave to print six pages in the *Congressional Record* to prove that the 4 per cent. Government bonds are redeemable at the present time at par, following up this thesis with a gallant attack on the present Administration for buying these bonds at a premium. Mr. Plumb's argument is of various kinds and degrees of absurdity, but the chief point is that the Public Credit Act of 1869, reenacted in the Revised Statutes in 1873, provided that the United States might redeem any of its bonds before maturity if United States notes (greenbacks) should then be convertible into coin at par at the option of the holder. What the act in question said was, that "none of the interest-bearing obligations, not already due, shall be redeemed or paid before maturity, unless at such time United States notes shall be convertible into coin at the option of the holder." It is easy to see that these two propositions—the one in the law and the one in Mr. Plumb's cranium—are identical, just as a horse chestnut is a chestnut horse.

Senator Cameron of Pennsylvania on Thursday presented eleven petitions of citizens of that State "praying that no reduction be made in the tariff duties or in the internal-revenue taxes." In other words, these conservative citizens petition Congress to collect from the people a hundred million dollars, more or less, every year, that the Government has no use for, and cannot get rid of in any honest way. The right of petition is sacred, and we would not have it curtailed. But the character of these petitions suggests the important query what mankind will do when, in the course of revolving ages, the United States Treasury shall have absorbed all the money in the world. As no period of time is mentioned when any taxes shall be repealed, it behooves us to devise some method of transacting business without money. Certain persons of a speculative turn of mind have now and then propounded the plan of trading by a "tabular standard of value." Perhaps Mr. Cameron's constituents have this plan in view, and are seeking to direct public attention to that reform by preventing us from having any old-fashioned money at all.

Mr. Sherman's bid for the anti-Chinese vote turns out to have been nothing but a piece of sharp practice. Finding that his record on the anti-Chinese bills of a few years ago rendered him unavailable as a Republican candidate on the Pacific Coast, he resolved to capture that part of the country by a great show of attention to its wishes now. So he introduced a resolution, and had it passed, asking the President to negotiate a new treaty regarding Chinese emigration. This would have been bad enough as a transpa-

rent piece of electioneering if the idea of such a treaty had really been original with him, and he had been sincere in his apparent effort to stir up the Administration to action. But it turns out that, as Chairman of the Committee on Foreign Relations, Mr. Sherman knew that the Administration had been for a long time engaged in efforts to secure such a treaty, and consequently that he was guilty of false pretences in trying to pose as the champion of the Pacific Coast. If the Ohio Senator has any friends, it is time for them to interfere, or the Presidential bee will soon make him a national laughing-stock.

Mr. Henry George, in the *Standard*, supplies an illustration of the wages fallacy by a discourse on the tariff on bottles. Some years ago Mr. Siemens, the German inventor, discovered a new process for making the cheaper kind of bottles whereby the cost was greatly reduced. He offered to sell the process to the bottle makers of the United States, but as it involved the destruction of the old process and the loss of the capital invested in it, they refused to buy it. Mr. Siemens then said that he should undersell them in the United States, because he could pay the duty and still sell cheaper than they could. They replied that they "would see about that." So they went to Congress and got the duty raised to 200 per cent. ad valorem, effectually checkmating Mr. Siemens's benevolent intentions. They then lowered the wages of their workmen, established a lockout, and at the end of a long struggle starved their operatives into a surrender. In this way the theory of high wages under a prohibitory tariff was vindicated in the bottle trade.

Ex-Gov. Bullock of Georgia, the last Republican Governor of that State, continues his good work of spiking the guns of those Northern Republicans who want to make a bloody-shirt campaign this year. As everybody knows, Georgia is the State most depended upon for figures by the Republican organs and stump-speakers which argue that there is not "a free ballot and a fair count," and that the Republican vote is suppressed, because few ballots are cast for Republican candidates. Ex-Gov. Bullock meets this charge fairly and squarely. He says: "The fact that the ten Congressmen from Georgia were elected by 26,000 votes, and without opposition, does not by any means prove that it was either a dishonest vote or an unfair count. It only proves that there was no issue about which our people contended, or upon which we differed among ourselves." He says that if the issue of protection or free trade can be made, "every man—white, black, and yellow—in Georgia will vote according to his convictions, and the votes will be counted as cast"; but that "if the question in issue is the supposed suppression of votes, no one will bother his head about it, for every one knows that it is a false issue, and one in which we take no interest."

When Mr. Sherman made his famous Nashville speech last year, he gave utterance to this most patriotic sentiment: "The war is over, thank God; but the courage, bravery, and fortitude of both sides are now the pride and heritage of us all." This tribute to the valor of "rebels" was no sooner published than "Bill" Chandler and others of the party Bourbons began denouncing Mr. Sherman, and he was forced to recant in his Springfield speech, wherein he denounced every "rebel" as unworthy to hold office. Happily Mr. Sherman could not wipe out the printed report of his Nashville speech, and we are very glad to note that the words which we have quoted have been selected by the surviving members of the Federal and Confederate divisions that participated in the charge of Pickett's corps at Gettysburg, and will be graven on the monument that these former enemies propose to erect on that memorable field near the so-called "Bloody Angle." It would have been much better for Mr. Sherman's reputation if he had told "Bill" Chandler and the rest of the Bourbons that he "would rather be right than be President," and that he would stand by his Nashville speech, for in that case he would certainly have been right and might have been President, whereas his recantation put it out of his power to be either.

The "crisis" is on again. This time it is in Augusta and Bangor, Me. A week ago Monday it was in Lewiston and other Maine cities, and in Des Moines, Iowa. A fortnight before it was in Syracuse, N. Y. From the point of view of common sense, the question in each city was simply whether one or another man should be Mayor, but in the politicians' view, the issue has been whether "free trade" should be endorsed, whether the city would "keep her place in the Republican line"; whether the voters should help to secure "a Republican State and a Republican President next fall." The result has varied greatly. Senator Hiscock appealed to Syracuse to "indicate the sturdiness of Republican politics in Central New York in this Presidential year," and the city went Democratic by almost 800 majority. The great Manley informed the world after the elections in Lewiston and other Maine cities, on Monday week, that "Maine repudiates the free-trade message"; but as Des Moines the same day elected a Democratic Mayor, it looked as though, by parity of reasoning, Iowa endorsed free trade. Of course no such issue was really involved in the elections anywhere; and after seeing the mixed character of the results, the politicians will probably be ready to admit that they have been talking nonsense.

There could be no better evidence of the growth of thrift in the South than the introduction of the cent. In the old days nobody bothered with so small a thing as a cent, and the nickel was the smallest change that passed current. Even to this day in Georgia the "rules governing the transportation of passengers" laid down by the State Railroad Commission provide that "when the passenger fare does not end in 5 or 0, the nearest sum so ending shall be the fare. For example, for 27 cents, collect 25 cents; for 28 cents, collect 30 cents." But the South has gradually discovered that it is not beneath its dignity to look after the pennies, and the Commission has just amended this rule by providing that railroad companies after May 1 shall collect the exact mileage if they can make the necessary change, and, in case they cannot, shall not collect more than the next lowest amount ending in 5 or 0. This, of course, makes it for the advantage of the railroad companies to lay in a supply of cents, so that they can make the exact change, and, once accustomed to the penny in paying railroad fare, the people will soon learn to insist upon it in all transactions. And they will find that it "will be money in their pockets."

Some curious results appear in statistics furnished by Mr. Harrison Branthwaite, keeper of a home for inebriates at Twickenham, England. Mr. Branthwaite's conclusion is that "drunkenness is a disease amenable, like other diseases, to careful treatment." No doubt his qualification, "like other diseases," is to be construed strictly; that is, there are many incurable cases. Still, out of fifty patients under treatment for an average period of about five months, only nine have "relapsed," while eleven have become total abstainers. In nineteen out of the fifty cases an hereditary disposition to drink existed. An analysis of causes shows a convivial disposition in fifteen cases, while forty-two were "social" in habit, only one being "morose" and one "gloomy"; "domestic worry" drove eleven to drink, and "business worry" was the cause of seven instances. Blaine editors should take notice that "election work" is responsible for one case out of fifty. A useful moral may be drawn from the statement that of the patients on Mr. Branthwaite's list twenty-three were given to "all kinds" of stimulants, while it includes only one addicted exclusively to wine, and one who indulged in beer solely.

It becomes more and more evident every day that the feature of Blaine's withdrawal which most worries the Blaine men is the fear that the Republican party may possibly nominate somebody for whom some Mugwump may vote. In the discussion of candidates, it is already made plain that a good word from a Mugwump in favor of any man is accounted sufficient reason for "straight Republicans" to drop him from consideration. Thus, the Cincinnati *Commercial Gazette* remarks that "the Mugwump and Cleveland papers in New York and Philadelphia are taking a good deal too much interest in Judge Gresham as a Republican candidate to commend him to Republicans. Able editors who did, or propose to, support Cleveland for the Presidency, should not imagine that they will be consulted about the Republican candidates." The best expression of this feeling which we have anywhere found appears in the Gloversville *Intelligencer*, a Republican organ published in Fulton Coun-

ty in this State. The *Intelligencer* explains that it mourns over Mr. Blaine's withdrawal in part because it had hoped to fight the next Presidential contest on that line, and because it believed that he would win by an overwhelming majority, but chiefly for another reason, which must be stated in its own words:

"But over and beyond these causes of sorrow there's one that sinks deep into our soul—that eats into our innermost heart and burns like the fires of sheol—and that is, that the withdrawal of Blaine from the contest may, and probably will, afford a pretext for George William Curtis, George Jones, and other nasty little Mugwumps to support the Republican ticket next fall."

This fear that objectionable people may vote your ticket is one of the most curious things ever known in the history of politics. How Abraham Lincoln would have laughed over the idea that the Republican party might get too many votes because some "nasty" people proposed to vote for it! However, it is of no use to laugh over the idea, for it is really a very serious matter to the people who entertain it. What must be done is to devise some means by which these objectionable voters may be kept from supporting the Republican ticket. The thorough-going Blaine men still insist that the only certain method is to nominate Blaine anyway. But it would be well to be prepared for all contingencies, and in case Blaine is not nominated, there must be some assurance that the man who is nominated will not get any more votes than Blaine would. How would it do to draw up a list of possible candidates any one of whom the "nasty little Mugwumps" would pledge themselves not to vote for, and any one of whom, therefore, would be eligible.

Massachusetts towns have the chance to vote on the question of licensing the sale of liquor every year, and the same swinging of the pendulum from one extreme to the other which occurs so regularly in the large cities is often noted in the smaller places. Of twenty-three towns in the western part of the State which voted last week six went for license which went against it last year, while two went against it now which went for it last year. The aggregate vote of all twenty-three towns showed 739 majority against license last year and 342 for license this year.

We presume Mayor Hewitt has done nothing to give more genuine pleasure to a large body of people than his blunt refusal to review the Irish procession on St. Patrick's Day. The courage of it is so novel that it both delights and amuses, in these days when politicians pass so much of their time looking around to find clubs, or societies, or brotherhoods before which to abase themselves. Moreover, the St. Patrick's procession has always been one of those mistaken modes of commending themselves to American admiration and good wishes into which the Irish are so apt to fall. As a procession it is never impressive, and, in fact, is apt to be a little ridiculous in American eyes. It costs a good deal of money to poor people, and it constitutes a most annoying interruption to traffic at a busy hour of the day. The pretence in which Mayors have always hitherto been in the habit of indulging (we believe Oakey Hall wore a green coat in honor of it), that they considered it something very fine, has been one of the most pitiful episodes in municipal politics, and Mr. Hewitt's refusal to continue the tradition is a good sign of the times. We say good sign of the times, because the attempts of associations and clubs of one sort or another to bully or cow public officials were never so numerous as at present.

Mr. Randall's Tariff Bill may be looked upon as the champion oddity of the session. It does not entirely repeal the liquor taxes, but it puts them in such shape that they might better be repealed. The discrimination between spirits used in the arts, and spirits used as a beverage, and between those distilled from grain and those distilled from fruits, could never be carried into effect on our widely extended and sparsely peopled territory. The duty on sugar is left absolutely untouched, and here Mr. Randall shows a more slavish devotion to the principles of protection than the Republicans. The bill sent to Washington by the Home Market Club of Boston cuts heavily into the sugar duties, and offers a compensating bounty to the planters. The remainder of Mr. Randall's bill is a readjustment of fractions among the protected classes, giving a little more to one and a little less to another, like the country described in one of Bastiat's parables, where the people had resolved that no industry could prosper unless highway robbery were legalized, the roads being apportioned between the different highwaymen, and reapportioned whenever it was found that one was getting more and another less than his fair share. The Republicans, we are convinced, will have nothing to do with Mr. Randall's bill; and since the Democrats will not touch it, the only thing to be done with it is to put it in a show-case and exhibit it as an oddity.

The meetings of Republican State Committees in the Southern States, which are now occurring, do not cut much figure in the despatches, but they well deserve attention. The local papers in the cities where the committees meet, occasionally contribute information of no little significance as to what is going on among the politicians. Thus, the Montgomery *Dispatch*, the Democratic paper published at the capital of Alabama, says that the Republican State Committee in that city last week rendered it evident that Blaine's friends still mean to push his claims and work for his nomination. The *Dispatch* draws this picture of the proceedings: "Money was used here during the meeting of the Committee in the interest of both Blaine and Sherman. Blaine had the biggest pile if not the best 'hand,' and raked in the 'pot.' When a prominent Republican who attended the meeting of the Committee as a spectator, and who is more truthful than discreet, remarked that it is not John Sherman's bloody-shirt record or Blaine's protective-tariff letter which is going to capture the Southern vote, but the *income* tax,' he uttered a vapid truism, and one which, it is quite evident, Steve Elkins appreciates, but of which Sherman's friends seem totally and wholly ignorant." The *Dispatch* concludes that the Montgomery proceedings are only part of a policy which is being carried out through the South, and expresses the opinion that Blaine is going to be nominated.

Without reference to the question of its bearing on the chances of rival candidates, the state of things which is illustrated by this Alabama incident contains much food for thought. The theory of a national convention is that representatives of a political party gather from all parts of the country to decide what man will make the strongest candidate for President. Under normal circumstances, there is a rude sort of equality and fairness in allowing each State a share in the Convention proportioned to the State's share of the total electoral vote for President. But what is known as the "Solid South" casts more than one-third of the electoral votes, and in only half-a-dozen of these sixteen old slave States is the Republican party at present a real political organization. In the other Southern States, the only semblance of an organization is the relic of the machine which was constructed by the Federal office-holders under Republican national administrations. Enough of these managers are left to "go through the motions" of holding conventions and electing delegates, but the delegates have no real constituency which has authorized them to speak for it. Yet Alabama will have more delegates in the Republican National Convention than New Jersey, and Mississippi more than Connecticut; and these delegates, who represent no constituencies, may force a candidate upon States like New Jersey and Connecticut.

Mr. Goschen's proposal to convert the national debt of Great Britain from 3 per cents into 2½ per cents is a very important, though not, as things go, an over-bold transaction. The 3 per cents are now quoted at 102⅜, and would be considerably higher if they were not menaced by the proposed funding scheme, which has been hanging over the market ever since they rose above par. Mr. Goschen's plan proposes that the interest of the new consols shall be 2¾ per cent. for fourteen years, and 2½ per cent. thereafter, effecting a saving to the Treasury of £1,400,000 per year immediately, and £2,800,000 after the expiration of the fourteen years. There is no reason why the plan should not be successfully carried out. The English fundholders have been protesting against it in a feeble and somewhat ludicrous way ever since the project took shape, five or six months ago, but their groans will not be listened to, and of course ought not to be.

THE EFFECT OF THE KAISER'S DEATH.

ALTHOUGH it has been for the last five years, at least, reasonable to expect the death of the German Emperor at any moment, it has had, nevertheless, as the disappearance of any great historic figure must have, the effect of a more or less painful surprise in all civilized countries. People are now asking, with as much anxiety as if he had died at the age of sixty or seventy instead of ninety-one, what is to happen next, how will the German Empire fare, and what will be the effect on the peace of Europe.

In trying to answer these questions, it is well to bear in mind that the Emperor's greatest feat of statecraft was the discovery, promotion, and steady support of Bismarck; and that whenever we examine closely any piece of his policy during the past twenty-five years, we find that its merit lay in a fixed, unswerving, unshakable determination that, through weal or woe, Bismarck should have his way. It is true that Bismarck could not have created the German Empire without having such a sovereign at his back, but it is true also, and in a larger sense, that King William would never have been Kaiser if he had not at the critical moment found a minister whose courage was equal to every occasion. The two men must have passed through awful moments of anxiety together, but Bismarck was probably truthful in claiming that at some of the most awful he had to supply for both the needful amount of unconquerable will; that, in fact, the King's prejudices were among the greatest obstacles he had to overcome in the earlier days of his Titanic task. We shall probably arrive at a clearer conception of the political importance of the Kaiser's death by asking ourselves whether it would at any time within the last twenty years have been possible to carry any measure, either of administration or legislation, in the German Empire without Bismarck's initiative or against his wish. The Minister has in truth been, and is now, the supreme ruler of the empire. He has not only crushed all opponents, but has silenced all critics. For a long time it has been impossible for any man to make a career in German politics who found fault with Bismarck's ways.

Consequently, the great crisis of the German Empire has not yet come, and will not come until Bismarck disappears from the scene. The notion that either the Crown Prince or his son, even if both were in the vigor of health, could get rid of the Prince or his policy, especially in the present state of Europe, is chimerical. Neither of them would probably even attempt such a feat. The fear that Prince William, if he now ascends the throne, can precipitate a quarrel with anybody, ignores the moral forces which, even in the most military of States, lie behind the fleets and armies, and must be controlled before the national strength can be put forth. To mobilize the German Army in a quarrel of which Bismarck did not approve, and which the nation would, therefore, think unnecessary, would be a task for which no sovereign would be equal, and least of all a young and sickly one. The most absolute monarchs in our day are but wheels in the immense social machine. The Czar, who is to outward appearance the only specimen of the old eighteenth-century sovereign left in Christendom, is said to be the least free, in his sphere, of all the Russians. His generals, his bureaucracy, and his revenue collectors surround him with walls of necessity against which he might beat his brains out.

The probabilities are, therefore, that the influence of the Kaiser's death on European politics will be imperceptible, tragic and impressive as the circumstances have made it. There are few more pathetic events in history than the transmission of the crown, in the order of nature, to the gallant soldier and honest gentleman lately thought to be dying by inches at San Remo. If a painter wished to illustrate the vanity of human wishes, to bring home to us with the pencil "what shadows we are and what shadows we pursue," he could hardly choose a better subject than the receipt by the Crown Prince of the news that he had inherited the greatest throne in the world. But this is, after all, the old tale of private sorrow and disappointment. The great crisis in German politics will not come until Prince Bismarck's death is announced. Then, indeed, the wisest man may well hold his breath; for even the warmest admirer of the Prince and of his work must admit that the one thing for which he has in his great career made no provision is a successor. Neither his policy nor his system of government is suited to a world in which the supply of Bismarcks runs short. When his tongue is silent and his busy brain has ceased to plot, and not until then, we shall know what he has done, if anything, to make his work enduring.

A GOOD FIELD FOR REFORM.

SOMETHING needs to be done, and done promptly, about the Indian service, and the only thing that can be done to secure reform is the extension to this service of the civil-service rules. The matter has more than once been laid before the President by the Indian Rights Association of Philadelphia. He has not questioned the accuracy of these reports, and he has acquiesced in the opinion expressed by Mr. Oberly that he has the power, under the law, to extend the operation of the rules to this service. Nevertheless, nothing has been done. All the recent accounts of the doings at the agencies go to show that the spoils system never flourished more vigorously anywhere than it flourishes there. Nevertheless, nowhere is it such a disgrace to the nation. The helplessness and ignorance of the Indians constitute the strongest possible claim on the Administration for care in the appointment of those who are to look after them. Political hacks are bad enough in the post-offices and custom-houses of white men, but in these places they are impositions on people who ought to be able to take care of themselves. Putting them in charge of the Indians is a fraud on the helpless and the poor.

The root of this trouble (and if the President does not know it, it is time he did) is that Mr. Atkins, although personally a most respectable man, is much too simple-minded and good-natured for his place. The real Indian Commissioner is not he, but Mr. Upshaw, his assistant. It is Upshaw who manages Indian affairs, and he manages them not for the benefit of the Indians, but for his own benefit and that of the "party." Nearly every appointment in the Indian service is made by him, or comes direct from him, and is turned to his account in some way. Under his system he manages to place Senators and Congressmen under personal obligations to him. We are informed that when he hears of their election he writes to them asking if they need anything in his line, or, in other words, whether they would like to plant a henchman in the Indian service. It must be said for him, however, that there is nothing partisan in his operations. He "tenders" his good offices to Democrats and Republicans alike, and he consequently has abundance of friends in both parties ready to certify in the hour of need that he is "one of the ablest executive officers in Washington." In short, he lives on terms of close intimacy with the mammon of unrighteousness. Now, it is time he was overhauled. If the President means to put an end to the great discredit the Indian service has been bringing upon his Administration, and destroy the ammunition it will furnish to his enemies next summer, he must begin with Upshaw. There can be no change for the better as long as there is a man in Upshaw's place more occupied with obliging Congressmen than taking proper care of the nation's wards, or a man in Mr. Atkins's place who is willing to let Upshaw have his way.

The effects of the Upshaw system began to show themselves as early as 1886. A good illustration of it was the removal of the farmer at the Cheyenne and Arapahoe Agency, in the summer of that year, to make way for an old gentleman who, by reason of age and permanent infirmity, was, Capt. Bell, the agent, reported, "not suited to discharge the duties of the position." The physician at the post declared him permanently disabled, and an Indian had to be employed to do his duty. Capt. Bell (U. S. A.) continues his report as follows (Sept. 7, 1886):

> "The uncertainty as to tenure of office existing in the minds of employees at this agency, due to the system adopted by the Department of appointing persons to fill various positions who are entirely devoid of experience in Indian affairs, is demoralizing and injurious to the service. Under the present system they feel, and properly so, that the faithful attention to duty, honesty, and efficiency counts for little, and that it is only a question of time when the Department will require their place for some one as a reward for political services. The chief herder, who has faithfully performed his duties at this agency for several years, has recently been removed to give place to the appointment of a young man from Tennessee, who has never had a day's experience in taking care of large herds of cattle on the plains in winter, and I imagine that his first experience with a Dakota blizzard will make him wish for the comforts

of his Tennessee home. The efficient issue clerk has also been removed and his place filled by the appointment, contrary to regulations, of a partner in one of the Indian trading establishments of this place, the removal and appointment having been made by an inspector of the Department, and during the absence of the agent. I have not heard of any charges having been made against either of the persons removed. Until honesty and faithful performance of duty are taken into account and made the basis of tenure of office, and until the Department and its management are entirely and absolutely divorced from politics, but little can be hoped for in the way of material progress.

"The policy now in vogue is degrading and demoralizing. The agent is but a figure-head, and is prevented by the interference of the Department from conducting the affairs of the agency according to commonsense business principles. It is impossible for an agent to maintain a manly sentiment of independence and self-respect, and remain voluntarily in the service; and nine-tenths of the agents, if they express their true sentiments, will endorse what I say. There can be but one head to an Indian agency, and the agent should be that head, if discipline, the mainspring of success, is to be maintained. If an agent is not capable of selecting the persons to serve under him, he is not a fit person for the place, and should be removed."

This report was made a year and a half ago. Things have not mended since then. They have grown worse. Such things always grow worse merely by continuing, like any sore, physical or moral. No bad man or bad practice maintains for any length of time the same degree of badness. Mr. J. B. Harrison, whose competence and high character as an observer are well known to readers of the *Nation*, visited the Indian Boarding School on the Yainax Reserve in southern Oregon in the summer of 1886. He found it in charge of Prof. Leeke, an admirable man whom any other civilized Government would think itself lucky to get in its service. When his term expired, Upshaw got rid of him promptly, probably to oblige his Congressmen. Prof. Painter, who visited the Territory last summer on behalf of the Indian Rights Association, found some Government boarding-schools in which as many as five successive superintendents had served in one year. The condition of some of the schools under Upshaw's men he reported as deplorable.

In fact, it is impossible to resist the conclusion that the Indian service has suffered as no other department of the Government has done from the change of administration in 1884. It has, as far as we can ascertain, all come from the fatal error of putting a weak man at the head of the Bureau, and giving him a smart, active, unscrupulous, and energetic politician to do his work for him. The President cannot have meant this, but he cannot afford to let it go on. Upshaw is too expensive a person for any administration to keep in the house. He cannot get votes out of the Indians, and he disgusts thousands of voters who wish well to President Cleveland's Administration, but to whom cruelty and jobbery and corruption are never so odious as when practised on those who cannot complain.

GRASS.

THE bill introduced in the Senate by Mr. Platt of Connecticut, providing for the establishment of an experimental grass and forage-plant farm, ought not to go without notice by those interested in the expenditure of Government money and those who care for agriculture. It provides for the purchase of a Government farm near the 100th meridian, presumably in western Kansas, or in Nebraska or Dakota, where "extended experiments are to be carried on," with a view to the economic worth and the culture of grasses and forage. In support of the project, attention is called to the value of our grass crop, which aggregates about one thousand millions a year. On the quality of our grasses depends that of our beef, mutton, pork, and whatever else comes of such nutriment. "All flesh is grass," cries the Senator—whether with enthusiasm or sadness we are not informed, though we understand the Scripture quotation to illustrate those remarkable coincidences between science and revelation which the last generation was fond of adducing.

We credit the Senator with a higher motive than the gratification of his own appetite. He desires to promote our agricultural interests. In directing attention to the worth of careful observations on grass culture, he has touched a matter of considerable importance. Whether the establishment of a Government farm may prove to be the wisest way to accomplish his purpose, is a question to be discussed after the desirability of some action has been admitted.

Mr. Platt informs us that the yearly cost of the seed and vegetable section of the Agricultural Bureau is $100,000. No suggestion is given as to the cost of the new project. The first outlay for the farm in the proposed region need not be large. But at its heels follows the need of buildings, tools, and scientific appliances on a scale commensurate with the dignity of a Government establishment for the conduct of "extensive experiments." To these must be added laborers, superintendents, and scientific investigators. The first cost will be small compared with maintenance through even a limited period of years. Annual expenses will not be diminished by the distance of the farm from the office at Washington. To say that the hundred thousand dollars per year now spent on seeds and vegetables would be matched by an equal sum for grasses and forage plants is probably not far from the truth. This would not be an unreasonable sum were the interests of science or practical agriculture to be most effectually furthered by the outlay. On this point we have serious doubt. We do not question that the Western plains, towards which the project partly looks, might, in the end, be helped by a scientific handling of the grasses native to them, and by a judicious selection of forage plants to supplement the grasses; though cultivation has not yet made such progress among the ranches as to suggest much immediate benefit. In so far as the plan contemplates a general investigation of the grasses of the country, the extreme West presents difficulties.

But objections are not urged on account of the proposed location. They arise from the limited benefit to be derived from a single Government farm in any locality. Government cannot establish one farm to conduct experiments which shall be of more than partial value to the whole country. When the people in Washington go into the business of scientific farming, they will find themselves in a very large business, which will require one farm for each important climatic division of the country, and perhaps another for every diversity of soil. Grasses and forage plants are dependent for profitable growth on soil, climate, and fertilizers. These last can be commanded by purchase anywhere. But soil and climate are uncontrollable. Although Mr. Platt states that but little attention has been paid to grasses by the Agricultural Department and by agriculturists generally (a statement which needs some further qualification), he seems aware that grasses, as well as fruits, are limited in their range by climate, those which grow in the colder and more moist Northern Atlantic States being impossible to the Southern States or to the great interior plains, though they may flourish again on the upper Pacific Coast. From this fact it follows that grasses which might flourish on a single Government farm could not, on that account, be recommended for cultivation in a region where the climatic conditions materially differ from those around the experiment station. Observations on the growth of grass and forage near Washington, for example, are well-nigh worthless to the farmer in Vermont, Michigan, Wisconsin, Texas, or Georgia. At the present moment our Southern States are making strenuous exertions to establish general farming in place of a too exclusive cotton, rice, and sugar culture. They may be thought to be in more pressing need of help in the matter of grasses and forage than is the extreme West; but experiments conducted in New England or on the Western plains would be of but the least service to the young dairy and beef interest those States are endeavoring to foster. These reflections repeat themselves almost word for word when we substitute the consideration of soil for that of climate. No one farm is likely to embrace a great variety of soils. The most that could be affirmed as the result of experiments conducted on clay land, for example, would be that a particular grass or fodder succeeded well or poorly on clay under the peculiar climatic conditions prevailing in the region, though the plant might reverse its behavior either in a different soil or in the same soil with a different degree of moisture or of heat.

We agree with Mr. Platt in his main purpose, but we think he overlooks difficulties that would occur to the scientific investigator and the practical farmer. The establishment of a large and expensive farm by the Government might be advocated and undertaken with gratifying éclat, but the money can be better expended. We speak for no institution, nor by reason of suggestion from any. Mr. Platt confesses that his attention was first called to this subject by the activity displayed in this department of research by one of our State agricultural experiment stations. It is surprising that he did not see how these State institutions,

widely scattered over the country, and equipped by men of a high order of scientific attainment, zealously prosecuting investigations in all directions, could be made available in coöperation with the department at Washington for a much wider inquiry into grasses and forage plants than would be possible to a single Government farm, or to several. These institutions were either called into being by the patronage of the central Government or have been endowed by the public treasury. They are fitted with appliances, and are accustomed to work with economy. A corps of professors and experts in Connecticut, Michigan, Missouri, Vermont, Georgia, or Texas, works under conditions of climate which apply to the surrounding country. Its experiments on grasses would have an immediate value for that region in which it operates. Such a corps can always, without purchase, command all varieties of soil on neighboring farms, and would find intelligent farmers willing to carry out each one an experiment on a crop under the direction of an expert. The labor and cost of visitation by the investigator would be slight, and most farmers would require but small assistance in money. If our Government is to expend a hundred thousand dollars per year, or a half or a quarter of that sum, let it appropriate for the next ten or twenty years a few hundred dollars annually to each of several judiciously selected experiment stations, for the specific purpose of aiding the Government to obtain the information needed. We do not want a Government farm in the far West, or in the East, or in the South. We need coöperation of the central Bureau with the State institutions, thus securing encouragement to these in conducting investigations which they have already begun, and would be glad to prosecute. The State stations would then stand, as they ought, in intimate relation with the Agricultural Department at Washington, collecting facts for classification and generalization, very much as the signal stations stand related to the Weather Bureau, except that the bond would be voluntary and unofficial. We hope Senator Platt may be induced to revise his plan so as to bring it into accord with economy and efficiency.

A CRANKY VIEW OF COPYRIGHT.

THERE is a fine specimen of confused thinking in an article against copyright in the last number of the *Christian Union* by the Rev. James M. Whiton. Here is one of the tidbits:

"Plainly, there is a fallacy in calling a poem or a novel property in the same sense that a house is property. The house belongs to the builder because he built it. That reason is valid, for all time, to the builder and his heirs or assigns. The novel does not belong to the author for any such reason, otherwise there could be no limitation of his right. It belongs to him for a time, because the State has invested him with a limited ownership as a reward for the service which he performs for the general benefit. When the term of years has expired, his work becomes public property. It is no stealing to appropriate it then, though he or his heirs are living still. But how that which is not stealing, when outside of the time-limit of the copyright, can be stealing when outside of the space-limit, has not yet been made to appear. We object to this being taken for granted, especially with the invidious assumption of a superior morality in receiving it as an article of faith. We 'have a good conscience, in all things willing to live honestly,' and simply wish the right and the wrong to be made more clear."

Mr. Whiton's trouble here arises out of his failure to define, even in his own mind, the terms he uses—a failure not uncommon with disputants of his school. He employs the term "belongs" in two senses, as indicating both moral right and legal possession, and shifts from one to the other as best suits his convenience. For instance, "the house belongs to the builder *because* he built it," not because the law protects him in its possession; but "the novel does not belong to the author," *because* the State only protects him in the enjoyment of it for a limited period. If the first rule be the true one, and a thing belongs, as a matter of moral right, to the maker of it, of course the novel belongs to the author simply because he wrote it. If, on the other hand, the latter rule be the true one, and nothing belongs to a man except what the law protects him in the enjoyment of, his house would cease to belong to him whenever the police failed or refused to expel intruders from it. In fact, if I should construct a house in the Indian Territory, or any other wilderness where there was no law, I should have no more "right" to it than the first comer, and less right than any man who could oust me. That a man does not own a thing "because" the State does not protect his ownership, or only protects it for a limited period, or only imperfectly, is a funny non-sequitur to emanate from a professional moralist.

The true way to approach the copyright question is to base one's reasoning on the rule of morals and common sense, that all work of a man's hands or head belongs to him, of natural right, unless his ownership is modified by some sort of preliminary contract, as in the case of work done for hire. Having laid this down, we can proceed to consider the other and totally different question of expediency, to what extent, and by what means, and under what conditions the law should protect any kind of property. It protects landed and personal property, for instance, in different ways, and some kinds of property, as dogs, for instance, it refuses under certain circumstances to protect at all. The spectacle of one man making money out of the sale of a thing which another man has created, without compensation to the owner, ought to suggest to every moralist who witnesses it that there is a hideous defect in the law which should be promptly remedied, and this, we are bound to say, for the honor of human nature, is the usual effect of such a spectacle. But what it suggests to Mr. Whiton is, oddly enough, that the maker of the article does not own it, or the other would not be selling it. So that if he got to a city where the police was bad, or the courts inefficient, or in which he saw robbers taking people's watches in the street with impunity, he would conclude, by parity of reasoning, that the people robbed had probably no claim to the watches themselves. "If they really owned them," he would say, "why should the robbers take them away from them?"

It was, down to the middle of the last century, the custom in Cornwall to seize and carry off everything which came ashore in wrecks, including the personal belongings of the crew. The good faith in which the people maintained this custom is illustrated by the well-known story of the Cornish vicar who, when the news of a ship ashore reached the church during the service on Sunday, called out to the congregation to wait till he got down from the pulpit and took off his gown, so that all might start fair. If Mr. Whiton had passed by on such an occasion, he would exclaim: "How odd that the things in that wrecked ship do not belong to the crew or the owners," and if asked how he knew they did not belong to them, would doubtless answer that if they did the Sheriff would be on hand to protect them.

Probably on no subject except currency has there been as much curious mental aberration as on copyright. One has only to go back to the reports of bygone currency discussions to find notions about the nature and use of money which, in later and quieter times, read like the ravings of lunatics or the chatter of children. The experience of the world with the copyright is somewhat similar. It is a new and very unfamiliar kind of property, which is dissociated from possession in a way that seems very strange and unmanageable to a world which is only just getting accustomed to large masses of personalty represented simply by bits of paper. Consequently, when the question of providing proper protection for it comes up, one has to tussle at the outset with a host of cranky, old-fashioned people, who think that whatever is easy to steal must surely be, like objects *feræ naturæ*, the common inheritance of the human race.

THE OPENING OF PARLIAMENT.

LONDON, February 27, 1888.

THE Government has now met Parliament, and it is possible to form some judgment on the strength of parties in the House of Commons and in the country. A well-known dissentient Liberal, who was absent from England during the recess, has published his impression that the cause of home rule has not advanced. It may well be that, before the opening of the session, even an impartial eye might have failed to detect any movement in the tide. The effect of the bye elections in the spring and summer of last year had had time to subside. The Conservative majority at Winchester was increased. It would be idle to deny all effect to the desperate energy displayed by the Liberal-Unionist leaders. They have been fighting for their lives, with the deep sea of political extinction behind them, and before them the hope of largely influencing the policy and ruling in the councils of their new allies. Again, the policy of repression in Ireland, theoretically declared by the Prime Minister two years ago, and now carried out by a minister to whom the defiance of hostile criticism is not an uncongenial attitude, while it has lost and not gained adherents, has yet put heart into the Tory party. If, in exchange for the name of power, they must surrender

many conservative principles, it is some consolation for a party which is often taunted with being much bolder in theory than in practice, to figure for once as the upholders of a firm and unflinching policy.

But the final decision of the country cometh not by observation, and few supporters of the Government outside of a newspaper would deny that whatever the future vicissitudes of the question may be, the events of the past fortnight have been discouraging to their prospects, and that at the close of the debate on the Address the position of the Home-Rulers stands considerably improved. This result was at first helped by a group of bye elections, though the elation of some of Mr. Gladstone's followers has received a smart check by the defeat at Doncaster. The significance of bye elections is apt to be exaggerated. Still, at a critical period, when the public mind is extremely sensitive, a run of success, if it were unbroken, might have a widespread general influence. The news of the Southwark election, with a quite unexpected majority, came to the House when Mr. Goschen was replying with effort to a speech of Mr. Gladstone's which had made a profound impression. The dramatic effect of the scene will not be forgotten, and it obviously disconcerted the most able and most confident champion of the Treasury Bench. But in the debate itself the preponderance of advantage was with the Opposition to a degree not often witnessed in these days, when the platform and the press so largely anticipate and discount the effect of Parliamentary discussion.

In the debate on Mr. Parnell's amendment, the issues involved in the present policy of the Government became more clearly defined. The Opposition have all along maintained that the Crimes Act was a weapon forged not against crime but against legitimate combination. It was now argued that the truth of this contention had been proved by experience, although the attempts to put down combination had not been successful; that the injustice and ruin still inflicted on tenants on great estates like Lord Clanricarde's afforded conclusive justification for legal organizations, such as the National League, and even supplied excuses for illegal combinations, such as the Plan of Campaign. The Government made no serious attempt to connect the National League with any criminal object or the perpetration of crime. They did not succeed in showing that they had achieved any result commensurate with a violent infringement of political rights. The population of Ireland are irritated by what they conceive to be the persecution of members of Parliament and other respectable men, petty in character, but necessarily accompanied by many circumstances of individual cruelty and indignity—not to speak of such events as the bloodshed at Mitchelstown. Yet the Government failed to show that they had advanced a step on the road to producing contentment and peace in Ireland.

An important feature of the discussion was the calm and temperate declaration made by Mr. Gladstone on behalf of the Liberal party. He not only disclaimed all sympathy with obstruction, but welcomed the proposed legislation of the Government, which chiefly consists in the Local-Government Bill for England. On behalf of the Irish party, and from the Irish point of view, Mr. Parnell's statements on the same subject were not less emphatic, and even in Mr. O'Brien's remarkable and impassioned speech there was no discordant note. The Coercion Bill gave the Nationalist members a more than plausible excuse for a different attitude last session; the Government programme of last year offered little opportunity for a welcome to useful legislation; and, lastly, in Mr. Gladstone's necessary absence, the Liberals were without leadership at the commencement of the session. Yet many Liberal members would have rejoiced if the present attitude of the Opposition had been more clearly and firmly taken up from the first. The announcement was received with little graciousness, or rather with marked uneasiness, by the more combatant occupants of the Treasury bench, who well know that the best card in their hand is to fix upon the Opposition the stigma of disorder, whether inside or outside the walls of Parliament. The street disturbances in London, unfortunately no new thing, and fortunately not of a serious character, are drawn in to reinforce the doctrine that Mr. Gladstone is preaching a gospel of anarchy and social danger. On the other hand, there is some reason to believe that the metropolitan electors consider that the present Irish policy has infected the London police with the habit of using their batons very freely and indiscriminately. In many quarters it is almost grotesque to observe the readiness to attribute any breach of order or of law to the inspiration of the Liberal leader. The poor Scottish crofters, whose disturbances began six years ago, are spoken of as if they were the dupes of the new home-rule policy.

Again, the Tories taunt the English Home-Rulers with their sentimental policy. They mock at the "union of hearts" for which Liberals profess to strive. But, in truth, the ultimate appeal is made both on one side and on the other to the more generous feelings of the mass of the electors. These feelings are, when roused, a great motive power. Just as the gallery of an humble theatre is intensely moved by the spectacle of injured virtue or triumphant villany, even when presented with little refinement and little art, so in a great national question the so-called sentiment of the multitude will count for something. The Home-Rulers say, the Irish have been, and still are, misgoverned and ill-used. Let them mind their own affairs. But the Unionists also say, these self-styled Nationalists are bad citizens and bad men, the friends of criminals, if not criminals themselves, and they conspire against the dignity of your Parliament. Will you hand over to such men the government of Ireland? Thus both sides appeal to the better feelings, to the moral sympathies, of the masses. As the discussion proceeds, these considerations acquire more decisive importance. As an argument against home rule the danger of separation sinks by comparison into the shade. The difficulty of the Ulster minority appeals to the reason and the feelings of certain men and classes of men, but its influence is local and partial. On the other hand, the character, the motive, the conduct of the home-rule movement and those who promote and guide it, are questions which go home to the minds and consciences of all the electors.

On this issue, as the facts come more and more into the daylight, the Unionist party are not gaining ground. The agrarian crime which has blazed or smouldered in Ireland for at least a century and a half, is doubtless connected, and most closely and significantly connected, with Irish discontent; but the Government has wholly failed to connect it with the operations of the National party. Indeed, a very strong case has been made for the contention that the National League had done more than any other agency to check agrarian crime. In this matter it is sometimes hard to believe that the denunciations of the Government are entirely sincere. They do not deny, indeed they insist on, the representative character of the Nationalist members in relation to the Nationalist movement. Their organs in the press have not scrupled to allege that the leading members of the party are steeped in associations with crime. But, as the Nationalist members become better known, the charge sounds hollow and absurd. Lately depreciated and ostracised in Parliament, it is now the fashion almost to exaggerate the great ability which not a few of them display. But, at all events, it is difficult to doubt their sincerity, or that as a body they are endowed with as much public spirit as any equal number of members. Treated as Ishmaelites even in the Parliament of 1880, they had, indeed, too much acquired the habit of open disrespect for the dignity, usages, and convenience of Parliament. But the Irish party belong to a sensitive race, equally quick to respond to kindness or affront. They feel the cordiality with which they are welcomed as the allies of the Liberal party. As the struggle develops, they are beginning to realize the magnitude of the sacrifice which the Liberal party and individual Liberals made in the cause of justice to Ireland. They themselves are beginning to be known, welcomed, and understood on English and Scottish platforms. Accordingly, the imputation that the Nationalist cause is tainted with criminality is beginning to lose its sting.

As to the orderly conduct of the business of Parliament, the new rule for stoppage at midnight, which was passed on Friday with so much unanimity, obviously affords facilities for obstruction. But in the same proportion that it does so, obstruction will be more keenly resented. There is no doubt that the declaration of the Irish leader on this point, if it is consistently adhered to by his followers, will remove a rock of offence which stood in the way of the cause of home rule. C. D.

TURGENEFF AND THE NIHILISTS.

PARIS, February 24, 1888.

THE person and the works of Ivan Turgeneff are so interesting that I was tempted to read two books recently published—the first, under the title of 'Souvenirs sur Tourguéneff,' the other entitled 'Tourguéneff Inconnu'; titles, it must be said, which were full of promises. The author of the 'Souvenirs' is Isaac Pavlovsky; the author of 'Tourguéneff Inconnu' is Michel Delines, who has translated several of Tolstoi's works, and published books on Russia. Everything must be taken with grains of allowance in these two books, and it is almost impossible to say what is true in them and what is not. The work of Michel Delines seems to have been written chiefly in order to contradict the work of Pavlovsky, and to show him to be entirely unreliable. Though Pavlovsky only appears in it as X——, he is easily recognized. He is represented as a Russian who arrived in Paris with a friend Y——; both gave themselves out as persecuted Nihilists. Turgeneff saw in them victims of the censorship, and of the Draconian laws regarding the press of his own country. He made a protégé of X——, helped him to find his way into the French press, to make translations, lent him money. X—— was of an ungrateful nature, and, when Turgeneff found him out, he uttered this prophecy (if we are to believe Delines): "I was mistaken in this young man, but I can now tell you exactly what his future career will be. Remember what I say: this man will become one of Katkoff's contributors; he will abandon the Nihilists and will cover them with mud; he will publish Souvenirs on me after my death, and represent himself as my intimate friend." He is even said to have added: "Wait, I have not done. This man will not die a natural

death—he will be killed by a woman." Well, Pavlovsky (who is evidently X——) has left the Nihilists; he has not written for Katkoff's paper, but in a paper of the same color. Delines seems to wait impatiently for the accomplishment of the end of the prophecy.

There is only one thing to be remembered in this: it is the great generosity of Ivan Turgeneff. He knew very well that among the Russian exiles in Paris there were many bad and suspicious characters; he pitied their vices as much as their misery, and could not shut his hand to them. Individual charity can hardly ever be blamed; it is perhaps not so easy to excuse Turgeneff when he helped journals of a Nihilistic tinge. He did it as a Liberal, not as a Nihilist, as a sort of protest against the enslavement of the press in Russia; but it cannot be wondered at if this support has been mis represented. A few days after his death, Lavroff, a well-known Russian revolutionist, published in a French paper the following letter:

"Sir, you will oblige me by publishing in your paper [*La Justice*], always in sympathy with the emancipation movement in Russia, a few lines which I have the pleasure to send you. Turgeneff once dead, I have no longer any reason for concealment, and I feel it a duty to make public a fact which, till now, was only known to me and to a small number of persons. When I transferred, in 1874, the editorship of the socialistic and revolutionary review *En Avant* from Zurich to London, Turgeneff proposed to me, on his own initiative, to help me in the publication of this review. During the three following years, during all the time I was the editor, he sent annually 500 francs to the cashier of the review."

This letter made a great sensation in Russia, and in all the countries where Turgeneff had readers. Katkoff reproduced it with shouts of triumph; he had always denounced the tendencies of Turgeneff's novels, and represented him as a secret enemy of the orthodox faith, of the autocratic power, as an adversary of Panslavism. The municipality of St. Petersburg was not allowed to pay the expenses of the ceremony which took place on the arrival of Turgeneff's remains. The great novelist was denounced as a Nihilist.

He was, indeed, the propagator of that name, now so universally employed, though so difficult of definition. The word was uesd in the famous novel 'Fathers and Sons,' which first appeared in 1861. It was considered then a most severe criticism of the state of mind which is called Nihilism. The Russian youth of the universities recognized their own aspirations in Bazaroff, and denounced the type as a caricature and a calumny. Turgeneff was branded as an enemy of progress; he received congratulations from the orthodox and reactionary camp, and these congratulations annoyed him as much as the criticisms of the advanced party. He thought it necessary to defend himself, and the author of the 'Souvenirs' cites a curious letter written by Turgeneff from Paris, on April 26, 1860, to the Russian students at Heidelberg. In this letter he explains his Bazaroff, who towers above all the other personages of the novel:

"I wished to make him a tragical character. He is honest, sincere, and a democrat to his finger-tips. And you find that I have given no good sides to him! 'Force and Matter' [a materialistic work of Büchner's, much read in the Russian universities] is for him a mere work of vulgarization, a work without value. . . . All my novel is directed against the nobility as a privileged class. Look well at the figures of Nicholas Petrovitch, Paul Petrovitch, Arcadii; they all mean weakness, laziness, narrowness. And the æsthetic sense made me choose good representatives of the nobility so as to prove my point the better. If the cream is bad, what must the milk be? To put on the scene officials, generals, thieves, would be coarse and false. All the Nihilists whom I have known (Bielinsky, Bakunin, Hertzen, Dobroliuboff, etc.) were descended from good and honest parents. This fact has great significance. . . . If the reader does not like Bazaroff, with all his coarseness, all his hardness, his dryness, his want of pity, the fault is mine, and I have not accomplished my object. . . . I dreamt of a dark figure, savage, great, only half emerged from barbarism, strong, wicked, and honest, and nevertheless condemned to perish as it always is on the threshold of the future. . . . At the present moment, two men only have completely understood my intentions—Dostoyevsky and Botkin."

This curious letter gives us an insight into the conscience of Turgeneff; he wished to encourage the Russian youth, but not to deceive them. He was a Liberal, not a Revolutionary. He was, above all, an artist; he had the rare and strange power which consists in creating living types. He has told us more about Russia than any other man, not excepting Tolstoi. When he was accused in 1879 of connivance with the Russian Nihilists, he wrote to M. Stasutevitch, editor of the *Messager d'Europe*, a sort of profession of faith, which is cited in 'Tourguéneff Inconnu':

"While," he says, "the editor of the Moscow *Journal* imputes to me ignoble and even almost criminal intentions, he accuses me also of kneeling before a certain portion of our youth, and of courting their sympathy by every means. This attitude, if it really existed, would tend to prove that I renounce my own ideas and adorn myself with the ideas of others. Without wishing to vaunt myself, I have the right to affirm that the ideas which I have expressed, either through the press or orally, have not been modified during the last forty years. In the eyes of our youth I have always been considered as a man of gradation, a Liberal of the old school in the English sense, a man who expects the reforms from above, an enemy by principle of revolution."

Turgeneff is here perfectly sincere; he was a man of gradation, as he says, not a revolutionist. It is not to be wondered at if he offended in turn the sentiments of the Russian aristocracy and of the Russian court, and the feelings of the Russian advanced schools. He described what he saw, and presented to Russia a faithful mirror of her own miseries and faults. How did he become a Liberal, in the most noble sense of the word? He had become so, as a child, in his father's and mother's house. The most interesting part of the two books which I have before me is an account of Turgeneff's family in 'Tourguéneff Inconnu.' His mother was the most curious type of the Russian *grande dame;* she belonged to the family of the Lutovinoffs, very powerful and wealthy lords, who owned a great number of peasants. She had been educated in the house of her stepfather, who tried to seduce her. When she was seventeen years old, she ran away, and found a refuge at the house of her uncle, Ivan Lutovinoff. She inherited his immense fortune at the age of thirty, and married Turgeneff's father, a man of exceptional beauty, who led the dissipated life of the boyards. She became a widow, while she was still young, with two boys, Nicholas and Ivan. She was a severe mother and a severe master. At her house at Spasskoë she lived like a tyrant of the feudal ages. When Ivan Turgeneff went to Berlin to finish his studies, he was accompanied by the family doctor (who was one of his mother's serfs). Young Ivan became his doctor's friend, and did all he could to persuade his mother to allow him his freedom. The mother would never consent to it. Did she not treat him well? was he not allowed at the servants' table to eat what came from the master's table? All Ivan's entreaties were vain. 'Mumu,' one of the most touching of Turgeneff's stories, was inspired by the scenes which he had witnessed in his mother's house. She was the very type of a slaveholder—could not conceive that her rights could be disputed; and there is no exaggeration in saying that she prepared her son unconsciously for the great work of emancipation. For Turgeneff was essentially of a tender, sweet, and sympathetic nature; there was in his heart a fountain of pity for all human suffering, even for those sufferings which are caused by vice. Without knowing anything of the Darwinian theories, he was a sort of Darwinian, and believed in the terrible laws of heredity and fatality. His curiosity was almost morbid, and once brought him to the foot of the French scaffold; but this curiosity was not a mere stimulant of his genius—he really suffered at the sight of pain, of deformity, of moral or physical misery. One of his own stories is called 'The Despairer'; he liked those despairers, victims of their own time, victims of their own nature, half innocent and half criminal, living examples of the frailty of humanity.

Those who read the two volumes I have mentioned, I would recommend to distrust many things which have been inspired by spite, envy, and even hatred; to be very careful in the choice of what may be believed and what must be disbelieved. As for myself, who had the good fortune to know Turgeneff, I had not much difficulty in weeding out many pages, as I had only to remember that Turgeneff was essentially what is called a gentleman.

Correspondence.

PHILOLOGICAL MARE'S NESTS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: By daring assertions, easily enough set aside by the better informed, dabblers in English philology, or ninety-and-nine out of every hundred that discourse on it, persist, in this scientific age of ours, precisely as of old, in contributing to amplify the stock of popular errors. From the legion of their illusions I select, at present, a mere brace, with a view to their thorough exposure and explosion. A larger number, if dwelt on as fully as I shall dwell on these, would necessitate, it may be feared, an excess of the aridity endurable in a single letter. Some further samples of the same ample brood of chimeras I purpose to examine more briefly on other occasions.

As if there could be no question about the matter, a learned Latinist, the late Professor Charles Short, would have us believe that the word *duration* "was coined in the last century" (*American Journal of Philology*, vol. v, p. 420, 1884).

Immediately on reading this precipitate statement of my old friend and college-mate, there occurred to me several passages in Sir Thomas Browne, who employs *duration* quite as freely as any writer of our own age. One of these passages, if only for its exquisite rhythm, deserves to be transcribed at length:

"But the iniquity of oblivion blindly scattereth her poppy, and deals with the memory of men, without distinction to merit of perpetuity. Who can but pity the founder of the Pyramids? Herostratus lives, that burnt the Temple of Diana; he is almost lost, that built it. Time hath spared the Epitaph of Adrian's horse, confounded that of himself. In vain we compute our felicities by the advantage of our good names; since bad have equal *durations;* and Thersites is like to live as long as Agamemnon."—*Hydriotaphia and Garden of Cyrus*, p. 27 (ed. 1658).

This looked out, on consulting my notes, and turning over a few books, I soon traced the

word in Abp. Ussher (1624), Dr. George Hakewill (1627), Henry Earl of Monmouth (1637), Dr. William Bray (1641), Rev. John Brinsley (1645), Henry Lawrence (1646), James Howell (1651), Rev. Robert Bailie (1653), the translation of Scudery's *Curia Politiae* (1654), the translation of Thomas White's *Peripateticall Institutions* (1656), Bp. Gauden (1659), Bp. Wilkins (1668), Rev. Obadiah Walker (1673 and 1692), Dr. Richard Burthogge (1674), Rev. Theophilus Gale (1677), Guy Miege (1687), Dryden (1692), Lord Preston (1695), Rev. John Serjeant (1697), Rev. Jeremy Collier (1697), Dean Swift (1697), etc. In Dr. Henry More I have counted up twenty-four instances of it, and some thirty in Dr. Isaac Barrow.

Dr. Johnson, with all his successors, Dr. Richardson excepted, simply names Locke as the earliest authority for *duration;* and Locke lived till 1704. A quotation evidencing its use by him in 1690 is given, however, by Dr. Richardson, with another from Sir Matthew Hale (before 1676), and one of the fifteenth century from Chaucer. To the passage which he extracts from Chaucer's *Knightes Tale* he might have appended one from the same poet's *House of Fame*, near the end.

Besides consulting Dr. Johnson, probably Professor Short thought it sufficient to explore the concordances to Shakespeare and the Bible, as warrant for the decision which he arrived at so unhesitatingly. A similarly otiose procedure on the part of any one having to do with a word in the classical languages, he would doubtless have held to be unscholarlike in the extreme. But it was only our mother-tongue, poor thing, that, when he despatched *duration*, he was deigning, for once in a way, to concern himself with; and, in default of a little research, and even of a moderate acquaintance with our literature, he seems to have considered intuition as competent to authorize him in passing a categorical judgment. Thus much for *duration*.

I now advert to the word *mostly*, an adverb parallel to *nearly* and *firstly*, for example, in having been preceded by a shorter form which was itself an adverb. If some one discovers that it was once flouted as a tasteless and unnecessary innovation, such as *muchly* is in our eyes, small should be the wonder. It "had not yet arisen," peremptorily pronounces Mr. T. L. Kington Oliphant, commenting on *most*, bearing the same sense, used in a work which "must have been written about 1730 or earlier." (*The New English*, 1886, vol. ii., pp. 159, 161.)

To reach this remarkable conclusion, Mr. Oliphant can have done no more than supplement very superficial reading by a mere glance at the lazy doings of certain lexicographers. For, though Dr. Richardson cites only Hume for *mostly*, Dr. Johnson cites Bacon for it, but without giving due particulars. A friend has pointed out to me that his citation is from the *Advertisement touching an Holy War* (1622). See Bacon's *Works* (ed. Spedding and others) vol. vii., p. 30. Bailey inserted *mostly* in his Dictionary in 1730, if not before.

Already, I apprehend, the reader may be disposed to doubt which has the upper hand, as furnishing a title to discredit—the self-confidence of Mr. Oliphant, or his shallowness. As he has exhibited some of his salient peculiarities in connexion with the point under notice, so he has exhibited them, and quite as flagrantly, in cases which it would overtask patience barely to catalogue.

Only within a short time have I searched to ascertain how far *mostly* was accepted in the seventeenth century. Of its prior existence I know nothing; but, as the outcome of a desultory quest, I speedily satisfied myself that, let alone 1730, not even in 1630 can it have excited much surprise as a novelty. I had somewhat expected to come on the word in that intrepid verbarian, Joshua Sylvester; and my failure to do so may have been owing to the fact that my special excursion in his cataclysm of somniferous poetastry was not a more protracted one. Why it is that Mr. Halliwell-Phillipps assigns a niche to *mostly* in his *Dictionary of Archaisms and Provincialisms*, and speaks of it as belonging to "various dialects," must be left to conjecture. Quotations for it which I have collected from older authors are subjoined:

"Our Cities and suburbes are, *mostly*, seized in Lay fee."—Dr. William Sclater (1621), *The Quæstion of Tythes Revised* (1623), p. 192; also at pp. 168, 217.

"Our Religion is, *mostly*, talke and discourse."—*Id.* (1626), *Expos. II. Thess.* (1629), p. 42; also at pp. 103, 153, 157.

"*Mostly*, we account those things neither good, rational, nor commodious, which," &c.—J. Pettus (1657), in *Loveday's Letters* (ed. 1663), A 3 *v.*

"The first Principle, which he, *mostly*, calleth the Monad, otherwhere he calls the Father."—Dr. Richard Burthogge (1674), *Causa Dei* (1675), p. 245.

"The Meazels is a Disease incident, *mostly*, to Children."—Guy Miege, *French Dictionary*, Second Part (1687), under *mostly*.

"In the Annotations, also, I have, *mostly*, followed them."—Lord Preston, Translation of *Boetius's Consolations of Philosophy* (1695), p. xii; also at p. 230.

"The Confusion of Ideas . . . springs, *mostly*, from the Reasons assign'd by himself."—Rev. John Serjeant, *Solid Philosophy Asserted* (1697), p. 275; also at p. 454.

"Pleasure consists, *mostly*, in Fancy."—Rev. Jeremy Collier (1697), *Essays* (1703), Part I., p. 72; also at p. 122.

"Your Converse, I conceive, would be, *mostly*, with the Latter."—*Id.*, Translation of *Marcus Antoninus's Conversation with Himself* (1701), p. 86.

"A Troop of Servants *mostly* arm'd."—Edward Ward, *Hudibras Redivivus* (1705–7), vol. I., Canto xiii.

Obsolete equivalents of *mostly* are seen in *mostwhat* and *most an end*, both of them long very common, and the latter of them not yet dropped in vulgar speech; in *most deal;* in *for most part;* and also in *almost*. The last was very current till about 1600. Five and twenty quotations for it, of the era of Queen Elizabeth, are at my elbow: six from one small volume.

Among the living dialectal synonyms of *mostly* are *mostlins*, *mostlings*, *mooastlins*, *meeastlins*, *meeastwise*, *most in general*, *most in deal*, and *most part*, to which may be added the North British *maistlins*.

Hitherto I have been occupied with *mostly* in the sense of *most* under its extensive aspect, or "for the most part"; a phrase, in passing, of venerable antiquity. But I have still to speak of *mostly* as importing "almost," "very nearly," "well nigh," "all but." It seems to have wholly escaped the attention of philologists; and it is seldom met with, I suspect, in authors of any period. The only old book in which I have observed it, a book which could attract none but the veriest Dryasdust, is by the same singultous saint whom I have first adduced for the *mostly* now classical. The ensuing passages are taken from it:

"We sit, *mostly* all, under our owne vine and figtree." "But how have wee, *mostly* all, given occasion to have Mercuries statue our fittest Embleme?" "So is their speech gracious, *mostly* alwayes."—Dr. William Sclater (1626), *Expos. II. Thess.* (1629), pp. 261, 263, 285.

Speaking for his fellow-countrymen in 1545, Nicolas Udall remarks:

"No man of our tyme, and in our Englishe toungue (which none but our selfes, for our owne use, do much passe on), wryteth so ornately, but that he hath, in soondrie woordes & phrases, some smatche of his native countrey phrases that he was borne in."—Translation of *Erasmus's Paraphrase* (1548), *Luke*, 6 *r.*

And so it continued to be, very generally, long after Udall's time, and notably as respected the learned Dr. Henry More, who was flourishing a hundred and forty years later. As to Sclater, who wrote in Somersetshire, if he was not born there, whether his *mostly*, in its rarer signification, was a rusticism which he adopted from his humbler neighbors, future inquiry possibly may determine.

The *mostly* here considered I have frequently heard in conversation; and, moreover, I have had before me, upwards of a score of times, manuscript evidence of its being equally prevalent in England, in Scotland, and in Ireland. As I have already said, it is not, however, often seen in print. Yet a leading article in the London *Daily News* of Dec. 22, 1886, has, at p. 5: "*Mostly* all were small meat-eaters." Again, Dr. Murray, in his incomparable Dictionary, gives "*mostly* all" as the leading definition of the disused *almost*, "for the most part."

And here, not unfitly, I may quote De Foe and Sterne, as having, with, presumably, many another, at least seemed to intend, by *mostly*, *most* taken intensively, that is to say, "more than all else," "in the greatest degree":

"I told him, with freedom, I feared *mostly* their treachery and ill-usage of me, if I put my life in their hands."—*Robinson Crusoe* (1719), vol. i., p. 121 (ed. 1781).

"My father had scarce read the letter, when, taking the thing by the right end, he instantly began to plague and puzzle his head how to lay it out *mostly* to the honour of his family."—*Tristram Shandy*, vol. iv., ch. xxxi. (1761).

Touching *most*, "almost," no proof that it is other than a modernism is known to me. That it is shortened from *mostly* is very unlikely. Pretty certainly, as Dr. Murray rules, we have, in it, an aphetization of *almost*, through *a'most;* and it must have originated among the ignorant, to whom it has, all along, been ordinarily confined. But Mr. Goold Brown, Mr. J. R. Bartlett, and Prof. Schele de Vere, with others, are wrong in thinking it an Americanism. One hears it, I suppose, as much on this side of the Atlantic as on the other. Mr. Brown quotes, for it, a book in which it is used seriously. This is not the case with it in the Rev. James Pycroft's *Agony Point* (1862), pp. 300, 354. To the north of the Tweed, one may infer, it is not reputed objectionable; for we find "*most* any verse" at p. 109 of the second edition of *English Composition* (1879), by "John Nichol, M. A. Balliol, Oxon., LL.D., Professor of [the] English Language and Literature in the University of Glasgow." In this undoctorly doctor's school-days, deviation into bad English can hardly have been accounted an irregularity calling to be treated with administration of birch.

Though I am not here handling the respectable uses of *most*, I give a quotation in which, denoting "in the greatest degree," it is so qualified that the result is to produce a strikingly anomalous combination:

"Whan tidynges herof came to Cirtha, such as defended the towne were moch abasshed, but Adherball *all most* of all."—Alexander Barclay, translation of *Sallust* (Pynson's 1st ed., *c.* 1520), fol. 22.

This *all most* can by no possibility represent the old *allermost* or *aldermost*.

Very singular, too, is the locution to signify "for the most part," exemplified below by Nicolas Udall:

"The daye, also, beeyng nothyng fitte for the purpose of dooyng suche a thyng, was not *all of the moste* to their contentacion, aswell

for the high solemnitee of the feaste self, as also for the great resorte of people to thesame feaste." Translation of *Erasmus's Paraphrase, Luke* (1545), 168 *v.* (ed. 1548).

Your obedient servant,

F. Hall.

Marlesford, England, January 20, 1888.

VON HOLST ON AMERICAN CONSTITUTIONAL LAW.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The last number (January) of Von Sybel's *Historische Zeitschrift* contains an article by Dr. von Holst on the Constitutional Law of the United States in the light of English parliamentarism. Although this writer has made our history and constitutional development his peculiar study, and his works are regarded as authoritative, some of the views expressed in his article show how difficult it is for any foreigner to understand perfectly the institutions under which we live. Thus, in speaking of the Senate, he says that Senators rather than members of the lower house are regarded by the masses of the people as their genuine representatives. Another similar remark is, that everybody always knows who the Senators from his State are. How many New Yorkers knew that Miller was one of their Senators, or that Platt was one, before the "me too" incident? How many Jerseymen can tell off-hand the names of the present Senators from that State? How many Pennsylvanians can name both of their Senators?

Dr. von Holst argues, at considerable length, that the President has no share whatever in the legislative power, and that the veto gives him but a negative influence. How can that be called a negative influence which wields sixteen per cent. of the entire vote of Congress? A measure passed by fifty votes out of every ninety-nine in both houses goes to the President for his approval, and, if approved, becomes the law of the land; but if he returns it vetoed, it is null unless passed by sixty-six votes out of every ninety-nine. In the Fiftieth Congress, numbering in both houses 401 members, the actual difference between a majority and a two-thirds vote is exactly sixty-six, so that the veto power requires sixty-six votes to overcome it. These sixty-six votes of the President are like the sword of Brennus, and weigh heavy in the scale—almost as heavy as the prohibitive veto of the English Crown, which, however, has not been exercised since 1707.

Aside from that, however, it seems like taking a very literal view of things to say that because the President and his Cabinet do not sit in Congress, and do not actually introduce bills, they can do nothing but await passively the action of Congress. In the first place, they always can and frequently have caused members of Congress to introduce bills; secondly, any President who has decided views concerning legislation can have them put into effect by a public appeal to Congress as a body. Of this a conspicuous instance, which goes far to upset the Professor's theory, is the present Tariff Bill, which may be regarded as the direct outcome of Mr. Cleveland's recent message.

Our Constitution, like that of any other progressive country, is in a state of flux, and what is true of it to-day may not be true to-morrow. Dr. von Holst predicts very confidently that the Senate will never be shorn of its power as the House of Lords has been. The fate which has overtaken the Electoral College should have served as a warning to make him more cautious. The Electoral College, it is well known, was designed as an autonomic body acting on its discretion, but it has degenerated not even into a body of delegates, but into a body of messengers with absolutely nothing to do but to carry a message which might be better carried by the mails.

As an additional illustration of the difficulties which even the best informed foreigner has to contend with, it may be mentioned that in citing a letter of "G. B." in the *Nation* of February 24, 1887, Dr. von Holst quotes as follows: "He has to sit an idle spectator of ground (grand?) and lofty tumbling, etc.," the word in parenthesis being his emendation of the text. But perhaps this is no worse than some of the Shakspere emendations one meets with.

N. Z.

New York, March 5, 1888.

GOLDSMID'S TRANSLATION OF GROTIUS ON THE ORIGIN OF THE NATIVE RACES OF AMERICA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In 1884 there was printed in Edinburgh by Mr. Edmund Goldsmid, as one of the numbers of his *Bibliotheca Curiosa*, a translation into English by himself of the little volume entitled 'De Origine Gentium Americanarum Dissertatio,' which Grotius published in Paris, in 1642, while Swedish Ambassador at the French court. We are told in an "Introduction" that the tract first appeared in 1542, but this may be a typographical error. Of the quality of the translation, however, I will proceed to give a few examples. Grotius is made to say:

"I see that there are many who think that all those tribes were from Scythia, which we now call Great Tartary. They base their argument on this, that at Anianus [Behring's Straits, evidently, *note*]—be it a strait or a bay (for which of the two it is not clear)—there is no great space between Tartary and America. Now, if it is a gulf, the lands must be contiguous, and in that case the passage would be easy; if it is a strait, it becomes more narrow the further it is entered, and the opposite coasts, just like those of the Hellespont, or of the Bosphorus, in Thrace, forbids navigation even for merchant vessels."

A note remarks: "This passage seems either obscure or ridiculous." But the original reads at the end: "Ac proinde fauces illas, quales sunt Hellesponti, aut in Thracia Bosphori, nullo negotio navibus potuisse transmitti," of which the meaning is plain enough: "And accordingly its entrance, like that of the Hellespont or the Thracian Bosphorus, could be crossed by ships with no difficulty."

Again, we read, "Posts in Florida have been set up for the ascertainment of maximum heat," as a rendering of "Tribunalia in Florida ad experimentum altissimi æstus," *i. e.*, "Platforms made conformable to the highest tide." In another passage we are told that "From time immemorial they believed that the soul survived the body, which Lucan attributed to the tribes which he despised as Arctic"; the last clause being a version of "quos Arctos despicit," or "whom the Great Bear looks down upon." So one of Marius's soldiers is transmuted into "Marianus, the soldier," and Peter Martyr into "Peter the Martyr." But I will not trespass upon your space to point out more such blunders.

Grotius's language seems to have fared almost as hard at the hands of his translator as his arguments did at those of an acute critic, John De Laet; but we will not attempt here a summary of the discussion. It was carried on by a double exchange of broadsides in the shape of a 'Dissertatio,' etc., by Grotius, and 'Notæ ad Dissertationem,' etc., by De Laet; followed by 'Dissertatio Altera,' etc., by Grotius, and 'Responsio ad Dissertationem Secundam,' etc., by De Laet. The latter gets the better of the argument, in my judgment, and Grotius, losing his temper, quotes Catullus to abuse his adversary as "obtrectator, opaca quem bonum barba facit." Finally, he retires from the contest with this parting shot at his opponent's Latinity:

"Latius haud Latius satis est, nec scribere cessat Latius. Ut sileas, Latius, est satius."

Henry W. Haynes.

Boston, March 7, 1888.

SENATOR INGALLS'S "SARCASM."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Having read the speech of Senator Ingalls on a pending pension bill, with editorial comments upon the power of "sarcastic invective" possessed by that eminent statesman (or which possesses *him* in the sense in which the Scriptural swine were possessed), I am reminded of a story which a friend of mine—a lawyer—tells of his first case. He was retained for the defence of a negro accused of assault and battery. At the trial, the prosecutor having told his story, the prisoner was put upon the stand, and asked to state the circumstances in his own way. He said he was sitting in his doorway in the cool of the evening, and saw the prosecutor approaching; that the prosecutor stepped upon the footway and said: "You black ——— ———," etc. (the words are left to the reader's imagination; the sense can be gathered from the speech above referred to). "Well, what did you say to that?" asked the prisoner's counsel. Drawing himself up, the witness replied with dignity: "I do not remembah my exact words, sah, but I have no doubt it was something equally sarcastic."

Yours, Joseph Parrish.

Philadelphia, March 7, 1888.

Notes.

Cassell & Co. publish immediately a Life of the late Emperor of Germany, by Archibald Forbes.

Harper & Bros. announce the sixth and last volume of Kinglake's 'Invasion of the Crimea,' and 'For the Right,' by Karl Emil Franzos.

The second volume of Thomas Stevens's 'Around the World on a Bicycle,' and J. H. Kennedy's 'Early Days of Mormonism,' are in the press of Chas. Scribner's Sons.

Mr. Ad. F. Bandelier, of the Hemenway Southwestern Archæological Expedition, to whom is assigned the documentary historical research, and who last year copied in Mexico very valuable documents of which a large number were completely unknown, is now at work at Santa Fé, N. M., on the Archives, by courtesy so called. He has already saved the oldest papers, but has thus far found only two antedating the rebellion of 1680, viz., one of 1636 and another of 1664, which bears the signature of Diego de Peñalossa. These documents are perfect revelations as to the period when the Spaniards were in the vicinity of El Paso, and when the conspiracy of Casas Grandes was being prepared.

With the April number, *Babyhood* is to cross the water and have an English edition simultaneous with the American—a merited expansion of a most excellent periodical for mothers.

The *Youth's Companion* will publish directly the story of the late Miss Alcott's girlhood, written but a few months ago, and full of interesting reminiscences of the Concord group.

In the last number of *Nature*, Sir Joseph Hooker pays an affectionate tribute to his old

friend Asa Gray; and Dr. Fr. Hoffmann, editor of the New York *Pharmaceutische Rundschau*, in his March issue, prints an equally appreciative biographical sketch, with a list of Dr. Gray's most important contributions to botanical literature—a product surprising in itself, but accompanied, as we know, with a vast literary activity in other directions. A fairly good "process" portrait accompanies the article.

On January 15 appeared in Berne the first number of the monthly *Le Droit d'Auteur*, organ of the International Union for the Protection of Literary and Artistical Works. It will be the main source of authentic news, statistics, and discussion relating to the objects of the Union. The subscription price of five francs, sixty centimes, may be sent to MM. Jent & Reinert, Berne.

We commend to thoughtful readers Mr. Henry Holt's paper in the March *New Englander* on "Some Practical Aspects of the Literary Life in the United States," especially as it is at present injuriously affected by the absence of an international copyright. The first portion deals in a sensible and practical way with the aspirations of young persons to become writers for the press and authors of books. The last portion narrates the rise and fall of the "courtesy of the trade," with the rise (but as yet no fall, only failures) of the "pirate." Mr. Holt's well-known views as to translations not paying and as to the decline of the book-buying habit, are here repeated. He declares that "a very small portion of even the paper and printing interest of the country would be affected by the removal from American soil of all reprinting of books copyrighted in foreign countries." We can hardly agree with Mr. Holt in explaining the contrast of the state of American letters in 1851-1876 with that of the subsequent period by the breaking down of the courtesy of the trade or "virtual international copyright."

Seldom is any issue of the Proceedings of the American Antiquarian Society so largely and permanently valuable as Part I. of Vol. V. We have already made mention of Prof. Franklin B. Dexter's laborious "Estimates of Population in the American colonies [up to the First Census in 1790]." It is here printed in full, with graphic charts. Prof. Dexter observes of Rhode Island, that "her share in the proceeds of the slave trade is suggested incidentally by the fact that, at the acme of her colonial prosperity, one person of every nine within her borders was either a negro or an Indian—four or five times as great a proportion, that is to say, as in her neighbors, and unequalled anywhere north of Mason and Dixon's line." The British occupation during the Revolution caused a marked loss of slaves to Virginia, North and South Carolina, and Georgia, but most of all to South Carolina, where the whites were actually left far in the ascendant. Mr. William B. Weeden's paper on the "Early African Slave Trade in New England" is another well worth preserving. It reveals Peter Faneuil's gains in the slave trade with one hand, while the other was engaged in public and private charities and in building the "Cradle of Liberty." There are two opposing papers on an episode in King Philip's War. Finally, Mr. Andrew McFarland Davis furnishes some curious particulars concerning "The First Scholarship at Harvard College," the gift of a woman, Lady Moulsham or Mowlson—a name we would suggest for bestowal on the first building erected for the "Annex."

An eminent benefactress of the present day, Mrs. Elizabeth Thompson, is commemorated in the *New England Magazine* for March, with a portrait.

The eleventh annual issue of Spofford's 'American Almanac, and Treasury of Facts, Statistical, Financial, and Political,' for the year 1888, has been made by the American News Co. It is an indispensable work, though the recognition of this fact is not as general as it should be.

The twenty-fifth issue of the 'Statesman's Year-Book' (Macmillan) is also a standard work, and its superior typographical attractiveness doubtless bespeaks a more liberal patronage than Mr. Spofford's labors have earned. Equipped with both these manuals, an American citizen can dispense with a large number of books of reference relating to his own and to foreign countries.

Scribner & Welford send us samples of "Bohn's Select Library," which we find to be old favorites in a new external guise: slender duodecimos in olive-green smooth-cloth backs, neatly stamped in black and red. Thus we have Cary's 'Dante's Inferno,' Oxenford's 'Goethe's Boyhood,' Anna Swanwick's metrical version of the first part of 'Faust,' Schiller's "Mary Stuart" and "Maid of Orleans" in one binding, Lessing's 'Laokoon,' and Bacon's Essays. They make a very taking array on the shelf.

The ever-swelling "Cassell's National Library" seems to become international in the case of the 109th issue—Mrs. Anna Bowman Dodd's 'Republic of the Future.' Other late numbers are Shakspere's "Lear," Shelley's "Prometheus Unbound," Dickens's 'Cricket on the Hearth,' 'Anecdotes of Dr. Samuel Johnson,' and more of Plutarch's Lives.

In the "Knickerbocker Nuggets" series of the Messrs. Putnam we have the 'Vicar of Wakefield,' with illustrations; and the same story is added to Ginn & Co.'s "Classics for Children," but abbreviated and verbally annotated.

Collectors—and, in these latter days, who so devoid of curiosity and culture as not to collect something?—will receive with pleasure the pretty little book which M. Paul Ginisty has recently written about the vagaries of some of their Parisian brethren. 'Le Dieu Bibelot' (Paris: Dupret; New York: F. W. Christern) has for its sub-title, "Les Collections Originales"; and, although it contains half-a-dozen other sketches, its chief interest is in the first group of chapters, describing eight rather unusual collections. One gentleman collects canes, another keys, and a third advertising cards often of historic interest and artistic merit, while a fourth is gathering death's-heads, mostly carved in ivory and taken from old rosaries. Quite as lugubrious is the autographic mania of yet another, who has sought out letters and manuscripts by notorious murderers—the chief prize being a sort of holographic last-dying-speech-and-confession. We read also of an admirer of the circus-ring who has a collection of "posters" and *billets-doux;* and we are told of yet another special student who has succeeded at last in getting together nearly all the utensils and implements of an apothecary's shop of the seventeenth century.

On January 31, the honor degree of M.A. was bestowed at Oxford on Dr. Lawrence H. Mills, S.T.D., University of New York, for his labors in continuing Darmesteter's editing of the Avesta. Dr. Mills was selected for the task by Prof. Max Müller.

An unfortunate misplacement of sentences in the Note about the sanctuary of the Kabeiroi on p. 202 of our last issue, will be corrected by taking the sentence, "M. Kavvadias. . . . . Asklepios" from the middle, and putting it at the end of the paragraph.

—The article on "Foreign Jurisdiction in Japan," by Mr. E. H. House, in the *New Princeton Review* for March, is a timely and forcible discussion of a subject of vital interest not only to natives, but to American residents in the Mikado's empire. The writer exposes in detail the shameful oppression of the Japanese through the system of exterritoriality, which virtually bars out the lawful owners of the soil from every foot of the "foreign concessions" in the five ports and two cities in which aliens reside. He spares not to show, also, that the Americans have joined hand and purse with European Powers to continue a state of things that long since lost the shadow of necessity or justice. Temporary arrangements once made, as the Japanese believed, for mutual convenience, have, in the presence of the inevitable gunboat and of armed regiments camped on the soil, gradually hardened into "rights" and "law." The old fable of the wolf and the lamb has been enacted over again. Indeed, we think it not disprovable that when "her Britannic Majesty" was "invested with power and authority in remote countries to the same extent as if obtained 'by cession or conquest,'" the Americans were quick to follow suit, in establishing consular courts, and in "practically extinguishing all rights of the Japanese Government over the regions assigned for foreign occupation and traffic." Indeed, as we remember, in the ordinary conversation of our fellow-countrymen at Yokohama, during the first decade or so following its opening, the question of justice obtainable at the United States consular court was largely one of five or ten dollars. Unfortunately, too, even in such schemes as the bombardment of Shimonoséki, and the subsequent levy of three millions of dollars blackmail, the United States Minister joined hand, besides obtaining a private indemnity to boot, as his diplomatic correspondence shows. Common sense, however, ruled at Washington when another of our envoys asked for a guard of twenty-five soldiers, even when he was living at Yokohama, twenty miles from the capital where he ought to have been. Two illustrious names, Harris and Bingham, occur in the list of American ministers in Tokio who believed in justice and protested to our Government again and again that the United States should withdraw from the "coöperative policy" and entangling alliance with Europeans in Japan. Neither of these men needed American soldiers camped on the soil of Japan, while their absolute freedom in moving openly among the natives contrasted strongly and even amusingly with the cage-like room in which one of our envoys habitually slept in the Legation building, for which, by the way, the United States paid no rent.

—Revision of the treaties with Japan is required by all the sound traditions of American policy, and by the convictions of our people. Withdrawal from the European league and "coöperative policy" is the first step; freedom to Japan to regulate her own customs and taxes is another. So far, all Americans doubtless agree. Mr. House, in his closing paragraph, pleads for "an unconditional release from the ties which hold her [Japan] in political and moral enslavement. One frank and outspoken word from the Chief Magistrate of this republic would enable her to reclaim the liberties to which she is as honorably entitled as the most enlightened of western countries." Here, we are compelled to differ. The question of putting American citizens under Japanese law

involves a reversal of old custom and diplomatic precedents, and even the President cannot act upon sentiment alone. He can be but the servant and representative of the people and the Government. Not only to the average American, but to most intelligent people, and even special students, Japan is still, despite the outward bloom of civilization, and even a ready-made "code of law . . . adapted to all the exigencies of the situation," an Asiatic power. It is hardly true, we think, that "no one disputes their intention or their ability to fulfil these [their] promises." Even if President Cleveland and the Senate believed all the Japanese Government professes, they cannot move without assurance from those most competent to speak—the Americans resident in Japan, for instance—that everything is ready for the total abolition of exterritoriality. The feeling of Americans toward Japan is not only very warm, but we think comparatively unselfish. Europeans have large trade interests in Japan, while the people of the United States buy generously and sell almost nothing. They are so ready to hope and believe good of her, to lighten her burdens, and to assist in her struggles in progress, that only the acts of the Japanese Government itself can chill American sympathy and retard revision of the treaties.

— Mr. H. B. Wheatley contributes to the January number of the *Bookworm* (Geo. J. Coombes), under the title "A Mad Book," a brief account of the works of Robert Deverell, formerly Fellow of St. John's College, Cambridge, and M. P. for Saltash. He refers especially to a treatise, privately printed in London in 1805, called 'Andalusia; or, Notes tending to show that the Yellow Fever of the West Indies and of Andalusia, in Spain, was a Disease well known to the Ancients.' Though from this title one would naturally expect a medical treatise, on examination it turns out to be "a partial reprint of Milton's 'Masque of Comus,' with illustrative notes showing the hidden meaning of that poem to be an account of the yellow fever and the means of cure." This was soon followed by other small works of a similar character, but Mr. Deverell's literary career culminated in the publication in 1813 of a work in six octavo volumes, which he called 'Hieroglyphics and Other Antiquities; in treating of which many favorite pieces of Butler, Shakspere, and other great writers, in prose and verse, are put in a light now entirely new, by notes, occasional dissertations, and upwards of 200 engravings in wood and copper.' The illustrations are mainly full-page pictures of the surface of the moon, as it appears in the telescope, and detached portions of it, the aim of the author being to prove that many of the phrases, characters, and incidents, not only of Shakspere's plays, but of "all the classics," are merely allusions to the *appearances of the moon.* In the first volume he applies his novel theory to Hudibras and one of Butler's minor works, "The Elephant in the Moon." The second and third contain parts of "Hamlet," "King Lear," "Othello," and "Merchant of Venice," with illustrative notes and pictures. The following examples will give some idea of the work, though, of course, they do not show the learning which the author really possessed. "'Moult no feather': this very singular phrase may be referable to the circumstance that the prototypes of *Rosencrantz* and *Guildenstern* appearto be naked in the moon, and that there are small detached portions of shadow over their heads resembling the feathers flying about birds in the state of moulting them." "'Get thee to a nunnery.' The shadows at the right and left of *Ophelia's* face in the moon, from beneath which she seems to look out as from a veil, sufficiently explain this expression, so frequently repeated."

—In his introduction to the third volume Deverell says: "Though I would not be understood to assert that all the plays of Shakspere are to be explained by a reference to appearances in the moon, yet, lest it should be thought that the coincidences pointed out between these appearances and the plays contained in the second volume ought to be attributed to accident rather than to design; before other matters are entered upon towards the end of this volume, I shall offer an elucidation of two more of his plays, 'Othello' and the 'Merchant of Venice,' by the same method as before." We do not know that we can find a better note to close our excerpts from this remarkable work than this upon a speech of *Shylock:* "The frequent mention of the Ryalto may be referable to the circular form of the moon, any portion of which, and particularly the half-moon, may be considered as resembling the arch of a bridge." It should be said that the notes are frequently accompanied by engravings of the shadows in the moon, so arranged as to bear some faint resemblance to the subject treated. In the succeeding volumes Horace, Terence, Sophocles, and Milton are similarly commented upon. It will hardly be credited, but the British Museum Catalogue shows that in 1816 a second edition was published of this strange work of a lunatic (in the most literal sense of the word) scholar. A writer in *Notes and Queries* says that Mr. Deverell's friends endeavored to suppress this book. Whether this is true or not we cannot tell, though the only copies of which we have any knowledge now existing are the one referred to above and one in the Barton collection in the Boston Public Library.

—Mr. Sidney S. Rider, in his *Book Notes* (March 3, 1888), is led, under cover of some criticisms on Mr. G. W. Williams's recent work on Negro Troops, to censure the colored people of Rhode Island. He complains, for instance, that when (August 4, 1862) Gov. Sprague of Rhode Island issued a call for a colored regiment, "the negroes would not enlist," and quotes Stone's 'Rhode Island in the Rebellion' to the effect that "a rendezvous was opened and about one hundred men enrolled." But the fact is, that the whole colored population of Rhode Island was then hardly large enough to furnish a full regiment of adult male negroes. The whole number of colored males between eighteen and forty-five years of age in Rhode Island was, in 1860, but 1,165 (compendium of 9th census, p. 553), and from this must be subtracted all the lame, halt, blind, and otherwise unfit for military duty. There may possibly have been seven or eight hundred in the State who would have passed the mustering officer, though it must be remembered that these officers were much stricter in their scrutiny at that period than later, so that this estimate may be too high. If a hundred of these enlisted at once, it is a very creditable showing for Rhode Island, especially when we take into view the bitter prejudice then existing against colored soldiers, and the distrust everywhere felt of the somewhat impulsive and unstable disposition of Gov. Sprague. When Gov. Andrew, eight months later, set about the same enterprise in a more deliberate and careful way, he found plenty of recruits.

—Mr. Rider is scarcely more just when he comes to speak of the colored regiment of heavy artillery afterwards raised in Rhode Island (8th U. S. Colored Heavy Artillery—afterwards 11th U. S. C. H. A.). He complains of this regiment for its large mortality, yet has to admit in the same breath that it was under command of a merely nominal Colonel (Sypher), who never even saw the regiment united, and whose name seems to have been curiously significant of his value. If our war proved anything, it proved that the health and physical condition of the very best regiment depended almost wholly on the way in which it was commanded; and this was especially true of the colored troops, which were constantly exposed, unless their commanding officers stoutly resisted it, to a disastrous excess of fatigue duty. It is rather hard, under these circumstances, to dispose of the 324 men whose lives were wasted by saying merely that "they lacked endurance." As for the fact that they were "never in battle," the obvious remark is that this was not an uncommon experience with heavy artillery regiments.

—Mr. F. C. Clark writes us from the University of Michigan:

"Permit me to say a few words regarding the article in the *Nation* for March 1 on 'The Iowa Railroads.' In regard to Gov. Larrabee's recommendation concerning 'the passage of a law fixing reasonable, maximum rates of freight,' you say 'it is something entirely new. . . . No Legislature has thus far taken this task on itself.' I beg leave to correct your mistaken impression by saying that it is entirely in accord with many of the State Boards of Railroad Commissioners, and delegated to such boards either by the Constitution direct or by legislative enactment. The Constitution of California expressly provides that 'the Commissioners shall have the power, and it is their duty, to establish rates of charges for the transportation of passengers and freights.' The Board of Railroad Commissioners in Illinois, by act of May 2, 1873, are directed to make for each railroad doing business in the State a schedule of reasonable maximum rates for transportation of freights, passengers, and cars, which schedule shall be taken as prima-facie evidence that the rates prescribed therein are not extortionate. Such is the case also in New Hampshire, Tennessee, and other States."

—Vol. ii, No. 5, of the Publications of the American Economic Association is entitled 'Two Chapters on the Mediæval Guilds of England,' by Edwin R. A. Seligman, Ph.D. (November, 1887). The preface states that in chapter i ("The Guilds-Merchant") the author has derived assistance from Gross's 'Gilda Mercatoria' (Göttingen, 1883), and in chapter ii ("The Craft Guilds") from Von Ochenkowski's 'England's wirthschaftliche Entwickelung' (Jena, 1879). Mr. Seligman's obligations to Gross's thesis seem to be much greater than one would infer from a perusal of the preface. Though the two writers diverge on some minor points, and the arrangement and a few of the illustrations are different, the kernel of Mr. Seligman's chapter i and that of 'Gilda Mercatoria' are identical; the former contains no important results, no important argument, and no important references to the sources, that are not to be found in the latter. This, we think, should have been pointed out less equivocally in the preface and footnotes. The reproduction of verbal errors, such as "Walworth" for "Walford" (Seligman, 35, 67; Gross, i, 2), shows how carefully the German work has been conned. What we have said of chapter i and Gross's treatise applies, though in a somewhat less degree, to chapter ii and Von Ochenkowski's book. The main fault of this part of the work is that many generalizations are based wholly upon London, whose municipal development was, in many respects, different from that of the other towns of England. The genesis of craft gilds can be studied to best advantage in the provincial boroughs of England; and the

materials for such investigations, both printed and unprinted, are abundant. The range of Mr. Seligman's data is somewhat broader than that of Von Ochenkowski's, but not broad enough. Though the work before us is not free from errors of detail, the author is deserving of much credit for giving to the world an excellent condensation of Gross's and Von Ochenkowski's researches, in a lucid and agreeable form—free from those pyrotechnical displays of erudition that obscure, rather than illumine, the two German productions. Mr. Seligman's pamphlet will, we hope, at length dissipate the absurd theories introduced by Brentano, eighteen years ago, which English scholars then swallowed, and have been complacently digesting to the present day. It may be added that among the recent announcements of the Clarendon Press is a treatise on 'The Gild Merchant' by Gross, which, we understand, is an elaborate extension of the original German work, and is founded, in part, upon new manuscript materials discovered by the author in English town archives.

MORE FICTION.

Seth's Brother's Wife: A Study of Life in the Greater New York. By Harold Frederick. Charles Scribner's Sons.

Pine and Palm: A Novel. By Moncure D. Conway. Henry Holt & Co.

Old New England Days: A Story of True Life. By Sophie M. Damon. Boston: Cupples & Hurd.

Uncle 'Lisha's Shop: Life in Yankeeland. By Rowland E. Robinson. *Forest and Stream* Publishing Co.

Bledisloe; or Aunt Pen's American Nieces. An International Story. By Ada M. Trotter. Boston: Cupples & Hurd.

George Stalden: A Personal Memoir of the time of the American Revolutionary War. Edited by Edmund Lawrence. London: Remington & Co.

Major and Minor: A Novel. By W. E. Norris. Henry Holt & Co.

The New Antigone: A Romance. Macmillan & Co.

THE story of 'Seth's Brother's Wife' is rather a tame one, in spite of several elements which might, with proper treatment, have served to make it exciting. The incipient love affair between the young journalist and his brother's wife experiences a sudden collapse just at the moment which a more venturesome writer than Mr. Frederick would have seized upon as the one opportunity that the tale affords for strong work. It is, perhaps, just as well that he took the commonplace course of passing this critical point. By so doing he was sure to get into no difficulties, and was equally certain of bringing Seth's modest career to a decent and seemly stage of respectability, where one is content to leave him undisturbed along with the innumerable host of novel heroes who have settled down to spend their days in earning an honest living for an honest family. It is true that the righteous indignation which Seth shows towards his sister-in-law, when she believes he has murdered her husband and is thanking him for it, is only what one would have expected of any well-meaning young fellow whose life had been reasonably honest and pure. But the power of that character which one moulds for one's self through action and thought is so slightly apparent in him that, had his feelings and the result been exactly opposite, it would not have seemed unnatural or impossible. The easy and unprofessional way, too, in which the real murderer was discovered and caught, marks the loss of another opportunity on the part of the author. He might have introduced the ever-popular detective and a few chapters of mystery and subtile reasoning *à la* Poe with telling effect. In the place of these passports to the publisher, a matter-of-fact sheriff and a mere arrest and confession seem like a wilful waste of valuable materials.

The best part of the book, by all odds, is the chapters, evidently drawn from experience, which describe Seth's career as a journalist. The different persons in the office where he goes to work as a reporter are done with a firm touch, with a vigor and naturalness which can only come from a full confidence on the part of the writer that he has his subject well in hand. Although the newspaper office and Seth's life while serving his apprenticeship there form but an episode, there is nothing else in the story which comes near equalling it. One realizes that, after all, the larger part of the man's life is to be passed in such an atmosphere; that what little romance there was in his youth is to be rubbed off by daily contact with the Dents and Tylers and Workmans whom one meets everywhere in the struggle for existence; and also, speaking generally, that the most serious part of a man's life offers the slightest opportunities to the novelist. For surely, to the average man—the man one meets everywhere except in the majority of novels—the daily task which lasts through uneventful years is a more potent factor in fixing the values that he sets on life than the history, however harrowing or delicious, of the time between commencement-day and marriage.

We do not say that Mr. Frederick has erred by leaving his hero a commonplace newspaper man instead of making him a rascal, and thereby having an opportunity of trying his hand at tragedy; if he has made a mistake, it has been on the safe side. There is no ground, however, for accusing Mr. Conway of being too tame. He has not only made the most of his opportunities, but has taken care in constructing his story that there should be no lack of them. None there are, to be sure, such as a jealous husband conveniently murdered; but the number of lighter incidents sufficiently piquant to be momentarily interesting is almost embarrassingly large. In fact, about all one can say in praise of the book is that it is lively and engaging. It is too much like patchwork to be of any real value as literature, and shows evidence of having been too hurriedly written—though at the same time with a certain facility—to be of much worth as a preparation for better work.

The insight which one gets of a phase of civilization in America that has now nearly passed away, through such books as 'Old New England Days' and 'Uncle 'Lisha's Shop,' is well worth having. Even though the stories, considered merely as such, are without literary form or finish, and could more properly be called a collection of anecdotes, there is about them the spirit of the sturdy, honest simplicity which has for so long characterized the rural population of New England, and which makes one regret, in spite of Matthew Arnold, that the statistician is busy with noting its decadence and gradual absorption, while the realist novel-writer is describing its demoralization by the march of progress and the city boarders. It was a phase of civilization, it is true, which was far from perfect; there was much in it that was hard, and but little light or sweetness. Yet there was an independence, coupled with a neighborly helpfulness, about it, a morality which, while it was intolerant, was nevertheless sincere, and a respect if not an appreciation for higher things, for which, one sometimes thinks, the new and growing communities of the West to-day might advantageously exchange a portion of their push and energy.

One is prejudiced against 'Bledisloe' at the start by the claim, printed on the title-page, that it is an "international romance." Just what constitutes an international novel is perhaps as hard to determine as it is difficult to find the long-expected American novel. In the present case it seems to have been thought only necessary to have two American women of English descent returned to visit their relatives at a pretty little village on the Severn. While there they witness and in some measure assist the evolution of the stale old drama of the spendthrift father attempting to marry his beautiful daughter to an old but wealthy admirer, while her heart is breaking for the young Adonis who has nothing but his art to live on. This piece of stock in trade is enough to spoil the smoother and rather pretty love affairs of the American girls; but even were it left out, the novel would be only an ordinarily clever piece of work—a quiet chronicle of tennis, archery, runaway horses, mad bulls, and picnic excursions. The figure of Mr. Irwine was evidently meant to be after the grand type, and his action in preventing his wealthy rival from being dashed to death at the foot of a cliff is an example of pure heroism and great nobility. But novel heroes have done such very similar things so very many times before, that one is not sufficiently impressed either with Mr. Irwine's magnanimity or with the writer's originality.

It is unfortunate for Mr. Lawrence that one so readily recalls 'The Virginians' while reading the memoirs of 'George Stalden.' Two books could hardly be more unlike; but the mere fact that the story—and the story is, of course, the chief part of the memoirs—is laid in the same time with Thackeray's, induces one to make comparisons, and any modern novelist who invites a comparison with Thackeray is unfortunate. It makes no difference on what lines the parallels are drawn—whether it is the human interest awakened by the story, or the antiquarian interest evoked by the reproduction of a by-gone time—they reach the same end, and one's conclusion remains the same. This all may be said, however, without preventing the possibility of praising Mr. Lawrence's work for its own sake. It is painstaking, even, and scholarly. The slightly antiquated style is never obtrusive, and has a certain quiet charm of its own which helps a great deal towards making the book readable. It must be owned, though, that without the style and the interest of the time—a period especially appealing to the sympathies of American readers—the simple adventures and simpler romance of George Stalden would prove very dry material for the average novel reader.

Not so with either Mr. Norris's 'Major and Minor' or the romance of 'The New Antigone.' There is sensationalism enough and to spare in either of them. In Mr. Norris's novel this usually objectionable quality is so toned down by the presence of real people, and relieved by the genuine human interests which they have in common with other mortals, that one is ready to forgive it, especially as it enables one to get through the six hundred and odd pages of the book without too much of an effort. It may be true that the stories have all been told; but there is a perennial interest in some of them. The history of Brian Seagrave's love for Beatrice Huntley is certainly not new in its main features. One can hardly think of a novelist who has not tried his hand at least once on a

similar situation; but it always remains pleasing to read of a young fellow, who is in every way worthy and high-minded, loving hopelessly above his station, and finally being loved in return, and perhaps suitably rewarded. There is a sense of consolation for the young men readers in such a tale. And the young ladies, who, we are told, now form the chief audience for novelists, will always, one fancies, be partial to such a history; especially if it turns out as charmingly as Brian's affair.

As for 'The New Antigone,' it was cast in a large mould, but the metal has cracked in the cooling. The writer, who chooses to leave his name off the title-page, has evidently a very high opinion of the novel's place in literature. He has not only chosen great models, but he has also been at no lack of pains to do them justice—yet with rather poor success, one must admit. The romance which deals with rank materialism and bald socialism cannot but be unromantic; and the tragedy which is evolved from an actor's mere change of view can never have the force of true tragedy, nor evoke the sympathy which one feels for a noble mind struggling against an adverse fate.

SPANISH AND ITALIAN FOLK-SONGS.

Spanish and Italian Folk-Songs. Translated by Alma Strettell. With photogravures after sketches by John S. Sargent, Edwin A. Abbey, Morelli, and W. Padgett. Macmillan & Co. 1887. Sm. 4to, pp. xxi, 124.

THE noble ballads of the Spanish people are well known to the English reader through the spirited versions of Lockhart and Rodd; but the modern popular lyrical poetry of Spain is almost wholly unknown out of the country. And yet it is well worthy of attention, and has many interesting points of resemblance with the popular poetry of Italy. It was, then, a very happy thought of Miss Strettell to give a selection from the popular poetry of the two countries. Unfortunately, however, she has limited her choice of Spanish folk-songs to a single field, which, interesting though it be, is the least popular of all.

The two provinces of Spain which are the most prolific in popular poetry are Aragon and Andalusia. In the latter, side by side with the usual folk-songs, has sprung up in recent times a curious class of compositions known as *cantes flamencos*, or "gypsy songs." Just why the gypsies are called "Flemings" in Spain is not clear, but probably, like our "Bohemian" and "gypsy," it indicated the land from which the mysterious people seemed to come. The gypsies were expelled from Germany in the sixteenth century, and considerable numbers of them went over into Spain, where they were at first called *germanos*, and later *flamencos*. They found a congenial home in Andalusia, and there alone developed the songs which Miss Strettell has for the first time translated into English. The *cantes flamencos* as we now have them are not in the gypsy tongue, are of recent date, and in many cases their authors are well known and still living. They are not folk-songs in the true sense of the word, and at the present day are seldom heard outside of the *café-concert*. They are written in the dialect of Andalusia, which has been influenced somewhat by the gypsy language, and their character does not differ from the genuine Andalusian folk-song. In the words of a profound connoisseur of this class of poetry, "the *cantes flamencos* are in no wise to be regarded as a disfigurement of old, genuine gypsy poetry, but as Andalusian poetry which, chiefly in the language, has assumed a gypsy tinge."

The usual form of these poems is the popular stanza of four lines of eight syllables, with vowel rhyme (assonance) in second and third lines. Sometimes the first line is suppressed, and thus we have *soleares* or *soleás* (for *soledades*, from Soledad, the name of a woman to whom the music is due, and not from the prevailing melancholy character of the poems themselves) of three and four lines.

Miss Strettell's versions, we may say at once, are worthy of all praise for their fidelity to the contents of the original, and for their grace and spirit. The translator has, however, allowed herself certain liberties with the form which are not to be commended. We do not blame her substitution of the English rhyme for the Spanish assonance—that is perhaps necessary; but she has no right arbitrarily to change the length of the verse. So far has Miss Strettell gone in this that there is scarcely one of her translations which preserves the exact form of the original. For the Italian hendecasyllabic verse she substitutes the English verse of ten syllables with accent on the last, and for the Spanish eight-syllable verse she substitutes verse of four, six, seven, or ten syllables.

How interesting and strange these poems are, may be seen from even a very brief selection. Here are a few of the three-line *soleares*:

> "I crossed the churchyard lea,
> And even the rosemary
> Told thou wert false to me."

The original reads:

> "En er simenterio entré,
> Y hasta el romero me dijo
> Que era farso tu queré."

Death and the graveyard are constant factors in these poems.

> "Gypsy maid, when thou art dead,
> Let them with my very heart's blood
> Mark the gravestone at thy head."

> "To-day she passed me, lying dead;
> And when I saw how fair she was,
> A covering o'er her face I spread."

> "One moonlit night
> I saw the gravedigger, digging
> My grave in the silvery light."

> "I will die, that I may see
> Whether death can end this frenzy,
> This thirst for thee."

The same ideas are found in the four-line *soleares:*

> "Yestereven
> The dead-cart passed me nigh;
> A hand hung out uncovered—
> I knew her again thereby."

> "When I have lain ten years in death,
> And worms have fed on me,
> Writ on my bones shall yet be found
> The love I bore to thee."

Besides the *soleares*, the favorite form is that of the *seguidilla jitana*, so named to distinguish it from the Spanish *seguidilla*, which has an addition of three lines, called *estribillo*, that may be suppressed. The *seguidilla jitana* consists of four lines of six, six, eleven, and six syllables, with assonance in the second and fourth lines. A better division makes the lines of eleven syllables—two of five and six. Here are two in Miss Strettell's translation:

> "Go now, and tell the moon
> She need not rise to-night,
> Or shine, because I have my comrade's eyes
> To give me light."

> "Once, as I told my beads,
> While yet the dawn was red,
> I saw the mother of my soul come towards me,
> With arms outspread."

There are several other classes of the *cantes flamencos* which we have not time to mention here, but enough has been said to show how interesting a field Miss Strettell has opened to the English reader.

The second part of the book is devoted to the better-known Italian popular songs, two great classes of which, the *rispetti* and the *stornelli*, are well represented, and there is also a *vocero* or dirge from Corsica. The examples are taken, as was proper, chiefly from Tuscany and Sicily, the great centres of Italian folk-song. There are numerous examples of the flower-*stornelli*, the first line of which is the name of some flower, tree, or shrub, mentioned arbitrarily to furnish an assonance for the third line.

These are from Tuscany:

> "Pomegranate flower!
> And if these sighs of mine were flames of fire,
> The world would be consumed this very hour."

> "O cypress flower!
> Taper, light up above the thicket there
> To light my love, who passes at this hour."

> "Flower of the grain!
> The mill stands idle, tho' the wheel may turn;
> Love grows and we consume away in vain."

Only two are from Sicily:

> "Flower in the vale!
> The sun will show his face no more at all,
> Because he knows thy splendors make him pale."

> "Flower of the vine!
> Christ did forgive his enemies their sin,
> And do thou, dearest life, forgive me mine."

The make-up of the book is worthy of its dainty contents. It is bound in pale green silk, printed on what looks like hand-made paper, with very curious illustrations in photogravure from drawings by Sargent, Abbey, and others. The artists have reflected the weird spirit of the poetry. The process, however, is often vague to indistinctness. Altogether, in form and contents, the book is the most charming we have seen for a long time.

We cannot dismiss it, however, without observing that the reader, not to speak of the reviewer, has rights which the translator is bound to respect. Miss Strettell nowhere in her book makes any reference to the sources of her work. The reader might sometimes like to go a little deeper into the subject; the reviewer, if he is conscientious, will wish to compare the translation. Miss Strettell may have collected all her originals herself, or she may have used the work of others. As a matter of fact, the *cantes flamencos* may be found in the only collection of these songs which has yet been printed, 'Coleccion de Cantes Flamencos, recojidos y anotados por Demófilo (A. Machado y Alvarez)' (Seville, 1881). An admirable article on the subject by Dr. H. Schuchardt may be found in the *Zeitschrift für romanische Philologie*, vol. v, page 249. The Italian poems may be found, with one or two exceptions, in Tigri's 'Canti popolari Toscani' (Florence, 1869), and in Pitrè's 'Canti Popolari Siciliani' (Palermo, 1871).

LAYARD'S EARLY ADVENTURES.

Early Adventures in Persia, Susiana, and Babylonia, including a residence among the Bakhtiyari and other wild tribes before the discovery of Nineveh. By Sir Henry Layard. 2 vols. With maps and illustrations. Longmans, Green & Co. 1887. 8vo.

IT is now forty years since Sir Henry Layard published an account of his excavations in the mounds of Kouyunjik, the site of ancient Nineveh. Of this and the similar work at Babylon we need say no more than that the secret of his success, in the face of countless obstacles put in his way by Turk and Arab, was not so much a great zeal and persistence as his remarkable knowledge of the people and the methods of dealing with them. The manner in which he gained this knowledge, the veteran explorer and diplomatist at length reveals in these volumes. He was just twenty-two when, in 1839, he left England, with Mr. E. L. Mitford, with the intention of going overland to India, an undertaking at that time more formidable and perilous than crossing Africa is to-day. As his companion has recently published an account of this journey (strangely, however, omitting to mention Sir Henry's name), the latter begins his story at Jerusalem, where the two

separated for a time. The younger traveller, whose "youthful appearance" had caused Mr. Mitford some misgivings at the start, determined to visit the ruins of Petra, and from thence make his way to Damascus through the wilderness lying to the east of the Jordan. But the disturbed condition of the country, which was then occupied by the Egyptians, made this route, always a hazardous one, unusually dangerous, and Mr. Mitford was unwilling to risk the attempt. Sir Henry, however, persisted, and, accompanied only by a native of one of the Trans-Jordanic tribes, reached Petra without difficulty. But his journey northward from this place, which the rapacious Bedouins, who inhabited the caves, gave him no opportunity to examine carefully, was a constant succession of hardships. He escaped from the hands of one robber tribe only to fall into those of another. To add to his difficulties, the plague was raging in some of their encampments, and a cordon of soldiers guarded the approaches to Damascus to turn back all travellers from the south. But his unfailing courage, and a happy faculty for making useful friends, enabled him to overcome all hindrances, although he was stripped of nearly everything which he possessed. Eluding the guards at night, he reached the gates of Damascus in a condition very similar to that of Bedreddin, whom the genius laid sleeping at these same gates in the halcyon days of Haroun al-Rashid. Naturally, Sir Henry contrasts his entrance in this nearly naked state with his reception when, thirty-eight years after, he came as the British Ambassador to Turkey, and "vast crowds of men and women of all creeds" went out to welcome him. After a few days' rest in Damascus, he rejoined Mr. Mitford at Aleppo, taking Baalbek on his way. In the course of his later tour he went again to Baalbek, and found, to his great regret, that since his previous visit "many of the delicate architectural ornaments of the temple and other buildings had greatly suffered from wanton injury attributed to English and American tourists."

When the travellers reached Hamadan, in Persia, at which place the Shah was then encamped with his army, they found it impossible to obtain permission to cross into Afghanistan by way of Yezd and Seistan, as they had originally intended. Accordingly here they finally separated, Mr. Mitford proceeding on his journey to Ceylon through Herat, while Sir Henry, still cherishing hopes of being able to carry out their first plan, which included the tracing the course of the Helmund, turned southward to Ispahan. The Shah's camp was raised the day preceding his departure. "Before leaving the city the soldiers had pillaged the bazaars. All the shops were closed, and the inhabitants, dreading violence and ill-treatment, had concealed themselves in their houses. The gardens around the town had been stripped of their produce and the trees cut down. The place looked as if it had been taken and sacked in war. Such was the usual result of a visit from the Shah, his Ministers, and his army." On reaching Ispahan, Layard determined, while waiting for an opportunity to go to Seistan, to visit some remarkable ruins and inscriptions said to exist in the Luristan Mountains, on the western borders of Persia. For this purpose he applied to the Governor of the province for the necessary firman. This man, Manuchar Khan, the Matamet, as he was usually called, was a Georgian eunuch, whom great administrative abilities had raised from the lot of a slave to this important post. Although hated for his cruelty, of which some terrible instances are given, and though thoroughly unscrupulous in the means used to secure his ends, yet "it was generally admitted that he ruled justly, that he protected the weak from oppression by the strong, and that, where he was able to enforce his authority, life and property were secure."

His firman having been secured, Sir Henry joined a party of Lurs who were about to return to their mountain homes. He was warned that all these mountaineers were robbers, cruel, bloodthirsty, and treacherous, and that he risked his life in venturing among them. But, nothing daunted by this, the young traveller adopted the dress of his new companions, and made it his constant study to conform to their customs and to avoid offending their religious sentiments and prejudices. His outfit was very simple, consisting of a small carpet, a wadded coverlet, and a pair of saddle-bags, containing "a second shirt, a hammer and nails to shoe my horse, one or two books and maps, and a few necessary medicines." In money he had but £10, the Lurs insisting that he would "require none when with their tribe, with whom hospitality was a duty, and who would resent as an insult an offer of payment for it." Under their escort he made his way to Kala Tul, the residence of Mehemet Taki Khan, the head of the great Bakhtiyari tribe, who inhabit the mountains of ancient Susiana. This was a castle perched on a high mound in a narrow valley, not unlike a feudal stronghold of Europe, with towers, court-yards, and guest chamber over the entrance. Here, in the absence of the chief, the principal wife, "a tall, graceful woman, still young and singularly handsome, dressed in the Persian fashion, with a quantity of hair falling in tresses down her back from under the purple silk kerchief bound round her forehead," welcomed the young Englishman, who "was at once captivated by her sweet and kindly expression." He was equally attracted to her husband, a man of about fifty years of age, of middle height, with a very noble air and "the very beau-ideal of a great feudal chief." By his courage and abilities he had acquired almost sovereign power over a large territory, and "was famed throughout Persia, as well as in his mountains, as a dauntless warrior, a most expert swordsman, an excellent shot, and an unrivalled horseman." His followers were worthy of their chief, "a splendid race, far surpassing, in moral as well as in physical qualities, the inhabitants of the towns and plains of Persia."

Sir Henry gives a very attractive picture of his life among this people, whose gratitude he won at the outset by successfully treating the eldest son of the chief for a dangerous fever. The days were spent in hunting or in exercising horses, the evenings in conversation and in listening to recitations of poetry, of which the Bakhtiyari are passionately fond. He also made excursions, not unaccompanied with danger, to remote places among the mountains in search of ruins and inscriptions. After several months spent in these occupations, the Matamet appeared in the valley with an army, ostensibly on a visit of courtesy, but really for the purpose of seizing Mehemet, whom the Shah regarded with great suspicion and jealousy on account of his power. The Englishman was not an unconcerned spectator of the exciting events which followed, but chivalrously devoted himself to the cause of the mountain-chief, though bringing himself thereby again and again into imminent peril. When the Persian demanded the eldest son of Mehemet as a hostage, Layard was sent with him. Hussein was ten years old and "one of the most beautiful boys I ever saw, and the very picture of a young warrior." When brought into the presence of the Matamet the latter asked him sternly, "'Why have you not brought your father with you? Is he not coming to Shuster to see me?' 'No,' replied the boy, with an undaunted air, his hand resting on his gun. 'What if I were to send those soldiers' (pointing to the horsemen careering in the plain beneath) 'to fetch him?' rejoined the Matamet. 'Let them go to Kala Tul,' answered Hussein Kuli, grasping his dagger. 'They will all come back naked, like this,' putting his forefinger into his mouth and then withdrawing it and holding it up, a significant gesture employed by the Bakhtiyari to denote that they have stripped a man to his skin." Mehemet was compelled to leave his mountain fastnesses and to take refuge in the swamps of the delta of the Euphrates-Tigris, whither Layard followed him, the latter part of the way floating down the Karun on a raft of reeds, having been robbed and abandoned on its banks. The unequal struggle between the Persian Governor and the mountain chieftain could have but one ending. The latter was treacherously taken prisoner, and, a daring attempt to rescue him in which Layard joined having failed, was carried to Teheran, where he died in 1851.

Layard, in an endeavor to secure an asylum for his family in their native mountains, was captured, but escaped, though his only companion was murdered. After great suffering from the scorching heat of the plains, over which he wandered for several days, he reached Shuster. There he had an interview with the Matamet, who naturally reproached him for the risks which he had run. "'You Englishmen,' he added, in an angry tone, 'are always meddling in matters which do not concern you, and interfering in the affairs of other countries. You attempted to do it in Afghanistan, but all your countrymen there have been put to death; not one of them has escaped.' He then described the ignominious manner in which the corpse of Sir William MacNaghten had been treated at Caubul, and the insults heaped upon the bodies of other English officers." As this was several months before the massacre actually occurred, the Matamet apparently had information of the intended extermination of the English, and supposed that it had already been done. From Shuster Sir Henry made his way with great difficulty and several hair-breadth escapes from Bedouin robbers to Bagdad, which he reached, after a year's absence, bareheaded and with naked feet, clad only in a tarbush and abba, an Arab shirt and cloak.

While waiting for letters from England, he went again to the mountains, partly to visit some ruins which the disturbed condition of the country had prevented his examining before, and partly to learn the fate of his Bakhtiyari friends. The most interesting part of this excursion, which was not without exciting adventures, was his visit to Dizful, a famous fort on the summit of a hill, whose almost perpendicular sides could only be scaled by means of ladders and ropes. On his return to Bagdad, he accompanied Lieut. Selby in the steamer *Assyria* in an exploration of the rivers Tigris and Karun, which very nearly had a tragic ending in a hostile encounter with the Arabs, Lieut. Selby being wounded. At this time, Layard's purpose to go to India being finally abandoned, he went to Constantinople with despatches for Sir Stratford Canning, then British Minister to Turkey.

The concluding chapters give graphic pictures of the "Great Elchi," and his methods of dealing with the Sultan and his ministers, and of life in Constantinople at that day. Layard was employed by Sir Stratford in various pri-

vate missions, which he discharged in such a manner as to win the Minister's confidence. Among other things, he was sent to Thessaly and the Balkan provinces to get information as to the state of the country. A revolution was in progress in Servia, and in order to carry important information to Sir Stratford he rode post from Belgrade to Constantinople in less than six days, a journey of 600 miles, which he performed "in less time by some hours than Col. Townley, a Queen's messenger, whose Tatar ride over the same ground had been mentioned by Lord Palmerston in the House of Commons as the fastest on record." His adventures, which were remarkable both for their number and variety, ended with a mission to northern Albania, where there was a serious rising against the Turks. At the request of Omar Pasha, the commander of the troops sent to put it down, Sir Henry visited the insurgent camp as a mediator. One of the most striking passages in the book is his description of a dance of the Ghegas, on the night of his arrival in camp, in which some hundreds of them moved "round with measured steps to the sound of drums and oboes, stamping their feet and swinging their arms to and fro," while others held torches or brandished swords and raised their war-cries.

It is a pity that Sir Henry Layard, for his own reputation, should have delayed so long the publication of these singularly interesting volumes, which were written, substantially as they are printed, many years ago. Not only would they have put him in the front rank of Asiatic travellers, but it is not unlikely that his accounts of the Bakhtiyari might have led to some efforts for the amelioration of their wretched condition. Making all allowances for the young man's enthusiasm, they are far the most interesting people of Central Asia of whom we have ever read. Sir Henry's style in the first part of his work is a little dry, but grows more animated as he proceeds, and there are few readers who will not follow with absorbing interest and sympathy the fortunes of Mehemet and his charming wife Khatun-jan, "Lady of my Soul." The maps are not such as one would expect to find in a work of this character, and it is with considerable difficulty that the author's route can be traced upon them.

A MODERN KNIGHT ERRANT.

Richard F. Burton, K.C.M.G.: A Biography. By Francis Hitchman, author of 'The Public Life of the Earl of Beaconsfield,' etc. 2 vols. London: Sampson Low & Co. 1887.

SOMEBODY or other once described the human race as consisting of men, women, and clergymen. "Explorers," however, constitute a fourth class having a distinct claim to a place of its own apart from the others. An insatiable curiosity as to the life led in the unknown and waste places of the earth acts like a goad upon the mind of the explorer. He wanders, by choice, among the most brutalized portion of humanity, for, as Sir Richard Burton points out, the "explorer" is not to be confounded with the traveller. The latter journeys over a beaten track; the former is the forerunner of the traveller. It is the pride and glory of the explorer to penetrate whither the foot of civilized man has not preceded him. The security of civilization is an offence to this roving habit of mind. In the great army of explorers Sir Richard F. Burton must always hold a distinguished place, and Mr. Hitchman has done well to collect within a reasonable compass the long story of his wanderings. At the same time, we wish that he had dwelt more upon the man and less upon the details of his journeys. He has given us two thick volumes about Sir Richard Burton, and calls his work "a biography"; but of Sir Richard Burton himself he conveys but a vague and indefinite impression. Burton began life as an officer in the army of the East India Company, landing at Bombay on October 28, 1842. His Indian career was brief, lasting only seven years, but is remarkable for the perseverance with which, after the manner of the true explorer, he pursued his researches into the unknown. To nineteen-twentieths of the young Englishmen who go to India, the land of their adoption has absolutely no interest except as a hunting ground or a shooting preserve. If the rules of the service did not peremptorily demand a certain knowledge of the language, there are only a few who would acquire enough to converse even with their servants. As to going one step beyond the limit enforced by the Government, it is safe to say that even the thought of so insane an enterprise does not enter the head of one Anglo-Indian official out of every five hundred. Burton's practice was in marked contrast with this routine. In the brief space of seven years he passed examinations in six of the native languages, and had acquired a considerable knowledge of two others. He applied himself with so much zeal and devotion to the study of the mysteries of the Hindu faith that his instructor—a strict Hindu—invested him, so he declares, with the "Brahminical thread." He also became so proficient in the Sikh religion and literature, that here, also, his instructor solemnly initiated him (we presume, though he does not expressly say so) as a member of the "Khalsa." What was the exact value attaching to these ceremonies we cannot say. To invest a man with the "Brahminical thread" is to confer upon him the spiritual rank of the "twice-born"—a dignity which is not in the power of flesh and blood to confer, and which we cannot conceive of a Brahmin even pretending to confer upon a stranger and an outcast.

Arabic, however, appears to have been Burton's favorite study:

"Under Shaykh Háshim," he writes, "I began the systematic study of practical Moslem divinity; learned about a quarter of the Koran by heart, and became a proficient at prayers. It was always my desire to visit Mecca during the pilgrimage season. Written descriptions by hearsay of its rites and ceremonies were common enough in all languages, but none satisfied me; moreover, no one seemed practically to know anything about the matter. So to this preparation I devoted all my time and energy, not forgetting a sympathetic study of Sufism, the gnosticism of Al-Islam, which would raise me high above the rank of a mere Moslem. I conscientiously went through the Chillá or quarantine of fasting and other exercises, which, by the by, proved rather too exciting to the brain."

In reading his account of these portentous labors we must confess to a feeling that Sir Richard Burton has unconsciously been led into over-statement. The brief period of seven years would hardly suffice for the study of a single Oriental religion. In the case of Sir Richard Burton, if we are to accept his account precisely as it stands, it was sufficient for the study of eight languages, for a searching investigation into the mysteries of three creeds, for the discharge of official duties, for a number of journeys over unfrequented parts of India, and for a considerable quantity of sickness. All this, it seems to us, is a good deal more than could be crammed into the time even if Sir Richard could have dispensed altogether with eating, sleep, and recreation. It is clear, however, from the success with which he accomplished the pilgrimage to Mecca, undertaken immediately after leaving India, that his instructor, the Shaykh Háshim, must have succeeded in converting him into a very correct semblance of an orthodox Moslem. At the end of this, his first, and perhaps his most remarkable adventure, Sir Richard expressed his opinion that the results were not worth the sacrifices they had entailed. We are entirely of that opinion. Setting aside the danger, the appalling physical discomfort and hardship, Sir Richard had to play during the whole of this trying time the part of a devout Moslem. He had to visit shrines without number; to engage in prayer an incalculable number of times; to be, in a word, in a perpetual state of make-believe. And without entering into the casuistry of the matter, it is impossible to exaggerate the wearisomeness, the inward disgust and loathing, engendered by long persistence in such an anomalous attitude.

Few men, at the same time, accustomed to the milder ways of civilized life, could have lived through the hardships of this dangerous adventure. It began with a voyage from Suez to Yambú, in a small, crazy ship crammed as full as it could hold with a crowd of savage and filthy pilgrims from North Africa.

"Within this comfortless craft" (this is Burton's description) "no fewer than ninety-seven unhappy pilgrims with their baggage were remorselessly packed, while fifteen women and children were crowded into the cabin. Their manners were rude, and their faces full of fierce contempt or insolent familiarity. A few old men were there, with countenances expressive of intense ferocity; women as savage and full of fight as men; and handsome boys with shrill voices, and hands always upon their daggers. The women were mere bundles of dirty white rags. The males were clad in burnús, brown or striped woollen cloaks with hoods; they had neither turban nor tarbush, trusting to their thick curly hair, or to the prodigious hardness of their scalps, as a defence against the sun; and there was not a slipper nor a shoe among the party."

The voyage in this agreeable company lasted twelve mortal days. The discomforts are not to be described, and on some occasions even the hardened Arabs and Africans, who, by Burton's account, are capable of enduring almost any extreme of hardship, suffered most severely.

Africa was the scene of the larger portion of Burton's adventures; but he travelled largely in Asia also, and the scenes and peoples through which he passed he has described in a series of volumes that contain the most minute and varied pictures of savage life ever drawn by a denizen of the civilized world. If there is anybody anywhere who still retains a lingering belief in the reality of "the noble savage," they should be referred to any one of these volumes in order to be disabused of it.

Burton's life of peril and adventure was ended by landing him in the obscure harborage of a consulate at Trieste. Mr. Hitchman is full of indignation at the want of official appreciation for his hero which is disclosed by this circumstance. He ought, however, to take comfort. If Sir Richard Burton had been the kind of man to work easily in official harness, there would have been no occasion for the composition of the volumes under review. Official promotion depends upon a belief in the sanctity of official routines and the virtues of official superiors. That Sir Richard Burton has no particle of this saving faith in his constitution is very abundantly illustrated by the liveliest episode to be found in these two volumes. During the Crimean war, Burton, zealous as always in pursuit of adventure, became an officer in the force of Bashi-bazuks which General Beal-son of the Indian Army was at that time commissioned to raise. This experience of his is, perhaps, the only one which he had omitted to

describe in print. The omission is now made good by a chapter written by himself, and which appears in its proper place in Mr. Hitchman's work. It is a very lively, amusing, and vigorous piece of autobiography, but plain-spoken to a degree. In Burton's deliberate opinion, there was not a prominent man, French or English, connected with this war, who was not knave or fool, except in those rarer cases where he was a combination of both. It may be that Sir Richard is right, but this contemptuous estimate of the men placed in authority over him has been, we fancy, a characteristic of his through life; and when this happens, the superiors, naturally enough, fail to perceive the merits of their too free-thinking critic. Conventionality in all its phases has, through life, been abhorrent to Mr. Hitchman's hero. He has, in all times and places, said what he thought, and done what he wished to do, regardless of the susceptibilities of others or the consequences to himself. This indifference to others' opinions, this disregard of consequence, has made him a great and successful explorer, but are not the qualities which lead to prosperity and promotion in a State department.

The Condition of the Working Class in England in 1844. With appendix, written in 1886, and preface, 1887. By Frederick Engels. John W. Lovell Co.

Arcady. For Better for Worse: A Study of Rural Life in England. By Augustus Jessop, D.D. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1887.

As the Roman Emperor in his triumphal procession was accompanied by a slave to remind him that he was mortal, so to the prosperous and comfortable citizen of to-day there comes from time to time a wail out of the depth of poverty and misery, saddening his enjoyment with the consciousness of terrible suffering among his fellow-creatures, which yet he is powerless to relieve. The success of Mr. George's 'Progress and Poverty' was less owing to the actual merits of the book than to the fact that, after rehearsing in tones of deep compassion the pitiful story, he announced himself as the prophet of a new gospel, and promised a specific which would at least open the way to ultimate relief from the heavy burden of the world. It was not only the poor who caught eagerly at the flattering hope, but thousands upon thousands of those who, themselves beyond fear of want, find their lives darkened by despairing sympathy.

Mr. Engels is not less confident than Mr. George that the universe would be all right enough if only he could have the ordering of it. He is a Socialist, pure and simple. "Now the Socialists of the school of Marx, too, demand the resumption by society of the land, and not only of the land, but of all other means of production likewise." Mr. Engels is not disturbed by the vast development of machine-power and factory life. He dwells with all the glee of an economist upon the number of spindles, the pounds of cotton yarn, and the yards of goods, the output of coal, and the increase of population of towns. The trouble is, that the advantage accrues to the capitalist, by whom the laborer is ground down. All would be well if only the State would manage the factories, and mines, and railroads, and distribute the proceeds equitably among all concerned. And then follows, through two hundred pages of fine print, a catalogue of past horrors so awful as to form a pretty hard strain upon credulity. And yet, after all this demonstration of the need of some prompt and decisive interference, the reader finds the main problem still unsolved, whether such action by the State, even if possible, would not do more harm than good.

It is a comfort to turn from such a picture to the cheery and practical narrative of Dr. Jessop. Having held a curacy in the east of England for seven years, and then lived in a city for twenty-five years, in 1879 he was again presented to a benefice in Norfolk. He sets himself to compare the present condition of the agricultural population with that which he knew in years gone by. After speaking of the classes above, he finds that "the laborer of to-day is a great deal better off than his father was, *with one notable and shameful exception.* His children are cleaner, better taught, better looked after, better dressed than they were; his wife is no longer the poor drudge she almost invariably became after her fourth or fifth child; she has her perambulator, and, in many instances, her sewing-machine; she even talks to you of her dressmaker." The exception referred to is in the matter of lodging, of which he gives a melancholy picture, and, as a consequence, of the decline in female purity. Another gain is, that whereas the laborer used to be always in debt, he now has more money, is much sharper about it, and as a rule pays his way. On the other hand, the laborer's life has had the joy taken out of it:

"There are scores, perhaps hundreds, of villages where the inhabitants have absolutely no amusements of any kind outside the public house, where cricket or bowls or even skittles are as unknown as bear-baiting, where the children play at marbles in the gutter in bodily fear lest the road surveyor should come down upon them."

These two evils, bad lodging and absence of occupation, drive off the young men; and all who can, either emigrate or go to the towns, leaving agricultural labor both scarce and of poor quality. Another change is, that while the laborer of fifty years ago drank a good deal of beer and cider at the farmhouses, he never tasted gin or other strong liquor. Now the facilities for drunkenness have largely increased. Dr. Jessop is no such Utopian as George and Engels, and discusses calmly and practically what can be done, though even so his views are hardly more encouraging. His book is very readable, being enlivened with anecdote and studies of character, and is especially interesting as a picture of life very different from anything in this country.

English Newspapers. Chapters on the History of Journalism. By H. R. Fox Bourne. 2 vols. London: Chatto & Windus. 1887.

Mr. Fox Bourne has long established his reputation as a diligent and successful investigator of the unfrequented byways of history. Passing by his biographies of John Locke and Sir Philip Sidney, few books of our day are fuller of quaint and instructive information than his 'English Seamen under the Tudors' and his 'British Merchants.' His "Chapters on the History of Journalism" are a capital addition to his former contributions to a like line of research. The subject is full of interest, and leads an inquirer, by way of natural necessity, down all manner of obscure passages, and into queer nooks and crannies innumerable. The history of the English press falls into two clearly defined divisions—the period of the press militant and the period of the press triumphant. It cannot be denied that the former is much the more interesting of the two. In a sense it might be maintained that the press was then even more powerful than afterwards, when it had successfully vindicated its right to existence and freedom of speech. After the Revolution of 1688, from which date the political power of the press may be said to have begun, the constituency to which it appealed was concentrated in a single small area, to wit, "the town." The opinion of "the town" was, in fact, the public opinion of the United Kingdom. A telling article passed at once, like an electric current, through all parts of "the town," with fear of change greatly perplexing monarchs and politicians. The promptitude and certainty with which an effect was produced naturally attracted a number of powerful writers to make use of the press as an engine, and a glance through the pages of Mr. Bourne's first volume will show that no inconsiderable portion of the standard literature of Great Britain first saw the light of day in the columns of a struggling press. Defoe, Swift, Steele, Addison, "Junius," Johnson, Burke, Coleridge, are only a few of the great names closely connected with the press during this its militant period, and so attractive are the associations suggested by these names that their simple appearance in a printed page seems to invest it with interest.

Mr. Bourne has, of course, much more to do with them than merely to mention them. The particulars which he gives respecting Defoe and Coleridge are especially interesting, and he has printed almost *in extenso* the article in the *North Briton* that caused the war between John Wilkes and the constitutional authorities, in which the latter were so completely and ignominiously defeated. This period of conflict, adversity, and final triumph brings out in a very striking way the bulldog tenacity of the English character. Prosecution, fine, and imprisonment were until the beginning of the present century the normal diet, one might almost say, of an honest and independent editor. If he refused to succumb to the corrupting allurements of the authorities, he was certain to be attacked by assault and battery. Before the Whig Revolution he was even worse off. He was not infrequently hung; he was constantly placed in the pillory, and he was liable at any moment to endure excision of the ears. There is no instance, we think, of an editor being executed or mutilated after 1688, but, until the peace of 1815, and, indeed, for some time after, his calling remained a highly precarious one. Cobbett left the country and retired to America rather than face the danger of it. The brothers Hunt, so late as 1813, expiated an uncomplimentary article on "The First Gentleman in Europe" by two years' imprisonment and a fine of £1,000. The very dangers, however, which beset the profession were a testimony to its power, and this power was, in its turn, strengthened and extended by the ability of the men who wrote either as editors or contributors. True it is that when a Defoe, a Swift, a "Junius," or some other great author was not writing, the press sank very rapidly to mere scurrility and abuse; but this, so far from diminishing, greatly enhanced the effect of the powerful and thoughtful writing whenever it appeared.

It is this struggle, between the State on the one side and the press on the other, which makes the early history of English journalism as exciting as a sensational novel, and Mr. Bourne has told the story in a graphic and vigorous fashion. But when journalism, emerging victorious from the long conflict, becomes a coördinate authority in the government of the country with the Crown and the Legislature, its history becomes more prosaic and a great deal less interesting. The daily paper has now become a great commercial venture, in which every other consideration has, perforce, to be subordinated to the financial one. It is not strange, therefore,

that the latter part of Mr. Bourne's "Chapters" should not be so full of interest as the earlier. The fault lies, not with him, but in the nature of the subject. It is not in the power of mortal man to invest Mr. Delane with the interest which surrounds the author of 'Robinson Crusoe,' or to make his readers care as much for Mr. Edmund Yates and Mr. Henry Labouchere as for Mr. Addison or Sir Richard Steele. At the same time, all that portion of Mr. Bourne's book which deals with the modern London press is a perfect mine of information on the subject. Especially curious is it to note how the power of the London papers, in relation to the counties, rose with the expansion of the railways, and declined as rapidly with the rise of the electric telegraph. It is the latter discovery which has put an end to the London press setting the tone of political thought in the counties. The telegraph, by outrunning the railway, enabled the provincial press to anticipate the London press in items of news concerning which, so long as railways were the sole means of communication, the London press had anticipated them. Hence the rapid and enormous development of local papers in the great manufacturing centres and elsewhere. The British press, as an advertising and news-collecting agency, is at the present moment in the zenith of its greatness—one of the wonders of the world.

The Holy Land and the Bible. A Book of Descriptive Illustrations gathered in Palestine. By Cunningham Geikie, D.D., Vicar of St. Martin's at Palace, Norwich. 2 vols. James Pott & Co. 1888.

The title of this work naturally reminds one of Thomson's 'The Land and the Book.' And there is also considerable resemblance in the aim, the plan, and the execution. Like Dr. Thomson, though not as often and as long as he, Dr. Geikie journeyed through Palestine "gathering illustrations of the sacred writings from its hills and valleys, its rivers and lakes, its plains and uplands, its plants and animals, its skies, its soil, and, above all, from the pictures of ancient times still presented on every side in the daily life of its people." Richness of detail, vividness of observation, and naturalness in sketching characterize both works almost alike. But there is more pious naïveté in the older writer's pages, more evidence of study and book-learning in those of the younger. Geikie's production is by far less original, but much more systematic and complete. He can justly claim that "all the country is brought before the reader in successive portions, from the extreme south to its northern limits—that is, from Beersheba to Damascus, Baalbek, and Beirout." And man and his habitations, soil and atmosphere, fauna and flora, are minutely depicted, with all their peculiarities, ancient and modern. All Bible history is illustrated, and almost repeated, in pointed analogies and contrasts. In a certain sense, the book is a Bible dictionary, made handy as such by its full index. And yet it has the freshness of a book of travels. Descriptions like the following of a spring scene in Sharon are not infrequent:

"As we rode on, many peasants were ploughing, with the plough in one hand, and in the other a long wooden goad, the sharp iron point of which was used to urge forward the lean, small oxen. . . . The plough used was so light that it could be carried on the shoulder; indeed, asses passed carrying two ploughs and much besides. . . . Ravens and wild doves flew hither and thither. Herds of sheep were feeding on the thin pasture, but cattle were rare. The sheep had great broad tails, and thus seemed to be the same breed as that reared by the ancient Jews, for we read that the tail of their variety was burned by the priests on the altar, in thank-offerings. . . . On the roofs of many of the mud houses grass had sprung up plentifully, thanks to the winter rain, but in the increasing heat it was doomed to 'wither before it grew up.' On every side the landscape was delightful. 'The winter was passed, the rain over and gone; the flowers were appearing on the earth; the time for the singing of birds had come, and the voice of the turtle was heard in the land; the fig tree was putting forth her green figs, and the vines, now in bloom, gave a good smell.' Not that songbirds were to be heard, except the lark; there was not enough woodland for them; nor that the turtle was to be heard on the plain, or the fragrance of vineyards inhaled. These were the attractions of rare and isolated spots, beside the villages, on the hill-slopes. The plain itself is silent, and shows very little life of any kind."

The comparing of things seen with things Biblical—sometimes also in the manner of "lucus a non lucendo"—is here and there carried to excess. Thus, speaking of the crushing loads often carried by the Eastern porters, the traveller adds: "They remind us of the heavy burdens, and grievous to be borne, to which our Lord compares the spiritual slavery under which the Pharisees laid the common people. Perhaps the 'atals' of Christ's day supplied the illustration." Identifications of modern localities and characteristics with ancient ones are occasionally introduced on very flimsy grounds, as, after Guérin and Conder, on pages 48 and 52 of volume i, where the notes attached show the author's own strong doubts as to the soundness of the conjectures. That nothing calculated to put in a clearer light the correctness of Biblical statements is ever omitted, whether found in nature or in a book, need hardly be stated. Exceptionally, however, even this author's bibliolatry yields to facts, as when, speaking of the cony of Scripture, with distinct reference to Lev. xi, 5, he says (vol. ii, p. 90): "The Jews, who were not scientific, deceived by the motion of its jaws in eating, which is exactly like that of ruminant animals, fancied it chewed the cud"—in disregard of the circumstance that the Scriptural statement that "the cony . . . cheweth the cud" is given as one which "the Lord spake unto Moses." Possibly it was only an oversight which prevented Dr. Geikie from trying to identify the *shāphān* of the Hebrew text with some ruminating animal. On what authority he assumes (vol ii, p. 404) that the name Sirion signified "the Banner," while the same word as a common noun undeniably signifies *breastplate*, we are unable to discover.

A Bibliographical Account of English Theatrical Literature, from the earliest times to the present day. By Robert W. Lowe. New York: J. W. Bouton.

We announced Mr. Lowe's book a year or two ago with hope, and we receive it now with gratitude. It is one of the most useful volumes ever prepared for the student of stage-history; perhaps it would not be too much to say that it is *the* most useful of these. It takes its place at once on the shelves of the dramatic collector by the side of the 'Biographia Dramatica,' Geneste's 'History of the Stage,' and Mr. Ireland's 'Records'; it is as indispensable as any of these, and it is more exact, fortunately, than the 'Biographia Dramatica,' and more orderly in arrangement than the worthy Mr. Geneste's work. Mr. Lowe has tried to give us here a list of all the books about the stage published in England. He does not catalogue plays, and the immense mass of Shaksperiana is also omitted; but histories of the theatre, biographies and autobiographies of actors, managers, and dramatists, books of criticism and of gossip, libellous pamphlets and satirical poems, treatises on acting and essays on the art of the stage—these Mr. Lowe has sought out and set down in strict alphabetical order, and with the utmost amplitude of cross references. Theatrical newspapers and dramatic magazines have their rise and their fall recorded in his pages. The richness of the material thus collected may be gauged by the fact that there are seventeen entries under Betty (the Infant Roscius), twenty-six under Colley Cibber, twenty-eight under Jeremy Collier, thirty-four under Foote, ninety under Garrick, eighteen under Henry Irving, twenty-eight under Edmund Kean, and twenty under Richard Brinsley Sheridan.

He was a wise man who said that "if you want to have the pride of accuracy taken out of you, print a catalogue," and we will not venture to declare that Mr. Lowe has made no erroneous omissions; we may even suggest that Mrs. Kemble's 'Notes on Some of Shakspere's Plays' should have been included, because it contains her brilliant and aggressive lecture "On the Stage." And the rigorous exclusion of books printed in America has resulted in some strange voids: for instance, although there are two entries under Fennell, his remarkable autobiography is not one of them. In like manner, though the English publications about Junius Brutus Booth and John Howard Payne are duly catalogued, it is with regret that we mark the absence of the more abundant American matter. No doubt, the line had to be drawn somewhere, and perhaps Mr. Lowe was right in recording no book not published in the United Kingdom. After all, these criticisms seem almost hypercritical when we consider again the many solid merits of the book. To use a commonplace, Mr. Lowe has done very well what was very well worth doing; and he deserves the thanks of all who know how hard his labors have been, and who shall hereafter profit by the results of them.

A certain piquancy not often observable in bibliography is to be discovered by any one who is familiar with a very sarcastic pamphlet called the 'Fashionable Tragedian' and directed against Mr. Henry Irving. This was published anonymously ten years ago, but we find it here set down as the work of Mr. Lowe himself in collaboration with Mr. William Archer. But none the less has Mr. Lowe dedicated his book "to Henry Irving, whose genius and achievements have so powerfully promoted that revival of interest in matters dramatic to which it owes its existence."

La Guerre de Sécession. 1861-1865. Par Ernest Grasset, Inspecteur-en-chef de la Marine. Deuxième Partie. Les Hommes. Paris: L. Baudoin et Cie.; New York: Christern. 1887.

We have here a series of very clever sketches of the principal figures in our late civil war. As a rule, they are remarkable for justness of appreciation and facility of expression. That the men are viewed from the standpoint of a Frenchman, adds to the curiosity and interest with which we turn over the pages. In the first part of his book, M. Grasset has sketched the course of events; here we have his characterization of the actors. Many of his pictures are exceedingly good; those of Grant, Farragut, Meade, Butler, Burnside, may be, perhaps, especially cited.

Not infrequently we are made to see both sides in a fashion to which we are somewhat unaccustomed. Take this, for example, from the sketch of Grant, where our author is contrasting him with Lee:

"Robert Lee . . . possessed all the virtues of private life, all the qualities of a

public man; he was infinitely superior to his adversary; his troops were admirably handled. The patriotism, remarkable as it was, of the loyal States, was surpassed in the South. There, everybody took part in the common work; women, children, old people, all gave something; some their blood, some their gold, others their labor. Notwithstanding this marvellous enthusiasm, which lasted four long years, this party succumbed. The vanquished General approached in genius the great captains of the world; the conqueror did not exceed the average of men of talent. He that was the less endowed by nature triumphed. Sprung from the people, he has their good qualities and their defects—the patient courage, the implacable resolution, the unpolished rudeness. Plebeian by birth, by education, by manners, he is the synthesis of twenty millions of men gathered around the flag of the Union. Grant does not manœuvre—he conducts a crusade; he directs an invasion. The tide rises, and overwhelms the defenders of Richmond. The man acts like a ram; he lowers his head and finds his skull so hard as not to be broken by the shock.

"'The Lieutenant-General does not count his losses,' they write of him in May 1864; 'he has not the time to bury his dead.' Here, in a couple of lines, is a portrait to the life. The Unionist chief does not calculate; he is a hammer, always striking, redoubling his blows, despite of blood, conflagration, ruin. Not being able to defeat his adversary, he destroys him by degrees, a little each time; despairing of conquering Virginia, he systematically devastates it. 'I will fight on this line if it takes all summer,' he writes to the Secretary of War. And the President believes in him; the Secretary of War approves of him; the country blindly follows this general, by whom, in a single month, the army has been reduced by one-half. There are no criticisms on these encounters, so terrible and so useless; no one of Grant's wishes meets opposition from any quarter. Lincoln, so original, so restless, will not allow himself to pass upon the campaign; he discerns final victory at the end of this bloody path."

Jefferson Davis has evidently interested greatly our foreign critic. He recounts his early career; his gallant conduct at Monterey and Buena Vista; his sagacious foresight that secession meant war. But M. Grasset is not blind to Davis's limitations:

"The incursions of Jefferson Davis into the domain of military affairs are always unfortunate. The two invasions of Maryland are due to his suggestion, against the advice, clearly given, of the General-in-Chief;* the weakening of the army of the West on the eve of Murfreesboro belongs entirely to him, as does also the sending of Longstreet to Knoxville after Chickamauga. It is, moreover, he who, in the last year of the war, retains his desperate clutch on Richmond, which Lee desires to abandon. His choice of instruments is no wiser than his choice of plans. He slights J. E. Johnston, he fails to make use of Kirby Smith, but he invents Hood, Braxton Bragg, and Pemberton, the men who are responsible for the surrenders of Atlanta, Chattanooga, and Vicksburg, the three mortal wounds of the Confederacy."

Yet we are not allowed to forget the strength and endurance with which the Confederate President bore up against a constantly increasing weight of misfortune and responsibility:

"On all other points his judgment and his dexterity are admirable. No disaster disheartens him; sad, but not discouraged, he renders to Congress his account of reverses, and indicates the proper measures to repair them. Adversity makes Jefferson Davis only the more inflexible. He defies the imminent bankruptcy, the destitution of the soldiers, the increasing number of desertions. The semi-official journal, the *Sentinel*, talks of war to the knife in the last town to which the Administration may be driven, with the last company that keeps the field under the Confederate colors. Sherman, 'the Attila of the South,' has driven back the army of Georgia—this is nothing; he is marching to his own ruin. Johnston is too prudent; Hood will restore our affairs. Atlanta falls; it is a misfortune, certainly, but one which can be repaired; Hood is about 'to flank the great flanker,' and to call him back whence he came. News comes that Sherman is penetrating the heart of Georgia; he will only find there his 'retreat from Russia.' Savannah has just fallen into the hands of the Federals; but what, in fact, was Savannah? Only an inconvenient rival of Charleston!"

Perhaps we have quoted enough to show M. Grasset's familiarity with his subject. But this portrait of Meade, to whose character and genius public attention has so recently been drawn by the unveiling of his statue in Philadelphia, cannot fail to be of interest to many old soldiers of the Army of the Potomac:

"Tall, slenderly built, of graceful figure, with the slight stoop of a man of books, with manners most attractive, but stamped with great dignity, he inspires confidence and repels familiarity. He is not a 'beau' like Burnside, a seeker for popularity like Hooker, a political candidate like McClellan. Of a complex nature, he unites something of the courtesy of the first with the frankness of the second and the sagacity of the last, possessing besides the solid bravery of all three."

Of Meade at Gettysburg it is said:

"The man of study has disappeared; there remains only the army commander, who comprehends the gravity of the situation, and, preserving all his self-control, faces it with calmness. He shows much more intelligence about military matters than his predecessors Burnside and Hooker; his corps are all engaged; they carry help to one another, changing their position, often under fire—an immense advance since Chancellorsville, where half the army was beaten without firing a shot."

We have no hesitation in saying that this book of M. Grasset's exhibits a remarkable acquaintance with the persons and events of our war. Occasionally he is on a false scent, as where he is inclined to suspect that to Sherman belongs the credit of the brilliant manœuvres near Chattanooga in November, 1863, which he says "ressemblent peu aux procédés ordinaires de Grant." The credit here, as is well known, belongs to Gen. W. F. (Baldy) Smith, then Chief Engineer of the Army of the Cumberland. But the book, as a whole, gives one a very correct notion of the men who were prominent in the war on both sides, both as respects personal character and military and political capacity.

* In this, M. Grasset is mistaken; the policy of invading the North met with the entire approval of Gen. Lee.

The Court and Reign of Francis the First, King of France. By Julia Pardoe, author of 'Louis XIV.,' etc. 3 vols. Scribner & Welford. 1887. 8vo.

Miss Pardoe's historical works are too well known to require commendation, as graphic and truthful representations of the periods which they describe. The fruit of conscientious and painstaking industry, as well as of a narrative power of high excellence, they well merit the sumptuous new edition in which her 'Francis the First' has been presented to us. The periods chosen by Miss Pardoe as subjects of her skilful delineation—the reigns of Louis XIV. and of Francis I.—although separated by a century, have something in common, in the splendor and brilliancy of the court, as well as its extreme corruption. They may be well contrasted with the stormy times of the Huguenot wars and the strong rule of Richelieu, which lie between them. The two kings, the most brilliant in their line except Henry IV., resemble one another in a real kingliness of temper and demeanor, and a genuine love for art and literature, joined with utter selfishness and profound sensuality. From the point of view of elegance and gayety, these are no doubt the most attractive periods in French history—qualities which make them peculiarly suited to a writer of Miss Pardoe's special powers, and explain her selection of times which were morally so detestable.

The work before us can hardly be said to suffer from the want of a revision which should bring its scholarship to the level of present information. The period of nearly forty years that has passed since it was written has added much to our knowledge of the period, and, if the author could now make a fresh study of the authorities, she would no doubt change her judgment on many points. One does not, however, read Miss Pardoe for historical information, but rather to quicken the historical imagination, and inform the dry details of history with life. This power in a writer is certainly second to that of critical judgment and accurate scholarship, but is valuable in itself, and too apt to be overlooked in our days of minute historical investigation. Still, if we can hardly ask for a thorough revision of a work the excellence of which is essentially literary, an occasional correction or note would nevertheless be helpful, as, for instance, on page 51 of the first volume, where it is hard to recognize the despot of Perugia under the term "hereditary sovereign of Pérousa"—a name neither Italian, French, nor English. The book is printed in elegant style, and adorned with eighteen well-engraved portraits. The cover of each volume is stamped with a pattern designed by Diana of Poitiers.

California of the South. Its Physical Geography, Climate, Resources, Routes of Travel, and Health-Resorts. Being a complete Guide-Book to Southern California. By Walter Lindley, M.D., and J. P. Widney, A.M., M.D. With maps and illustrations. D. Appleton & Co. 1888.

It is pleasant to find a book so satisfactory to the searcher after truth regarding California as this is. The careful manner in which the whole is written impresses the reader with the sincerity of the compilers, and their evident desire to be impartial gives weight to some surprising statements. Part first, on Climatology, is of great interest to the inhabitants of Southern California, as well as to visitors and intending settlers, and cannot be too highly commended. It is a matter of regret that a map calculated to mislead the casual observer should find a prominent place. The term "mean temperature" means only confusion to the average reader. He can form no correct idea of the real conditions of heat and cold from the two portions of the map that are colored alike to indicate that those localities have the same temperature. One embraces the coast line from Mexico to Santa Barbara, and has the most equable and agreeable climate in Southern California. The other includes the San Joaquin and Sacramento valleys between the Coast Range and the Sierras, portions of which are well known to be very hot and malarious in summer, and subject to sharp frosts in winter. The same map has been published separately in Los Angeles, and widely distributed, but is generally condemned. The statement as to the general character of the Chinese inhabitants of Los Angeles will be denied by many whose experience has been widely different, and who have been faithfully served for years by Chinese servants. Compared with the average servant of any nationality, the testimony is greatly in their favor as to honesty, respectfulness, and personal cleanliness, though it is difficult to reconcile their known habits in the latter respect with their custom of herding together in airless dens when in pursuit of amusement or society.

The appendix concerns those who are thinking of finding a home in Southern California, yet desire a reasonable assurance of ways to make a living. The authors are apparently

well informed on the subjects of which they treat, and moderate in most of their statements, but it would be well if he who writes in part iii, of the olive, that "ten acres of olives, four years from the planting of the cuttings, will support a family," should mention at least one instance of such a remarkably fruitful orchard, even though the family comprises but two persons. He should also have stated that the present high price of oil cannot be sustained when the best methods of treatment are widely understood. At present only a few growers are successful in its manufacture, and the supply, therefore, is very limited.

It would also be well for the reader to remember that the dazzling sunshine of California affects the eyes of the most sincere writers, making it, apparently, physically impossible for them to see the inevitable shadows. Guides who tell only of the pleasant paths and fine views, and give no warning of the rough places and possible pitfalls, are not the best kind for a traveller in a strange country. Let him know of the chances against him as well as for him, so that, having prepared himself to meet obstacles and some buffets of fortune, he will not be unduly discouraged, nor complain of his guide.

Our Sentimental Journey through France and Italy. By Joseph and Elizabeth Robins Pennell. Longmans, Green & Co. 1888.

THIS is an artist's journey from Calais to Lyons and a little beyond, in which the pleasant feature is the large number of small illustrations of French types and landscape which are profusely scattered over the pages. It makes a very pretty volume, and is even an advance in this respect over the other two attractive books of tricycle travel which the same authors have published. It is, however, a tricycle journey: the roads and the inns are the most engrossing subjects of interest; the wind, the rain, and the good weather are next in importance, and the face of the country and the manners of the inhabitants come last. Accidents, of course, providentially occurred, and these fill the place of adventures. There was some sentiment included in the plan, and the travellers did follow upon the track of Sterne, to whom they dedicate their ramble. But sentiment was in practice hard to come at; they discovered the second day that it did not depend upon their own volition. The country was as fair as ever, and the sketches show its quiet fields and rolling hills and still, poplar-shadowed rivers. There must have been charm in it, and once there was enthusiasm over one day's ride; but the travellers do not seem to have had a really good time. Perhaps the text is too closely confined to the notes taken at the time. We are certainly told very little about the things seen. Millet's country was on the route, and there is a pleasant chapter on a small scale about it. Stevenson was a fellow-traveller to be remembered with Sterne, and Ruskin was remembered at Amiens. There is a good word for the French commercial traveller, who, according to other tourists, sadly needs it. But the volume altogether is to be regarded as an artists' sketch-book of the roadside, and it is a very agreeable collection of such glimpses of old gates, streams, peasants, landladies, and soldiers on horseback at the autumn manœuvres.

Outlines of Society, Literature, and Politics. By Edwin Percy Whipple. Boston: Ticknor & Co. 1888.

THIS new volume of Mr. Whipple's Collected Writings is made up in the main of political articles written upon the topics of the war time or of the period of reconstruction. They have a good deal of the heat of party in them, as well as patriotic fire, and they are so specific in their treatment that they can have now only an historical interest as illustrations of the pamphlet-warfare of the time. Such questions as are raised in them require more close connection with general principles if the paper is to take any place in literature; but they are not characterized by the broad grasp and philosophic habit of mind which sometimes make contemporary pamphlets, written for special purposes, always of use to the political student. Nearly everything in them is now dead matter. The other essays are upon the decadence of morals in the business world, the increase of luxury, and like subjects, or upon literature. Of this last division, however, there is only a very small proportion—one little essay upon Mr. Lowell's prose style, and another rambling paper entitled "Dickens-land," which some of our readers may remember. The whole is not an unfair illustration of Mr. Whipple's literary work when he had no intention of making a book. They are the papers of the magazine-writer, not meant to live beyond the hour or to serve any but a passing purpose, and in no sense are they to be regarded as a part of the work upon which his reputation as a writer is based. The volume is well printed and altogether a handsome one; yet it only cumbers the shelf which is already sufficiently well laden with its author's literary criticism.

A Quarter of a Century in Photography. A collection of hints on practical photography which form a complete text-book of the art. By Edward L. Wilson. New York: The Author, 835 Broadway.

MR. WILSON'S name is known as far as the literature of photography has spread, and, so far as that literature is concerned, his labor is inseparable from all that has been done since it assumed the importance it now has. The fault we must find with this book, which is the result, in the last reduction, of all his studies, is that he has "pitchforked" all he has ever known over to the public, and made a manual so huge, and containing so much material that is only to be learned to be forgotten, that it is practically of no use to the beginner, while the old hand knows it all already. The knowledge of the wet-collodion process, in all its vexatious and uncertain details, is to the modern photographer perfectly superfluous, and the time spent in learning it, if anybody were so uselessly disposed, would enable the tyro to do all that he needs to do by the gelatine processes.

When we have manuals of fifty pages which teach all that an intelligent person need be taught by a book, or indeed can be so taught of photography, it requires a ponderous patience to go through a volume of above 500 pages. To shorten it, the utterly irrelevant quotations from Ruskin and other art writers might have been left out, as worse than useless because misleading. It is well indexed, and for that reason it deserves a good word and a place as a book of reference for students of the history of photography. For those who care only for the practical results, time may be more usefully employed than in the reading of Mr. Wilson's "hints."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Ashton, J. The Fleet: its River, Prison, and Marriages. Scribner & Welford.
Bardeen, C. W. Common School Law. New ed. Syracuse, N. Y; C. W. Bardeen.
Beecher, Rev. H. C. Milton's Paradise Lost. Book I. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan & Co. 40 cents.
Blades, W. The Enemies of Books. Revised ed. A. C. Armstrong & Son. $1.25.
Brown, Marie A. The Icelandic Discoverers of America. Boston: The Author.
Cable, G. W. Bonaventure: a Prose Pastoral of Acadian Louisiana. Chas. Scribner's Sons. $1.25.
Cary, Rev. H. F. Dante's Inferno. Scribner & Welford.
Chamber's Encyclopædia. Vol. I. A to Beaufort. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $3.
Coles, Dr. A. New Rendering of the Hebrew Psalms into English Verse. D. Appleton & Co.
Evelyn, John. The Life of Mrs. Godolphin. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $2.50.
Featherman, A. Social History of the Races of Mankind. Oceano-Melanesians. London: Trübner & Co.
Fitzgerald, P. Life and Times of John Wilkes, M. P. 2 vols. Scribner & Welford.
Goethe's Boyhood. 1749–1764. Translated by John Oxenford. Scribner & Welford.
Goethe's Faust. Translated by Anna Swanwick. Scribner & Welford.
Goldsmith, O. Vicar of Wakefield. Boston: Ginn & Co. 40 cents.
Harrison, W. H., jr. How to Get Rich in the South. Chicago: W. H. Harrison, jr., Pub. Co.
Henry Irving Shakspere. Vol. II. Scribner & Welford.
Inge, W. R. Society in Rome under the Cæsars. Chas. Scribner's Sons. $1.25.
Lawrence, W. Life of Amos A. Lawrence. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Lemaitre, J. Impressions de Théâtre. First series. Paris: Lecène & Oudin; New York: Christern.
Lessing's Laokoon. Translated by E. C. Beasley. Revised ed. Scribner & Welford.
Lord Bacon's Essays. Scribner & Welford.
Lowell, J. R. Heartsease and Rue: Poems. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Macgregor, J. G. Elementary Treatise on Kinematics and Dynamics. Macmillan & Co. $2.60.
Markham, C. R. The Fighting Veres. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $4.
Martin, E. S. A Little Brother of the Rich, and Other Poems. Mitchell & Miller. $1.
Molee, E. Plea for an American Language, or Germanic-English. Bristol, Dakota: The Author. $1.
Oliphant, Mrs. The Makers of Venice. Macmillan & Co. $3.
Pierson, A. T. The Inspired Word: Bible-Inspiraton Conference, Philadelphia, 1887. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $1.50.
Pole, W. Theory of the Modern Scientific Game of Whist. G. W. Dillingham. 25 cents.
Renan, E. The Abbess of Jouarre. G. W. Dillingham.
Richardson, C. Large Fortunes; or, Christianity and the Labor Problem. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 75 cents.
Riley, Prof. T. M. Chas. George Gordon. Milwaukee: The Young Churchman Co. 65 cents.
Salis, Mrs. de. Savouries à la Mode. G. W. Dillingham. 15 cents.
Saltus, E. The Truth about Tristrem Varick. Belford, Clarke & Co. 50 cents.
Sawyer, Dr. H. C. Nerve Waste. San Francisco: The Bancroft Co. 75 cents.
Schiller's Dramas. Mary Stuart, translated by J. Mellish. The Maid of Orleans, translated by Anna Swanwick. Scribner & Welford.
Schrakamp, Josepha. Erzählungen aus der Deutschen Geschichte. Henry Holt & Co.
Seidl, R. Industrial Instruction: A Pedagogic and Social Necessity. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 80 cents.
Sidney, Margaret. St. George and the Dragon: a Story of Boy Life. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.
Sinclair, Ellery. Victor: A Tale. Cassell & Co. $1.
Smith, C. Treatise on Algebra. Macmillan & Co. $1.90.
Smith, May Riley. The Inn of Rest: Later Poems. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $1.
Spiers, R. P. Architectural Drawing. Cassell & Co. $5.00.
Stanley, Capt. Z. L. The Mysterious Doctor: A Novel. G. W. Dillingham.
Statesman's Year-book for 1888. Macmillan & Co. $3.
Stebbins, G. B. The American Protectionist's Manual. New ed. Chicago: Chas. H. Kerr & Co. 75 cents.
Stevenson, R. L. Treasure Island. New ed. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.25.
Stewart—Gee. Practical Physics for Schools. Vol. I. Electricity and Magnetism. Macmillan & Co. 60 cents.
Stockton, F. R. The Dusantes. The Century Co. 50 cents.
The Story of Colette. D. Appleton & Co. 25 cents.
Yeld, Rev. C. Florian's Fables. Macmillan & Co. 40 cents.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 22, 1888.

The Week.

THE long-delayed decision in the telephone cases has finally been announced, and it is a complete victory for the inventor. As an appropriate sequel to the defeat in the courts at Boston, last fall, of the attempt to impair the value of the Bell patents by a suit in the name of the Government, comes now the decision of the Supreme Court of the United States at Washington sustaining their validity over the separate and combined efforts of interested parties to break them down by a mass of falsehood, misstatements, and elaborate arguments the like of which has seldom if ever been produced on any one subject in litigation in this country. On the most important issue, so far as the law of patents is concerned, the court is unanimous. The holding is clear that a line may be drawn between discovery and invention. A man discovers an art or an improvement in the art, and invents the apparatus or means of utilizing his discovery; and when he so brings his discovery to a state of practical utility through the medium of a working device, he is entitled as fully to all the benefits of his discovery as he is to the invention, and is not limited to the mere apparatus devised. This has been the great question in the telephone cases, the important point of law that has been submitted for the decision of the court of last resort. On this question the court is unanimous in conceding the right, under the Bell patent, to control the use of the undulatory current. It is only on questions of fact in relation to the alleged inventions of Drawbaugh that the court is divided; and when the immense mass of testimony given by this man and the scores of witnesses brought forward to corroborate him are taken into consideration, it is not to be wondered at that some of the judges were overpowered by the weight of evidence. The insinuations of fraud on which was based the Government suit, which has thus far been a failure, are considered, and swept away with the remark that "not a shadow of suspicion can rest on any one." This will leave the pending suit of the Government now before this same court in a sorry plight, and foretells its ending in disaster to all connected with it.

Could there be a more ridiculous and humiliating spectacle than the following, as described by the *Chicago Tribune*?

"The Post-office authorities are said to be apprehensive of troubles on the Santa Fé system. The mail service on the Burlington since the strike began, it is said, has not been as good as it might have been. Now, if the Santa Fé were tied up, and the Union Pacific also, there would likely arise a serious state of things in connection with the transportation of mails to the Pacific Coast. General-Superintendent Nash of the Railway Mail Service came from Washington Saturday night, and was in consultation all that evening with the Chief. Again, yesterday afternoon Capt. James White, Superintendent of the Western Division of the Railway Mail Service, called upon Mr. Arthur. The result of these conferences has been the promise by the Chief that, whatever may happen, the mails will not suffer delay or inconvenience. If necessary, Brotherhood men will pull the engines. Mr. Arthur assured both Mr. Nash and Capt. White that they need not feel any uneasiness whatever."

Here we have the officers of a nation of 60,000,000 actually negotiating timidly with the head of a band of 25,000 conspirators for permission to carry the United States mails over the public highways! "The Chief," we are gravely told, assured the Government of the United States that it "need not feel any uneasiness whatever."

Mr. Arthur has lately said in an interview in Chicago that for fourteen years no Brotherhood engineer had deserted his locomotive. We are sorry to say that, as we showed week before last, this is not true. Brothers struck and deserted their engines on the Central of New Jersey, wherever they happened to be, at midnight on October 23-4, 1876, forcing the road, which was then much embarrassed financially, to comply with their demands. November 16 of the same year the Brothers also struck on the Cairo and St. Louis, deserted and disabled their engines, and assaulted the men who attempted to take their places, cut the telegraph wires, and took forcible possession of the depot, yards, and machine shops at East St. Louis. On the 15th of November, same year, the Brothers on the Georgia Railroad struck and abandoned their engines, wherever they happened to be, at one A. M. On the 29th of December, same year, the Brothers struck and abandoned their engines on the Grand Trunk at seven P. M., wherever they happened to be, in the midst of a heavy snow-storm, leaving trains filled with passengers standing on the single track which was all the line had. On the next day they assaulted and drove off the men who came to take their places, ran the engines off the track, and laid snow-ploughs across it. In these conditions the company had, after three days' struggle, to give way, and Arthur compelled it to repay him his expenses for coming to Montreal to organize and direct this dastardly outrage. This was, however, his last success. His next attempt was made on the Boston and Maine, but that corporation throttled him, and he then laid in a stock of wisdom which has apparently lasted him until now. He has now, however, a bigger job on hand than he has ever before attempted. His previous operations have been confined to one road at a time on which the employees had a difference of some sort with the corporation. What he has lately been aiming at is a general stoppage of the highways of the United States, in order to help him in carrying his point in any one dispute anywhere.

Gov. Larrabee of Iowa on the 10th inst. wrote a letter to the president of the Chicago, Burlington and Quincy, which, in its way, was worthy of our own Hill. Its sole purpose, evidently, was to aid the strikers in taking possession of the road. He calls attention to "the inconvenience and disappointment caused by the present state of affairs" to "the travelling public and to commerce," and therefore appeals to him "to come to an understanding with the strikers," threatens him with suits for damages for failure to "furnish reasonable facilities for the transaction of business on the road," and suggests that "the controversy be submitted to arbitration." We need hardly say there is now no controversy whatever, and nothing to submit to arbitration. The strikers left the service of the company because they did not like it, which they had a perfect right to do. Other men who do not object to it have taken their places. The exact state of the case on Monday week was this: The company had in its service when the strike began 1,053 engineers, but they were never all fully employed. The road could not use now over 800, and on Monday week it had 684 at work, 30 had just applied, and 100 more were on their way. Now, these men are the only engineers with whom the C., B. and Q. Road to-day has any relations. They are as good men in the eyes of God and man, and ought to be as good in the eyes of politicians, as the strikers, and they are much better entitled to the name of "Labor," because they are willing to work, and are working. They do not ask for arbitration or "settlement" of any kind, except the payment of their weekly wages. Somehow or other, this species of labor gets neither sympathy nor attention from the Hills and Larrabees.

The elaborate canvass which has been made by the Philadelphia *Times*, showing the Republican Presidential preferences in New York, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana, and Minnesota, is not especially encouraging for the party. It shows, summed up briefly, that the real first choice of the majority of the party is Blaine, and that if he had not written his Florence message, he would have been renominated by acclamation. Even after that message, the canvass shows that out of 7,000 replies which were received, fully one-third are in favor of nominating "Blaine anyway." Next to Blaine stands Sherman, but there is a perceptible lack of warmth in the support professed for him. Even in Ohio it is evident that Gov. Foraker is more suited to the party taste. Chauncey Depew has considerable strength in the Eastern States, but very little elsewhere. In Indiana, Harrison is much stronger than Gresham, and in Pennsylvania Lincoln is ahead, though the party there is obviously yearning for one more trial of Blaine. In fact, the real outcome of the canvass is, that at least one-third of the party is determined upon the great policy of "*aut Blaine aut nullus.*" This third may be called the "knifers," for,

should any other candidate than Blaine be nominated, they would see to it that he was never elected. There really seems to be no escape for the party. It must march peacefully and unresistingly to its fate and submit to Blaine's renomination. Nothing but the overwhelming defeat which will inevitably follow can cure it of its trouble, and it is almost certain the patient will die under the operation.

The Bulletin of the American Iron and Steel Association intimates pretty plainly that if Judge Gresham is nominated for the Presidency by the Republicans, the protected classes will bolt the ticket. It assumes that Judge Gresham's views on the tariff are unsound because the Chicago *Tribune* supports him so earnestly. "If the choice for the Presidency next fall," it says, "is to be between Mr. Cleveland and a half-hearted, milk-and-water 'revenue reform' Republican, who is acceptable to the free-trade element in the Republican party, Mr. Cleveland will be elected. If the Republican party is to be restored to power next fall, it must be upon an out-and-out platform of *protection for the sake of protection*, with candidates for the Presidency and Vice-Presidency whose records are in accord with that declaration." This declaration is tolerably plain and extremely brazen. The old-fashioned doctrine of "a tariff for revenue, with incidental protection," is completely discarded, and the fiat is laid down that a tariff for the sake of protection regardless of revenue is the only doctrine that will secure the support of the Steel Trust for the Republican nominees—and that if anybody is nominated whose views on this subject are doubtful, they would prefer the reëlection of Cleveland. We presume that the Republican party will take notice, and as for Judge Gresham, we are convinced that nobody will ever get a word out of him before the Convention is held to propitiate one side or the other. Practically, therefore, he seems to be ruled out by the Trusts.

Senator Plumb of Kansas on Monday made some remarks on the International Copyright Bill which seemed to indicate that he looked on the absence of international copyright as a measure of "protection" for native authors, or for somebody, we do not exactly know whom, and suspected the friends of the measure of being free-traders in disguise. We believe a notion of this sort is not uncommon outside Congress as well as in it. A very little reflection will show, however, that the protection for American authors, as the term is generally understood, would consist in an import duty on the works of foreign authors, which would exclude them wholly from the country, or else make them very dear in our market. Our present system is as far as possible from protection for anybody. It can only be compared to a system under which we should permit cargoes of foreign goods to be seized and pillaged by the first persons who could reach the ship, and then "slaughtered" or sold at very low prices in the market for the sole benefit of the robbers. There is not the shadow of a resemblance between this and the protective system as practised in any civilized country.

Mr. Randall's Tariff Bill has one salient feature, and only one, that marks and distinguishes it from other projects for reducing the surplus, viz.: the reduction of the whiskey tax to fifty cents per gallon, and the preservation or conservation of the duties on sugar. All the information obtainable from Republican circles shows that the party which charges itself with the duty of "protecting American industry" is in favor of making a larger reduction on sugar than is made by the Mills bill, and is not in favor of reducing the liquor taxes at all. The only Republican of note who has declared his adhesion to the Randall bill is Judge Kelley of Pennsylvania, who, in fact, declared himself in favor of the entire repeal of the liquor tax more than a year ago. Kelley and Randall have for many years been the Siamese twins of tariff extortion. It is a great pity that they should belong to different parties. Perhaps they will not long be in this anomalous attitude. Randall's bill has been put forword as an obstacle to the Mills bill. Nobody supposes that the Randall bill can pass. Whether it has vitality sufficient to stop the way for the Mills bill, remains to be seen. Aside from the paralyzing influence of the Treasury surplus, it makes little difference whether the Mills bill passes or whether any bill passes. Taking a wide view of the situation, political and industrial, the main thing is to get the tariff issue before the people so that the country may be educated and brought to an intelligent conclusion upon it. There is good reason to believe that this end will be reached, whether the starting point be the Mills bill, or the Randall bill, or some third measure to be formulated by the Republicans. The horrible surplus, however, requires some action. It will not stop growing and will not be postponed. If the Mills bill is defeated, there will be a struggle over whiskey and sugar as sources of revenue. And in this conflict we shall expect the sugar tax to fall rather than the whiskey tax, notwithstanding the gallant fight in the Union League Club in favor of distilled spirits.

The Washington *Capital*, an independent newspaper, hopes that Senator Hale and his Civil-Service Investigating Committee will make a thorough examination in regard to the present state of the classified service. The *Capital* says the main facts in the case are these: "There were about six thousand five hundred clerks in the departments within the provisions of the Civil-Service Law when it was passed. Every one of them was subject to removal without a violation of its letter. Not a tenth of them have been removed during the three years of Mr. Cleveland's Administration. With vacancies occurring by natural causes, all of which have been filled by operation of Civil Service rules, there remain now in office not less than 5,000 Republican clerks, appointed under Republican rule, and many of them by the operation of vile political methods."

Senator Stewart of Nevada made a speech a fortnight ago to show up the wickedness of the demonetization of silver in 1873. The speech seemed to be rather late coming, but perhaps this was the first chance Mr. Stewart had had to relieve his mind. We must protest, however, against the injustice done by him to the memory of the late Ernest Seyd, who was one of the most indefatigable champions of silver in the civilized world. Mr. Stewart would have us understand that Mr. Seyd came to this country to whisper into the ear of Comptroller Knox that circumstances were favorable for "striking down silver" by a dastardly and secret blow, and that Mr. Knox took the hint and framed the bill of 1873 accordingly, which dropped the silver dollar from the list of American coins. The wicked Seyd then went home, and, in order to cover up his tracks, began to write books denouncing the demonetization of silver, and urging the Governments of Europe and America to retrace their steps, and kept up this hypocritical game till the day of his death. At least we suppose so, although Mr. Stewart drops Mr. Seyd altogether from the moment he gets him closeted with Mr. Knox.

The recent municipal election in Mobile, Ala., was rendered noteworthy by the breaking down of the color line for the first time in the history of the city and, indeed, on any large scale in the State. Hitherto the whites have voted one ticket and the blacks another, in local as well as national contests; and so long as the Republicans were in power at Washington, no change seemed possible. But the negroes in Mobile have at last discovered that black men have nothing to gain, but rather everything to lose, by voting in a solid mass. As the *Christian Register*, a Mobile paper published by colored men, says: "We have learned that there is nothing in a name, and our action on last Monday is a proclamation to the world that the negro is no longer a tool in the hands of ambitious men; neither is his vote a cat's-paw for the use of political monkeys."

That ancient terror of the bar, the Field Code, has come up again in the Legislature. It accordingly behooves all those who regard it as a Pandora's box of evils, without the redeeming element of hope, to lay aside their excuses and business, and give their time and energies once more to the task of beating it off. This is an annually recurring duty, because there will always be a certain proportion of lawyer cranks in the Legislature, and a certain number of unthinking persons who fancy that, with a plainly written code, every man can be his own lawyer. The latter are the more dangerous, because they are the more numerous class in the community, if not in

the Legislature. They are quite unmindful of the fact that when the code passes, if it ever does pass, the interpretation of it will become the great question of the day in all the courts, and will multiply and protract litigation, rendering the services of the legal profession more necessary than ever, and making it more difficult than before for any man to be his own lawyer. Mr. George H. Adams, a member of the bar of New York, has rendered a public service by showing, in an eight-page pamphlet, how the Field Code stands in reference to the new-fangled Trusts that the Legislature and Congress are just now trying to grapple with. What these Trusts want most of all is an assured legal status. Mr. Adams shows that the Field Code supplies this precise deficiency, and if passed by the Legislature puts them on a sure footing.

It is probably true that the law now authorizes individuals to enter into these Trusts, but it does not authorize corporations to do so. It certainly does not *expressly* authorize them to do so. "Assuming," says Mr. Adams, "that the objects of the Trust are not in themselves open to criticism, it is very doubtful whether the law now sanctions an agreement whereby a stockholder or the majority of the stockholders divest themselves irrevocably of the power of voting on their stock by vesting in perpetuity in another, not a stockholder, or not the holder of that stock, the absolute power of voting thereon. But there is no doubt that the courts have repeatedly declared unlawful any action by a corporation as such, the result of which is to divest itself of, and abrogate, its powers as a corporation, and to clothe another with that franchise, or its use, which the State granted to the corporation." The Field Code supplies the preëxisting want of authority to corporations to amalgamate themselves in Trusts by first defining Trusts, and afterwards declaring that words used in the singular number include the plural, and that the word person "includes not only human beings, but bodies politic and corporate," so that whatever a person can do hereunder a corporation can do.

There is going to be a fresh attempt made to force Keely to reveal the secret of his motor, but we are not sanguine of its success. This is not the first time that judicial pressure has been brought to bear upon Keely. He has been forced several times to give up his secret, but he has given it up in language which the human mind, as at present constituted, has been totally unable to understand. Curiously enough, the persons to whom he communicated it, though so dazed at first that articulate speech was impossible for several weeks, finally found voice in explanations which, like Keely's own, were very impressive, but entirely incomprehensible. We are of the opinion, therefore, that the present attempt will not succeed. A commission has been given an order to "inspect the motor" and report, and the order, we believe, gives them power to catechise Keely himself. It has always been easy to do these things, but it has always been impossible to understand either the motor or Keely. That shows what a great secret it is. There is apparently no hope of ever understanding it till we can understand Keely.

Dr. Patton, the new President of Princeton, made on Thursday a witty and lively speech at the Princeton dinner in New York, outlining his policy as the head of the College, but outlining it so vaguely that we doubt if anybody was much the wiser for it—which is a pity, as Dr. Patton's fame is rather controversial than collegiate. He intimated that the College would be under his charge "American," but in what sense American he did not explain, further than that it would not be French, or Scotch, or German. He said, also, it would be "Christian," but how Christian he did not explain, beyond saying that a young man would "not have philosophy taught him that would undermine his faith in God;" but the only explanation he gave of this was that the young man "shall see the universe opened, and deal with the facts and problems of life under theistic conceptions." The young man who will have this done for him at college will be a very lucky fellow, but what system of philosophy does it, and how can the universe be "opened" to a young man without giving him glimpses of systems of philosophy of which the College disapproves or does not teach? The universe is a great miscellany, and Princeton must be a wonderful university if it keeps its young men from seeing or hearing any but the good things. Dr. Patton said, too, "We may as well get rid now of the idea that a university means simply a place for special research, or an aggregation of colleges, or a coördination of faculties, or a series of professional schools." He did not say, however, what a university is if not this. When we have got rid of this idea, what have we left? We trust he will, before long, on some more formal occasion, clear up these dark places. Nothing is more important to a university than the President's definition of it.

The loss of a character so gallant, so public-spirited, so sincere and self-sacrificing, and withal so modest as that of the late Henry Bergh, in a community like this, where those who have no votes find it so hard to get a hearing or consideration, and where "No. 1" is so carefully looked after, is simply incalculable. If "our colleague, the horse," as Prof. Huxley has so happily called him, could pick out his benefactors, and could go where he pleased, few men would be followed to the grave by so many sorrowing friends as Henry Bergh. For he was the best friend dumb animals have ever had in this community, the first to devote his life to their protection from cruelty and greed, to make their lot in this brief passage of theirs across the earth less hard, and to set a noble example of literally thankless service.

A correspondent writes to us from Washington expressing pleasure in the account we gave the other day of the adventure of the Duponts and Durands in Paris, and maintaining that we have them here "in our midst." He tells us a story of a Washington Durand who used to shower invitations on the whole town, and sent one to a secretary of legation to whom he was entirely unknown. The secretary asked his chief whether under the circumstances he ought to accept it. The chief's answer was, "Certainly. In this country there are only two social distinctions —the rich and the poor. Durand is presumably rich, or he would not be giving a party, and he is therefore 'in society.'"

The Local Government Bill, introduced in the House of Commons on Monday, is the most important measure of English legislation since the last extension of the suffrage. It is difficult to say as yet whether its democratic character constitutes a Tory or Liberal victory. The Liberals have been very confident that the Tory party would split in any attempt to give the counties real popular government and oust the landed gentry from their last political stronghold. It was supposed they would not be able to produce a bill on which they would agree, and for which the Liberals could vote. It has still to be seen whether the Ministry can keep its forces together during the passage of the bill. If it can, it will undoubtedly "dish the Radicals," much as Lord Derby and Disraeli "dished the Whigs" in 1867, by passing Gladstone's extension of the franchise. That the counties will get as good a government as they have now, from representative assemblies, in the matter of purity and economy, many will doubt until they see it. The Boss will make his appearance before long, attended by his Boys, and if they succeed in introducing "rotation in office," and in distributing "spoils" among the "victors," the rule of the justices of the peace will be looked back to as the golden age of rural England.

One of the most significant passages in the letter of the Emperor Frederick to Prince Bismarck is that in which he says: "I desire that the bases of religious toleration which for centuries past were held sacred by my house shall continue to be extended to all my subjects of whatever religious community or creed. Every one of them stands equally near my heart, for all have shown equally complete devotion in times of danger." It would hardly have been possible to express, on such an occasion, stronger condemnation of the anti-Semitic agitation by which Prussia has during the past few years been somewhat disgraced. The Emperor has since emphasized these views by bestowing the order of the Black Eagle on Dr. Friedberg, the Minister of Justice, who is, if not a professed Jew, a Jew by birth.

A MASSACHUSETTS BALLOT ACT.

MESSRS. Richard H. Dana and Morrill Wyman, jr., have prepared for the Committee on Election Laws of the Massachusetts Legislature a ballot bill which is, in many respects, the best measure of the kind that we have yet seen. It is a more perfect application of the best principles of the English and Australian laws than has been made in any other of the many bills which have been prepared in various States for legislative consideration. The authors of the bill have given careful consideration to all the most worthy of the pending bills, and have adopted whatever has seemed to them most commendable in any or all of them. They have drawn most freely from the bill prepared by a committee of the Commonwealth Club in this city, now at Albany, taking its title for theirs, copying many of its sections almost literally, and adopting the ideas in others. At the same time, they have gone beyond any measure prepared here or in other States, in the extent to which they have applied the principles of the foreign election acts.

Their bill opens with a provision that all ballots shall be printed and distributed at public expense. Upon that point there is no longer any division of opinion, everybody conceding the wisdom of taking from the political organizations the dangerous and corrupting control of the ballots which has been so long in their hands. In regard to nominations, the bill follows closely the provisions of the Commonwealth Club bill, adopting its phraseology in reference to individual or independent nominations by stating that a nomination paper or certificate may consist of "a writing or writings," thus allowing petitions for nominations to be signed in duplicate. The number of signatures required "shall not be less than 400 for any office to be filled by the voters of the State at large, and for any other office not less than one for every 100 voters who voted at the last election in such political division or district, provided the number is not less than 10 or greater than 100."

In reference to the printing of the ballots, the Massachusetts bill differs materially from all others yet proposed in this country. It provides that each ballot "shall contain the name, residence [with street and number in city elections], and party or political appellation of every candidate whose nomination for any office to be specified in the ballot has been duly made," the names to be arranged in alphabetical order, except that Presidential electors are to be arranged in a separate group. Blank space is to be left at the end of each list of candidates large enough to contain as many written names and residences as there are offices to be filled. The novel part of these provisions is the requirement of the residence, street, and number of each candidate. This is exacted by the English law, together with the designation of the candidate's occupation. While they are about it, the Massachusetts reformers would do well to require the occupation to be included. Taken altogether, name, residence, occupation, and politics, the ballots would be in all city elections an invaluable guide to voters. In the country, where every man knows his neighbor's business, such information is unnecessary.

The Massachusetts bill has also a novel and it seems to us valuable provision in regard to the official marking of the ballots. It requires that before distribution the ballots shall be folded, and on the back and outside when folded, shall be printed, "Official Ballot for," followed by the designation of the polling place for which the ballot is prepared, and the date of the election, with a facsimile of the signature of the Secretary of the Commonwealth, or City Clerk, who has caused the ballot to be printed. There shall also be printed on tinted paper, without the facsimile signature, ten or more copies of the ballots for each polling place, which shall be called specimen ballots. Full instructions for voting shall also be printed on cards in large, clear type to be posted in the polling places. The provision for distributing the ballots to the election officers at the polls is so specific, and so interesting as an effective means for preventing forgery of the official ballots, that we give it in full:

"Section 14. The Secretary of the Commonwealth shall send the proper ballots, specimen ballots, and cards of instruction printed by him, as above provided, to the several city and town clerks, so as to be received, one set at least forty-eight hours before the day of election, the other set sent separately so as to be received at least twenty-four hours before the day of election. These ballots, specimen ballots, and cards shall be sent in separate sealed packages clearly marked on the outside for the polling place for which they are intended, and the number of ballots enclosed. The ballots, specimen ballots, and cards of instruction printed by the city clerks shall each set be packed in separate sealed packages clearly marked on the outside for the polling precincts for which they are intended. The city and town clerks shall send to the several officers of each precinct or to the selectmen of the town before the opening of the polls on election day, in the manner in which the ballot-boxes are required to be sent, one full set of the packages of ballots, specimen ballots and cards intended for that polling place, keeping a record of the number of ballots sent to each polling place. The second set shall be retained until they are needed for the purposes of voting. At the opening of the polls in each polling place, the seals of the packages shall be publicly broken and the packages opened and the books of ballots handed to the ballot officers, hereinafter provided for, by the precinct officer or the selectmen of the town, presiding at such polling place. The cards of instruction shall be posted in each place provided for the marking of the ballots, hereinafter provided for, and not less than three such cards, and also not less than five specimen ballots, posted in and about the polling place outside the guard rails, before any ballot is delivered to any voter."

When the voter receives his ballot, after he has shown that he is entitled to vote, he must go alone into a compartment and check with a cross in the margin of the ballot the names of the candidates for whom he wishes to vote. Then he must fold his ballot so that the official endorsement on the back will be visible, and, coming from the compartment, deposit it in the ballot-box. No ballot without the official endorsement can be received by the officers in charge of the ballot-boxes, and if any such should get in, it must be thrown out in the counting. Any voter who allows his ballot to be seen by any person with the apparent intention of letting it be known how he has voted or intends to vote, or any person who interferes or attempts to interfere with any voter while marking his ballot, or who attempts to ascertain in any way how he has voted, shall be punished by a fine of not less than $5 or more than $100.

These are the provisions of the act which are most interesting because of their originality. In other respects the bill is much like those drawn elsewhere, and seems to be lacking in none of the important requirements which the others contain. In one respect the Massachusetts drafters have an advantage over the others, for it has been the custom in that State to vote long tickets, that is, to group their candidates for national, State, and county officers upon one ballot, and those for municipal officers upon another. In this State, on the contrary, we are accustomed to a large number of short tickets. Still, the principles of the proposed reform can be applied equally well without regard to the number of ballots.

GRANT—BADEAU.

THE publication of a correspondence between Col. Adam Badeau and Gen. Grant, which took place a few months before the death of the latter, recalls one of the saddest chapters in the country's history. We presume that nobody has read this correspondence without thinking, first of all, that the conclusions announced by the General as his final summing up of Badeau's demerits ought to have been reached long years before, and that Badeau was only one of a long procession of his confidential friends and intimates whose summing up in any just sense would have been of the like tenor and effect. Nothing could be more crushing than the statement of the General's belief that an agreement to pay Badeau $1,000 per month for literary work on the Memoirs after his (Grant's) death would never come to an end. The whole letter is an arraignment more terrible to a sensitive, high-minded man than any order of battle that the author of it ever drew up. How Badeau could bring an action at law against the widow or the estate of the General, knowing that these letters must come out as a consequence of the action and a necessary part of the defence, is a mystery, and the only mystery, perhaps, in the case. We do not wish to prejudice the jury or court who may have to try the issues raised, but we take leave to express a literary judgment suggested by the correspondence. Badeau says in his letter to the General of May 5, 1885, speaking of the Memoirs, and contrasting them with his own military History:

"Yours is not and will not be the work of a literary man, but the simple story of a man of affairs and a great General. Proper for you, *but not such as would add to my credit at all.* With your concurrence I have striven to make it such. But your book has assumed an importance which neither you nor I anticipated last summer. It is to have a circulation of hundreds of thousands, and the larger its circulation, the larger its importance, the more com-

pletely it will supplant and stamp out mine. The better I help you to make it, the more effectually I destroy what I have spent my life in building up—my reputation as your historian. And this nobody but me can do. No literary man has the military knowledge; no military man has the literary experience; no literary or military man living, not one of your old staff even, has one tithe of my knowledge and experience on this subject, the result of twenty years' study and devotion and labor."

Military men will judge of the relative stations of Grant and Badeau as captains. Our judgment is that Grant's literary work is as much superior to Badeau's as his military services were more important than Badeau's in the war of the rebellion. The present correspondence only serves to heighten the contrast.

But the value of this correspondence arises from the fact that Gen. Grant's eyes were opened at last, and before they were closed for ever, to one of that series of mistakes of judgment which made his two terms of the Presidency a burning shame to his country. It is not an agreeable task to recall these things. Perhaps we had best let Senator Hoar of Massachusetts do the summing up under this head. In his speech on the Belknap impeachment case, May 6, 1876, Mr. Hoar said:

"My own public life has been a very brief and insignificant one, extending little beyond the duration of a single term of Senatorial office, but in that brief period I have seen five judges of a high court of the United States driven from office by threats of impeachment for corruption or maladministration. I have heard the taunt, from friendliest lips, that when the United States presented herself in the East to take part with the civilized world in generous competition in the arts of life, the only product of her institutions in which she surpassed all others beyond question was her corruption. I have seen in the State in the Union foremost in power and wealth five judges of her courts impeached for corruption, and the political administration of her chief city become a disgrace and a byword throughout the world. I have seen the Chairman of the Committee on Military Affairs in the House, now a distinguished member of this court, rise in his place and demand the expulsion of four of his associates for making sale of their official privilege of selecting the youths to be educated at our great military scnooi. When the greatest railroad of the world, binding together the continent and uniting the two seas that wash our shores, was finished, I have seen our national triumph and exultation turned to bitterness and shame by the unanimous reports of three committees of Congress, two of the House and one here, that every step of that mighty enterprise had been taken in fraud. I have heard in highest places the shameless doctrine avowed by men grown old in public office, that the true way by which power should be gained in the Republic is to bribe the people with the offices created for their service, and the true end for which it should be used when gained is the promotion of selfish ambition and the gratification of person al revenge. I have heard that suspicion haunts the footsteps of the trusted companions of the President. These things have passed into history. The Hallam, or the Tacitus, or the Sismondi, or the Macaulay who writes the annals of our time will record them with his inexorable pen; and now, when a high Cabinet officer, the constitutional adviser of the Executive, flees from office before charges of corruption, shall the historian add that the Senate treated the demand of the people for its judgment of condemnation as a farce, and laid down its high functions before the sophistries and jeers of the criminal lawyer?"

The picture drawn by Mr. Hoar was less than the truth, much less. He made no reference to the Leet & Stocking scandal, the then pending Babcock scandal, the San Domingo embassy, the Cramer embassy, the Black Friday gold speculations, or to the long train of "mind-poisoning" which led the General to treat every man as his personal enemy who ventured to protest against any of the rascalities that were going on under the protection of his shield and buckler. The revolt of 1872, although unsuccessful and covered with ridicule, was one of the most respectable events in all our political history, and would easily have carried the country if Adams or Trumbull or any man of that stamp had been nominated instead of the erratic Greeley. It was an honest, manly protest against the things that Senator Hoar at a later day opened his lips to condemn, and was only prevented from being successful by one of those ironical accidents which so often bring defeat and humiliation to the better cause.

We have always maintained, however, and we now repeat, that the Republican party rather than Gen. Grant was to blame for those misfortunes and scandals. By taking a simple and inexperienced soldier, honest and faithful, but whose training had been wholly in the tented field, and whose mind knew only the one rule of obedience to those above him and obedience from those below him, the party became responsible for whatever flowed naturally from such premises. While the occasion seems to call for some reference to these things, nobody can read the General's letter to Badeau, written in his pain and weakness, and almost in the presence of death, without infinite pity, and renewed admiration for the really great qualities of the man.

BOULANGER AGAIN.

At the recent elections in France, Gen. Boulanger was found to have been a candidate in various constituencies, and to have received heavy votes, and he was suspected, with more or less foundation, of having actively promoted his own candidacy. This brought him once more to the surface as the idol of the Parisian Radicals, who began to prepare demonstrations, or, as they call them, "manifestations," in his honor, and leave of absence to visit the capital was, therefore, refused him. He appears, however, to have got the political bee in his bonnet to such a degree that he disregarded the refusal, and came to Paris three times, twice in disguise. This extraordinary performance on the part of a general officer in high command has led to his being deprived of his command. There was nothing else to be done with him. As a soldier he appears to have been ruined by politics, and into politics he will probably now go, head and ears, and perhaps start an Anti-Poverty Society.

His career furnishes a striking illustration of the great difficulty of working Republican institutions in the presence of a large standing army — and of glorifying the soldier's trade on all public occasions, as French statesmen are obliged to do — without creating or fostering the popular demand for a military hero. It is much easier now for soldiers to dabble in politics than it was at the time of the *Coup d' État*, because now almost the whole male population is either put into the army or brought into the closest connection with it. The old Napoleonic army, small in size and largely composed of substitutes and old soldiers, is a thing of the past. Every able-bodied man in France is now either in the regular force, or in the reserves, or in the "territorial." Consequently, in a certain sense, the army is the nation, and the nation is the army. In most French newspapers there is as much space given to military news and gossip as ours give to Washington correspondence or theatrical news. Therefore a general who wants to cut a figure in politics has only to make himself popular with the troops by displays of an easy, indulgent temper, or of great concern about their physical comfort, in order to make himself available as a candidate for some sort of political honor. The worst of it is, too, that when a soldier gets into politics in France, he is rarely fit to deal with any but military affairs, and has to maintain himself by the display of zeal for the efficiency of the army. To do this, he is obliged on all occasions to magnify the dangers to which France is exposed at the hands of foreign enemies, and to dwell on the necessity of being constantly ready for a terrible conflict, or, in other words, to fan the flame of hostility to or jealousy of some foreign Power, which has so long been the curse of France, and in 1870 came near being her ruin.

Moreover, the necessity of having a soldier always for the Ministry of War gives the military demagogue a pedestal, as it has done in the case of Boulanger. It would mortally offend the army in France, as, indeed, in every country of the European Continent, to put a civilian at the head of the War Department. The tradition which makes any commissioned officer the moral, if not the social, superior of all civilians, or "pékins," as they are called in French military slang, is not as strong in France as in Germany, but it is very strong. The spectacle of a man in a black coat giving orders on military matters to a man in uniform runs counter to all French notions of propriety. Consequently, the Minister of War has always to be a general. If he be a modest, quiet man without ambition, and with a proper respect for the civil power, and no disposition to magnify the army, his office brings him little fame or profit. He passes unnoticed from the stage with the crowd of Ministers whom the French Chambers employ and dismiss every year with so little respect or compunction. If, on the other hand, he determines to make it a stepping-stone to something else, he does as Boulanger has done—"organizes" with feverish activity, and pretends that Bismarck is coming, and that the future is uncertain, and that France needs some sort of redemption, and that the friends of peace are in the pay of the foreigner.

The decision and energy which the Ministry have shown in dealing with Boulanger is very commendable, but then it must be admitted that he has delivered himself into their hands by playing the mountebank. Whether they would be equally successful in disposing of a shrewder and more cautious military schemer, remains to be seen.

DR. DIX ON IMPURITY.

THE annual outburst of indignation against the morals and manners of New York society in which Dr. Dix of Trinity Church indulges, is this year more than usually severe. We are sure he means well, and is animated by a real horror of vice and immorality—that is, that he draws these dreadful pictures of our social life with a view to the promotion of purity. This being so, no apology is needed for calling his attention to two or three considerations which he has evidently overlooked. Nothing needs more careful handling, either in the pulpit or in the press, by any one who aims at moral reform, than the vice known as licentiousness. As we pointed out when Mr. Stead began his crusade against it in England, it differs from all other vices in that if you describe it with any minuteness, no matter how many opprobrious adjectives you throw in, you promote it. It appeals to the imagination in a way which no other sin does. Consequently, the preacher who thinks he is making his invective more potent by describing the wickedness at which it is aimed, saws off the branch on which he is sitting. He makes two sinners for the one he brings to repentance.

We cannot say that Dr. Dix has made this mistake, but he has fallen into that of exaggeration, to which the preacher on this subject is even more prone than the mistake of minuteness. Impurity has been a favorite theme of preachers ever since the foundation of Christianity, but probably no man ever became the deadly and active foe of this vice without becoming feverish over it. Human nature asserts itself by magnifying in his mind the horrors which he seeks to extirpate. All the saints who made the best fight against licentiousness were perpetually pursued by the Devil of Uncleanness, and always pictured the society in which they lived as wholly given over to him and his works. Dr. Dix is evidently not exempt from this hallucination. He feels so strongly about impurity that he evidently sees traces of it in nearly every man and woman he meets, and detects it lurking in all the manners and amusements of his time. He is even able to follow it into "the unchaste slumbers" "of the silly fool dreaming of her admirers." Consequently his rhetoric about it is very fervid, and yet on no subject should speech be calmer and more careful in order to be effective. He forgets that every one whom he can possibly influence knows fully as much as he knows about the extent to which society is stained by this vice—probably most people a great deal more than he knows; and if they find him exaggerating or indulging in unmeasured accusation, they close their ears against him. They say that he looks at the world through the windows of his imagination, and that through this medium everybody sees what he expects to see.

Finally, let us add, Dr. Dix, in telling his congregation about the dreadful illustrations of ancient impurity to be found in Clement of Alexandria, forgot that Clement was telling Christians about the practices of the heathen. Dr. Dix in his lecture was telling the heathen about the practices of the Christians. One effect of this, we fear, will be that our heathen, hearing from so good an authority what the state of morals is among professedly religious people, will take fresh heart, and pursue their own abominations with renewed vigor. Tens of thousands of pagans, we are sure, on reading the highly colored account Dr. Dix gives of the state of things within the Church, will flatter themselves that they have still a very respectable balance at the Devil's bank, which may be exhausted without bringing their credit any lower than that of the bulk of attendants on public worship.

In fact, one can never watch attacks on this particular vice with which Dr. Dix is contending without being struck by the enormous dangers of failure to recognize, that in attacking it we are trying not to extirpate, but to restrain within reasonable limits. We make these criticisms on his methods with reluctance, because we believe he is fighting the battle of high thinking and plain living against greater odds than a preacher of righteousness has ever had to meet in a great capital. In no capital that we know of does the cause of religion and morality derive so little support against luxury from intellectual interest or activity of any description. This interest has its place here, but it leads a sickly existence as yet under the shadow of great wealth which cares not for it.

RECEIPTS AND EXPENSES OF THE GREAT NATIONS.

AT the last meeting of the International Institute of Statistics, a detailed comparison of the revenues and expenditures of seven of the leading States of Europe was given by M. Cerboni, Superintendent of Accounts (or, perhaps, we should rather say, Auditor-General) for the kingdom of Italy. The total receipts and expenditures for the different nations for the year 1885-86 were as follows:

	Receipts.	Expenses.
Austria	$380,000,000	$382,000,000
England	465,000,000	480,000,000
France	602,000,000	583,000,000
Germany	477,000,000	478,000,000
Italy	282,000,000	286,000,000
Russia	613,000,000	624,000,000
Spain	167,000,000	175,000,000
Total	$2,986,000,000	$3,008,000,000

The budget for Germany includes that of the smaller States of the German Empire; the figures for Hungary are included in those of Austria. All figures are reduced on the basis of five francs to the dollar.

We subjoin those of the United States for purposes of comparison:

	Receipts.	Expenses.
United States	$336,000,000	$242,000,000

The sources of income (classified for convenience' sake on a slightly different basis from that of M. Cerboni) are as follows:

Land tax	$281,000,000	
Income tax	216,000,000	
Other direct taxes	93,000,000	
Total direct taxes		$590,000,000
Customs	$415,000,000	
Tobacco	216,000,000	
Spirits	483,000,000	
Administrative & stamp taxes	346,000,000	
Other indirect taxes	282,000,000	
Total indirect taxes		1,742,000,000
Post-office		193,000,000
Railroads (net earnings)		111,000,000
Other public property		158,000,000
Miscellaneous receipts		192,000,000

The difficulty of classifying the income in the different States of the Union makes American figures unavailable for comparison.

The income from property is by far the greatest in Germany, where it constitutes more than one-third of the total receipts. Austria and Russia have property whose income is in each case somewhat less than one-quarter that of Germany, while the figures of the other countries for this head are only trifling. The proportion of direct taxes is, on the whole, more constant than that of any other item in the budget. Of indirect taxes, the figures for England and Russia are made much larger than the others by the tax on spirituous liquors, which produces over $200,000,000 in Russia, and about $120,000,000 in England.

The expenditures are divided under the following main heads:

Fixed charges.	Total.	P.ct.
Interest and pensions	$1,052,000,000	35
Army	620,000,000	20½
Navy	190,000,000	6½
Civil and miscellaneous	1,146,000,000	38

Comparing the same expenses in the United States, we find the following results:

	Total.	P.ct.
Interest and pensions	$114,000,000	47⅛
Army	34,000,000	14
Navy	14,000,000	5⅞
Civil and miscellaneous (including Indians)	80,000,000	33

The interest on the public debt of the different countries is as follows:

Austria	$118,000,000
England	119,000,000
France	201,000,000
Germany	72,000,000
Italy	104,000,000
Russia	149,000,000
Spain	54,000,000
Total	$817,000,000

The interest on the public debt of the United States for the year named was 50½ millions, or less than that of any of the countries in the table. This fact, however, means little, on account of the failure to include State debts in this total. It is significant that the United States spends for pensions more than any of the countries in the list, and about two-fifths as much as all of the seven put together.

The most interesting part of the whole exhibit is that with reference to the war expenditures (army and navy combined):

	Total.	Per cent. of budget.	Am't per inhab.
Austria	$63,000,000	16⅓	$1.61
England	174,000,000	36	4.69
France	161,000,000	27½	4.22
Germany	111,000,000	23	2.36
Italy	68,000,000	23½	2.28
Russia	198,000,000	31	1.91
Spain	35,000,000	20	2.06

The last column shows certain rather surprising results, England having a greater

expenditure per head of population than France, and twice that of any other country in the table. As a matter of fact, the basis of comparison is not thoroughly fair to England, whose colonial population should to some extent be taken into account in any comparison between population and military expenditure. Nor do these figures give any just idea of the burden imposed upon the different countries, as M. G. de Laveleye remarks in the *Moniteur des Intérêts Matériels*. The figure of $1.91 for Russia probably represents a more burdensome effort, in the existing industrial conditions of the country, than that of any other nation in the whole column. The different items of civil service present an interesting study. The Treasury Department costs more than one-third of the whole, the Department of Public Works about one-quarter, Education and Church one-seventh, the Department of the Interior a little less, and the Department of Justice about one-twelfth. The other expenditures are of comparatively trifling importance. The Treasury Department is relatively most expensive in Austria; the Department of the Interior in England; that of Church and Education in France; that of Public Works in Germany. It need hardly be added that Russia is the country which spends the most for its prisons; in fact, Russia loses by its prisons many times the amount which it saves by the absence of parliamentary expenses.

It is easy to exaggerate the importance of these figures; but it is none the less true that their general results are in the highest degree significant.

LEROY-BEAULIEU ON THE STATE OF EUROPE.

PARIS, March 8, 1888.

EUROPE is in that nebulous state which the modern astronomers represent as having preceded the formation of stars and constellations. One constellation is formed already. Since the publication of the treaty made between Prussia and Austria, and the revelations made on the subject of Italy, we cannot be ignorant of the existence of what is already called the new Triple Alliance. But in the face of this great constellation formed by the two German empires and by Italy, many eyes have already seen the lineaments of another constellation formed by France, Russia, and perhaps even a third power. There is a fable of Florian's, in which figures one of those astronomers who operate in the streets, and permit the public, for a small remuneration, to see the moon and the rings of Saturn and all sorts of fine things. A rat has entered the telescope, and obstructs the rays of light. When the astronomer says to the man who looks in the glass, "Now, don't you see the fine comet with its tail?" the man timidly answers, "Je vois bien quelque chose, mais je ne distingue pas bien." That is exactly the experience of those who have been watching the formation of that new constellation, France and Russia; they see something, but they cannot say exactly what.

The subject has been thought of sufficient importance for the insertion in our *Revue des Deux Mondes* of a mysterious article, without a signature, on the subject of the Franco-Russian alliance. The author begins by showing the character of the Triple Alliance, and makes great efforts to prove that it has not the solidity which Prince Bismarck attributes to it. The elements of frailty are found in the constitution of the Austrian Empire, in the multiplicity and variety of interests of the populations of this empire; they are found also in the state of the Italian peninsula, in the divisions of its parties, in the finances of Italy, etc. These critical considerations are not without importance, but the author has perhaps exaggerated their value. Of course it is difficult to tie together millions of men for any length of time; but when the compact is made merely for defensive purposes, when it has only, if I may say so, a negative character, when a constant appeal can be made to the love of peace of the populations—the small differences disappear, and the alliance does not incur the dangers which it would incur if it had positive objects, and was intended for conquest and territorial changes.

The author of the article which I mention has rendered a service in telling the truth about the relations of France and Russia. These relations have a friendly character, but there is no treaty of alliance between the two countries; there has not been any negotiation preparatory of such a treaty. There are newspapers in both countries which advocate a common action, and try to show a community of interests between Republican France and autocratic Russia; but on one side France, as a whole, may be said to be intensely pacific; and on the other the Emperor of Russia is equally pacific, and, in his empire, the press has no influence whatever. Prince Bismarck, in his last great speech, spoke of it with contempt; he said that he had the greatest confidence in the pacific assurances of the Emperor, and he had this part of his speech only telegraphed to all the foreign ministers of Prussia.

It would be most dangerous to deceive the French people by the promise and the assurance of a Russian alliance; it is always better to know the exact truth. The Emperor of Russia lives in complete isolation, like one of the gods of Wagner: he sees at very rare intervals his Minister of Foreign Affaires, M. de Giers; at much rarer intervals the ambassadors of the great powers. He is probably almost wholly ignorant of all the noise which has been made on this question of a Franco-Russian alliance. Everybody expected that, after the speech of Prince Bismarck, he would be beside himself, and do something; he has done nothing. The diplomatic correspondence of M. de Giers has gone on as usual; we have had the same perpetual appeal to the Treaty of Berlin, but no active resolutions have been taken. Russia can wait, and the words of Prince Gortchakoff are still true: "La Russie ne boude pas, elle se recueille."

In the present state of Europe, it is of the highest interest to know what England thinks. The anonymous writer in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* (who is now known to be M. Leroy-Beaulieu, the author of a book on Russia) does not say much about England; but England is a free country, and it is easier to know what is thought in London than what is thought in St. Petersburg. In the freest countries in the world, however, there are things which cannot be said too loudly. It is generally thought now that some time ago Prince Bismarck made an effort to induce England to join the Triple Alliance; it is said, also, that Lord Salisbury was not as adverse to this policy as were other members of his Cabinet. Lord Randolph Churchill is considered as having made the strongest objections to the adhesion of England to an alliance which might force her, under certain circumstances, to become as active in the affairs of the Continent as she had been in the time of Napoleon I. Without being absolutely an advocate of non-intervention, as a political doctrine, he thinks that the new House of Commons, elected by larger constituencies, is more pacific than its predecessors, more desirous to circumscribe the questions and interests which England must consider vital.

Lord Randolph Churchill's recent journey has been much remarked; and so has the recent speech in the French Chamber of Deputies of the young Marquis de Breteuil, who also made recently a journey to Russia, and who was there received by the Emperor. M. de Breteuil, in his maiden speech, did a very bold thing; he made an *exposé* of the whole European situation, and, as he had just come from Russia, he was listened to with much curiosity by the Republican majority as well as by the Monarchical Right, to which he belongs. (The Deputy from the Basses-Pyrénées is the grandson of M. Fould, who was the Finance Minister of Napoleon III.; he is also the great-grandson of the Breteuil who played a part at the time of the French Revolution, and was one of the favorites of Queen Marie Antoinette.) The French Minister of Foreign Affairs made no answer to M. de Breteuil's speech, having been asked no questions. We must therefore look upon this maiden speech merely as a sort of academic discourse. I have mentioned it only as a sign of the desire which exists in some circles to bring about an understanding between France and Russia, and to induce England to enter this new combination of political forces.

This last attempt seems to me quite chimerical. England, it is true, was always opposed to the predominance of a single power in Europe; history shows her as the constant defender of the European equilibrium. She has in turn opposed the hegemony of Spain and of France; is it time for her to oppose the hegemony of Germany, a power to which she is attached by so many ties? Can the present policy of Prince Bismarck be compared to the policy of Napoleon I.? We don't know what may happen under the reign of another Prussian monarch, if he should be an ambitious man, if he should lend an ear only to the military party. For the present, the sentiments of Germany are well described in the last speech of Prince Bismarck: she feels more threatened than threatening; she probably feels more threatened than she really is. England has nothing to fear from her. It is said at times that, on the death of the present King of Holland, Germany will try to bring the Netherlands under her hegemony, in some form or other; she is said to look on Amsterdam, Rotterdam, and even Antwerp with envy. It is said that she will eventually annex the German-speaking part of Switzerland. All nations have such dreams; but accomplishment is another thing.

At the present moment, England has preserved entire liberty of movement; her hands are free, and it is well worthy of remark that Mr. Gladstone did not endorse the opinions of Mr. Labouchere when the latter recently attacked the foreign policy of Lord Salisbury's Administration. It is difficult to see what reasons could induce England to accept undefined responsibilities; she has theoretically nothing to object to alliances of which the aim is peace, but she would be very unwise if she entered into any compact which could impose on her the necessity of war. The Triple Alliance is a positive fact, a brute fact; all the combinations which we have spoken of are, so far, mere aspirations.

EXCAVATIONS IN ATTICA.

ATHENS, February 16, 1888.

IT will perhaps be remembered that, for two years before the beginning of the current year, the American School at Athens had busied itself with excavations. The small theatre of Thoricus, a remote township of Attica, was

successfully and thoroughly discovered, and last year considerable excavations were made in the theatre of Sicyon, a Peloponnesian town where Clisthenes the elder attempted the earliest recorded censorship of the theatre. These Sicyonian excavations have been brought to a close. They will hardly be resumed unless it be deemed advisable to lay bare the auditorium. The orchestra and the stage, with both the entrance-ways, have been cleared, and such measurements as are useful have been obtained.

Of this year's excavations at Sicyon, Mr. Earle of Columbia has had the direction. He has been fortunate in finding first the head and afterwards the trunk of a very beautiful statue. Beautiful it is, although it may never be possible to decide whether it represents Apollo or Dionysus, or even to be sure that it is not an idealized portrait-statue. A very charming female head was also added to the collections of the Central Museum at Athens as the result of the American work at Sicyon.

The discoveries at the theatre of Assos, reported by our compatriot, J. T. Clark, supplemented by the results of American excavations in the theatres at Thoricus and Sicyon, have familiarized our studious countrymen with unsolved problems that still abound in regard to the theatre of the Greeks and the myth and worship of Dionysus. It is not surprising, then, that the next venture of the American School should deal with matters closely related still to the theatre and to Dionysus.

The excavations now in progress are under the direction of Mr. Buck of Yale. They began this month, and have been interrupted once by a very heavy fall of snow; for, although heavy snow is unknown in the plains of Attica, the higher mountain valleys are not similarly exempt. The work is going on near the ruins of Byzantine Church. This church-ruin lies upon an alpine farm which has borne from time immemorial in peasant speech the name "Stó Diónyso" ("Diónyson" is the official term), a name full of suggestion to the hopeful archæologist. From Stamatovuni, the height at whose base this ruined church is found, there are two glimpses through the mountain wall that towers in front of Marathon. Towards the left is seen, in shape most like a crescent, the placid Marathonian Bay. The mass of Aphorismós, a bulwark of Mt. Pentelicus (Brilessus), hides the nearer breadths of Marathon, and leaves chiefly within view the northern plain and the marsh so fatal to the Persian host. Gleaming in the furthest distance can be seen, beyond the straits, Eubœan mountains, near the ancient town of Styra.

Our excavations were undertaken at Diónyson, in the hope of completely unearthing a choragic monument which had apparently been used as the apse of the church. The ancient architrave of the monument lies near at hand, with the names of those patrons of the chorus (*choregi*) who built it to commemorate their triumph in a tragic competition held in Dionysos's honor. This inscription was published long since by Chandler, and afterwards by Boeckh, but closer inspection shows that the first of the three proper names has been misread: it is ΑΓΝΙΑΣ and not ΑΙΝΙΑΣ. But this monument was not all that fixed the attention of the Director of the School, Prof. Merriam, upon Diónyso. He also hoped to prove that the adjoining Stamatovuni, which is still covered with traces of ancient terrace walls bearing witness to the former culture of the vine, might be identified with the Mount Icarius much celebrated in connection with the myth of Dionysus's first reception in the land of Attica, and with the culture of the vine, a gift from Dionysus to the ancient King Icarius. King Icarius, of course, was the eponymous hero of the Attic township of Icaria, and the only possible way to reach Mount Icarius would be by discovering a mountain at whose base the townsmen of Icarius dwelt. Besides the inscription on the architrave already mentioned, Dr Arthur Milchhöfer several years ago found another at Diónyson, and reported various observations there made, which encouraged Prof. Merriam in expecting to identify the spot as the long lost township of Icarius and of the Icarians. These expectations have been more than justified.

To begin with the choragic monument visible in the apse of the church. Excavations behind the church, directly east of its choragic apse, were made. Here all the pieces of the monument necessary for an approximately accurate restoration of its shape were found. Removal of the earth covering the foundations at the southern side of the apse revealed in their upper course a large stone carefully shaped like its mate, which had been found under two feet of earth at three yards' distance. These two stones, one of which the church builders rejected, were undoubtedly at the two western extremities of the uppermost course in the semicircular wall of the choragic monument, for they are carefully cut so as to receive the inscribed architrave above mentioned. Hence the choragic monument was not incorporated in the apse of the church until it had first been pulled down. The flimsiness of the apse foundations leads one to surmise that even these are not the same with those of the ancient monument. Various questions immediately suggest themselves. If the monument was not where the apse of the church is, where was it? Why did the church builders deem it necessary to tear down a structure which plainly was in the exact shape required for the apse of their church? They needed only to tear away the façade of the choragic monument and build on the requisite nave of their church. Possibly the monument faced the wrong way, towards the east; then it would have been absolutely necessary for them to pull it down, and they may have built it up very nearly upon its original site. This is at least suggested by the fact that they certainly took one stone (the shape of which made it very inapt for a solid substructure) from the topmost course of the choragic monument and placed it in the foundation of their apse. What was within this semicircular monument—if its circle were completed, it would be about two-thirds the size of the well-known choragic monument of Lysicrates—and whether or not it supported a tripod, cannot yet be satisfactorily made out.

As for the second point, to elucidate which Professor Merriam had these excavations begun, that has been most satisfactorily disposed of. Diónyson is undoubtedly upon the domain of the ancient Icarians. It has rarely been possible more conclusively to identify a township in Attica by means of inscriptions. Gravestones bearing the name of this or that township in Attica are constantly found at and near Athens in great numbers, when only one or two are unearthed on the site of the deme itself. It is, of course, a commoner thing to find gravestone inscriptions than inscriptions of any other sort, and they tell us less than other inscriptions do. Yet Dr. Lolling, who certainly has a right to speak with authority on Athenian topography, argues in a paper on the Marathonian tetrapolis that the discovery at a distance from Athens of even one or two gravestones, with the name of a given township upon them, establishes a presumption in favor of locating that township where such gravestones were found. At Diónyson, however, the number of inscriptions, various in kind, upon which the name ΙΚΑΡΙΕΥΣ occurs, is very exceptional. About one gravestone found not far away I shall speak anon; apart from that two others, a votive and a sepulchral inscription, have been found, and one decree, all which contain the name. But the conclusive proof is contained in a second very long decree, which has been found there in an absolutely complete condition.

These inscriptions, together with much else to be described presently, were unearthed by digging on the north side of the church ruin. The words inscribed upon the decisive slab are to the following effect:

"Callippus was the mover. *Voted* by the Icarians to commend and to crown Nicon the town clerk (*demarchos*), and that the crier shall publicly proclaim that the Icarians and the township of the Icarians do crown Nicon with a crown of ivy, for that right well and duly he hath ordered the festival of Dionysus and the competition. *Voted* also to commend the patrons of the chorus (*choregi*), Epicrates and Praxias, and to crown them with a crown of ivy, and further that the crier shall make the same proclamation in regard to them that was ordered for the town clerk."

Proof could not be more complete had the inscriptions been made to suit the need of archæologists in despair at the fashion in which Icaria has been driven from pillar to post through all the length and breadth of Attica. In the above inscription the frequent but not exclusive use of ο for ου shows that the decree belongs to a time before the double use of ο had been completely abandoned. The decree therefore must not be placed later, and probably should be placed much earlier, than the third century B. C.; it belongs, perhaps, in the fourth century.

A number of other inscriptions have been found on the same (north) side of the church, and, when the walls of the church shall have been pulled completely down, others will no doubt appear. Already as I write news comes of one inscription which the rain has uncovered on a stone, laid bare by digging away the earth from the foundations. Curiously enough, most of the workmen at Diónyson are mortally afraid of taking part in the further pulling down of the church. They are ready enough to dig anywhere and pull down anything outside of those, to them, still sacred walls. In Athens, near the cathedral, stands a church more dilapidated than the one at Diónyson; but within its roofless apse a light still burns, and votive offerings still are laid upon its wind-swept altar.

Among the inscriptions found outside the church at Diónyson, there is one boundary-stone which partakes of the nature of a bill of sale, and another boundary-stone which has reference to a dowry and to a mortgage involved in its payment. Furthermore, sure traces of votive slabs and statues have been found up to the number of fifteen. By excavations made in front of the church (that is, west of it), a marble double seat or throne has been brought to light. If there should eventually prove to exist traces of a temple near at hand, the suggestion might then be hazarded that here we have the double seat occupied by the temporal and the spiritual powers of the Icarian demesne, by the priest of Dionysus and by the representative of Dionysus's old-time friend Icarius, the town clerk of Icaria. If there was no temple here, the numerous votive offerings prove at least that there was a sanctuary. This is confirmed by one imperfect inscription just found where there seems to be made provision for the erection or repair of "the statue."

Moreover, three bas-reliefs, all of them without much doubt funereal, have been found. One of these appears to contain three figures, two standing and one sitting. This is undoubtedly the familiar scene of parting so usual on Athenian tombs, and yet always so singularly and adequately appropriate. Both of the other reliefs are in the most excellent state of preservation. One of them represents a bearded man of middle age, who stands in profile gravely looking forward. A staff rests on his left arm and shoulder, and he was probably bidding the last farewell to the dead, whose image was no doubt upon the missing half of the slab. The other bas-relief represents in profile an extremely beautiful lady. She is seated with her right side towards the spectator, and her right arm lies in most graceful repose outstretched upon her lap. Something she seems to hold in her right hand. This she may have taken from a casket proffered by her handmaiden. If the casket-bearing handmaiden be imagined as having occupied the missing right-hand portion of the slab, then the monument of Hegeso, the most beautiful in the Ceramicus, will help supply what here has not been found. But there is much still left that we may admire, for the action of the lady's left hand is the most charming feature of this truly delightful work of art. Like the sitting figure on a far inferior funeral bas-relief now in the Central Museum here, this lady is delicately lifting from her breast, with her left hand upraised, the exquisite fabric in which she is draped. No words of affectionate remembrance could better interpret the subtle graces of a life so beautiful that mourning for its loss was a grief transmuted into wonder.

The statues discovered have their importance also. Among them the most important is a more than life-size torso of a male statue. From its considerable size, taken in conjunction with mention in the inscription above alluded to of "the statue," it seems possible to surmise that here we have the important Statue of the Sanctuary at which so many offerings were made. It may be even that this is a statue of Dionysus which belonged in the still undiscovered Temple of Icaria. The curious persistence of the name of Dionysus applied to the immediate neighborhood gives at least encouragement to further search. The mention of a Dionysiac competition in the long decree above cited suggests even that somewhere here once stood a rural theatre.

There was also found a very pretty female head and the torso of a draped statue of a woman. This is about all that has been met with up to the present moment at Diónyson proper, or, let us now boldly say, at Icaria. But Mr. Buck has been elsewhere. Hearing from his men of *grammata* to be found at a distance, he went with them to a point about two miles further inland, and was there rewarded by discovering a tombstone with the following very beautifully cut inscription (the two bracketed letters are conjectured):

[Π]ΑΝΤΑΚΛΗΣ
[Π]ΑΝΤΑΙΝΕΤΟΥ
ΠΑΩΘΕΙΕΥΣ
ΧΑΙΡΑΜΕΝΗΣ
ΔΙΟΔΟΤΟΥ
ΙΚΑΡΙΕΥΣ

This establishes a certain probability in favor of supposing the township of Plotheia to have been near the place where this stone was found, and suggests an intimate and neighborly connection between Plotheia, the township of Pantaenetus's son Pantacles, and Icaria, the township of Diodotus's son Chaeramenes. At all events this gravestone is interesting and almost, if not quite, unique, as being a well-authenticated case where two township names —always excepting the gravestones of husband and wife, or cases of adoption—are found upon a gravestone unearthed away from Athens and Peiraeus.

The good workmanship exhibited by this gravestone, the ancient manner of spelling exemplified in the long decree, the admirable quality of the bas-reliefs, the semi-archaic art of the horse of Dionysus, certainly justify us in ascribing most of these works to the fourth century B. C., and some even to an earlier date. On the other hand, the female head and horse belong to the Roman period, say to the second century A. D. We have accordingly in the monuments discovered at Diónyson a range of 600 years, during which Icaria was an important centre of rural Attic life. And now a fortunate consonance between facts already known and those which these excavations add to our stores leads us back further than the fourth century B. C., and we are enabled to learn something of the political status of the township of Icaria in the all but prehistoric days before the whole of Attica was united by King Theseus. In those early times there had been, as Thucydides implies, a very loose federation among the political units of Attica. These, tradition tells us, were twelve in number, and we know that they were variously grouped together by common sacrifices and festivals. We hear of the tetrapolis of Marathon, covering the townships Tricorythus, Probalinthus, Oenoë, and Marathon. There is an inscription to prove that the citizens of this tetrapolis, as such, joined together for the performance of religious ritual. The same is true of another of these ancient Attic combinations, which bore the collective name of Mesogeia. Can any such group be found to which the ancient Icarians belonged?

The clue to an affirmative answer is found in a well-known Attic inscription, which shows substantially that the Plotheians, whose township Plotheia, was spoken of above as supposably close to Diónyson and Icaria, had to defray ritualistic expenditure, first as Plotheians, second as Epacrians, and third as Athenians. From a not quite hopelessly muddled identical account of Epacria given by two ancient lexicographers, we gather that, at the time of the unification of Attica by Theseus, there existed in Attica (1) two combinations of four cities each, and (2) one combination of three cities, called Epacria. The one city still necessary to make up the traditional tale of twelve was apparently Athens.

Epacria, the superior unit to which the Plotheians belonged, contained, then, in addition to Plotheia, two townships. One of these was Semachidae; for an excellent and ancient authority, Philochorus, is quoted as declaring that the township of Semachidae belongs to Epacria. Plotheia and Semachidae are universally admitted to be two of the three Epacrian townships. Furthermore, these two townships—about the position of which nothing is otherwise known—are always placed in the uplands, near Marathon, because they are known to be Epacrian, and because we have ancient authority defining Epacria as the "name of a district situated near Marathon."

Can we identify Icaria as the third member of this pre-historic Epacrian League? I do not hesitate in saying that we can, for (1) its position near Marathon brings it under the general category of Epacria, (2) there are good reasons, derived from quite independent sources, for believing that Icaria was bound by an exceptionally close tie to both of the two known Epacrian townships. The exceptionally close connection between Icaria and Plotheia is made probable by the gravestone which has just come to light. Icaria's close connection with Semachidae was long since pointed out by Leake, who fixed upon the neighboring Mount Agrieliki as the ancient Mons Icarias. Leake inferred the close neighborhood of Icaria and Semachidae from the strangely identical account of Dionysus's first appearance in Attica, which is connected, *mutatis mutandis*, with both of these townships.

At the time when Demeter came to Attica, and rewarded her good host Celeus ere she went by introducing grain to his notice, Dionysus also sojourned, some say, with King Icarius at Icaria; and others—who are equally trustworthy—maintain that he stayed with King Semachus at Semachidae. We hear of the god's relations with the daughters of Semachus on the one hand, and with Erigone, the daughter of Icarius, on the other. Of these two legends the Icarian ended by winning the day. This was evidently because the Icarians were more important and more numerous than the men of Semachidae. Lucian, who belongs to the very latest stage of Greek letters, mocked at the account of Dionysus's pity for poor Erigone's grief over her father's murder. The god transferred not only her, but her pet dog Maera to the heavens, and made them a constellation there. This tale Lucian declares is too ridiculous to be taken seriously, thus showing that it was much repeated in his day. Elsewhere, in the enumeration of all that a truly well-bred dancer ought to know, Lucian again reverts to the story of Icarius. The vine-planting of Icarius—that is, the story of Dionysus's grateful gift to him of the vine—he mentions in speaking of Attic mythology, which he says every dancer must thoroughly know. It is hardly necessary to read between the lines in order to see that Lucian has in mind the common subjects which dancers interpreted by their art in his day. Accordingly, it is plain that the story of Icarius and Dionysus, and perhaps even the woes of Erigone, formed a not unusual theme for choreographic representation.

The woes of Erigone were, in days far earlier than Lucian's, the subject of a tragedy by Cleophon, a tragedian whom Aristotle twice criticises in the 'Poetics.' Erigone was disconsolate because her father, Icarius, was slain by drunken peasants. Too generously he gave the gift of Dionysus to his neighbors on the country-side. These peasants abused the gift, and, drinking too much wine unmixed, thought Icarius had poisoned them. In haste they slew him, and repented as they grew more sober. This story, which is not without its comic side, appears to have been made serious and tragic by dwelling upon the woes of Erigone, and upon her long efforts to find her father's grave, whither her dog Maera finally conducted her. A peculiarly mournful manner of song called Aletis—a name sometimes given to Erigone—is connected with Erigone's sad story, and we hear of the country custom of hanging tragic masks on trees in her sad memory.

All this may prepare us for the crowning glory of Icaria as the birthplace of Attic tragedy and comedy. In Icaria, Thespis, father of Athenian tragedy, was born. To Icaria came Susarion of Megara, and the first comic chorus, we learn from the Parian chronicle, was composed of Icarians. Indeed, Bergk does not hesitate to say "it is no accident that connects with Icaria the first beginning of tragedy, and of comedy as well."

Truly the spot is worthy to have inspired the initiators of the most heart-searching form of literary art. Deserted now, and far from the

course of travellers, it is unknown. But it is beautiful to-day, for near its ruined church begin fine forests, the very "wilderness of Marathon," through which the poet Statius says Erigone once wandered seeking wood to place upon Icarius's funeral pyre. Here, in recent days, but fortunately past, were secret haunts of brigands now unknown in Greece. The lovely vale of Rapendosia is not far, for it belonged to King Icarius's demesne. There can be seen to-day a memorable picture—a cave hollowed in the sheer mountain-side, where scores of kids are tended by a wild-eyed shepherd boy. He might be called the genius of the place, for he is surnamed Dyonsjótes for the god, and yet so simple in his mind that he well might be one of those poor countrymen of old who repented soon the rashness of their misguided hands that slew Icarius, their benefactor and their king. The place is full of scenes marked by a truly Theocritean dignity and simplicity. With these we may fill our thoughts while waiting for further and detailed accounts of what Diónyson has yielded to the spade. Certainly, so much has been found and so much learned already by excavations there, that the Director and the School should have the heartiest congratulations of its many friends. L. D.

Correspondence.

SENATOR BLAIR'S CONSTITUTIONAL PROHIBITION AMENDMENT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Merely suggesting (1) that the recently developed tendency in certain quarters to interpret the provision of the Federal Constitution by which three-fourths of the States must approve any amendment, not as an extra safeguard beyond the ordinary requirement of a two-thirds vote of the legislative body, but rather as a means by which Congressmen may escape responsibility in a delicate question by voting to "submit it to the people of the States," is one of at least doubtful advantage; and (2) that our greatest national danger (now that the civil war has quieted all fears lest the Federal Government should prove too weak to maintain itself) is the same before which other republics have gone down, viz., the assumption by the central Government of powers to which the governed will not submit, yet which they cannot lawfully resist; and (3) that a function so peculiarly in the nature of a police regulation that many States, even, resort to "local option" laws, may be regarded as one of the last which our forefathers would have looked to see undertaken by the Federal Government (imagine Sam Adams in the premises!)—I desire briefly to call attention to one consideration which I have not seen mentioned in the public prints.

The formers of the Constitution, in providing that amendments should receive a two-thirds vote in Congress, and also the approval of three-fourths of the States, doubtless thought that they were establishing the Government on a conservative basis. But the first safeguard is likely to be swept away as already suggested, and an unforeseen concentration of population in a few of the States has so weakened the second that it is possible for a *minority* of the people to amend the Federal Constitution. While ordinarily this might be no matter for concern, since the large States would divide and balance one another, this is peculiarly not true of the question of the prohibition of the liquor traffic. The States which contain great and compact populations, largely composed of foreigners, are the very ones which by almost inevitable sequence will be the last to favor prohibition. Massachusetts, New York, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Illinois, Missouri, and California (in which are almost all of our great cities), with two others of the larger States, contain a majority of the people of the country; yet the other twenty-nine States can engraft their minority views on the Constitution.

The unwisdom of thus meddling with the Constitution is more apparent when we consider that the most important branches of the liquor traffic are already within the control of Congress. The only power to be gained is the power to go into a populous State and enforce a law peculiarly in the nature of a police regulation, involving only the inhabitants of that State, against their expressed will, and perhaps against the will of a majority of the people of the nation.

To a Prohibitionist there is some comfort in the thought that his party existed some years without seeing the need of constitutional amendments, and has never emphasized it. It is a scheme (which may indeed be looked upon as a pyrotechnic illustration of "crankism") devised by the "non-partisan" Republican temperance people, as a means of enacting prohibitory liquor laws without making any one responsible for the enforcement of them.

C. T. Libby.

Portland, Me., March 14, 1888.

A DEPRESSED INDUSTRY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The wool associations of this State are so clamorously demanding the high tariff of 1867 for the benefit of their "depressed" industry, that the public is led to believe the sheep interests here are about ruined. Many Colorado people, I imagine, would be surprised to know that our leading agricultural paper, the *Field and Farm*, in answer to an inquiry a few days ago, said the profits of sheep-raising with us are 20 per cent.—whether they arise from mutton or wool is, of course, not the question. The largest and wealthiest sheep man we have says his profits are very large, and still he is leading the cry for more "protection" for his "paralyzed" business. In view of the fact that Colorado sheep-raisers hire cheap Mexican labor, notwithstanding their handsome profits, would it not be proper for them to propose to discharge the "greasers," if the high tariff is reinstated, and employ American labor, since it is insisted that the high wages of our country prevent us from producing wool as cheaply as Australia?

However, an industry that is earning 20 per cent. and employing degraded Mexican labor, and yet is shouting as loudly as anybody for more tariff, doubtless regards "protection" as a game of grab, and is simply trying to make the most of it; otherwise our sheep men would certainly be modest enough to wait with their demands for an advance in profits until all the other Colorado enterprises can succeed, by "protection" or any other means, in earning even 15 per cent.

This clearly illustrates the well-known difficulty with the protectionist theory. Many of the "protected" industries now clamoring for more "protection" may be earning far larger profits than those which are unprotected, and who is able to name them?

Respectfully yours, H.

Denver, Col., March 8, 1888.

LEGISLATIVE FIXING OF FREIGHT RATES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of March 1, I notice the following:

"The proposal to fix rates on freight by an act of the Legislature is, we believe, something entirely new, going beyond anything hitherto proposed in any country in the matter of regulation of railroad property. The utmost that other civilized States have done is to create commissions or boards to consider, through actual judicial investigation, what 'reasonable maximum rates' are. No Legislature has, we believe, thus far taken this task on itself."

About two years ago a disagreement arose between the management of a Michigan railroad and a large shipper in a town which had no other outlet commercially than this railroad, about a railway bridge over a mill-race. As a result, the rates of freight charged this shipper were raised, by reclassifications and other means, direct and indirect, from 200 to 600 per cent. The next result was that the local properties in question passed into the hands of a receiver who is an attorney for the railroad company, the rates are reduced to the old levels, and business proceeds.

To cover such cases of abuse of power as this, an effort was made at the last session of the Legislature to pass a bill fixing a maximum rate on freights per ton per mile. The rate proposed was three cents—between three and four times the average rate per ton per mile in this State, an allowance for switching and loading being made on short hauls. The problem was by legislation to prevent extortion and ruinous discrimination without crippling the railroad interests of the State. This solution was found obnoxious by the railroad interests, who succeeded in defeating it.

I do not see why, at least to the extent of fixing a reasonable maximum rate, legislation fixing freight rates is not good legislation.

Very truly yours, F. W. Ball.

Grand Rapids, Mich., March 8, 1888.

A DENTAL "TRUST."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In these days of "trusts," monopolies, etc., it may be interesting to the public to know how one of the largest "trusts" in the country has been existing for years, with scarcely a dissenting voice. A few years ago most of the manufacturers of dental supplies formed a combination representing thousands, if not millions, of dollars. Since then, they have systematically attempted to crush every manufacturer that would not join them, and have virtually succeeded. They buy up all the patents that are likely to prove of any use to the profession, and either manufacture the article at a high price, or suppress its manufacture altogether, in order that they may sell others on which the profit is greater.

The principal dental journal in the country (and I may say the world) is controlled by one of the members of this Trust. All general discussion on this subject is in this way suppressed, and unanimity among dentists prevented, so the individual is powerless. To "boycott" such an organization is an impossibility, as it is a duty that every dentist owes to his patients to provide himself with every appliance that will alleviate suffering, without regard to cost, and many of these can only be obtained from this organization.

Although this matter may not interest the public as directly as a "Sugar Trust," yet it does indirectly, and for this reason should find a place in a popular journal. It only needs an awaken-

ing of the dentists to this fact, together with their united action, to end this Trust for ever.

D. M. D.

Boston, Mass., March 10, 1888.

VIRGINIAN FREEDOM FROM COLOR PREJUDICE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In order to aid you in your laudable effort to relieve Mr. Cable of his "unduly depressed" spirits concerning "The Negro Question" in the South, I write to say that in this town, two or three years ago, a teachers' institute was held in which the white and colored teachers met together. That was the last institute held here. I can't say certainly as to the custom before that time, but judge it was not the first institute held in common by the fact that I heard no remarks about it. I am also ignorant concerning the custom in other places in this State.—Yours truly,

S. T. Moreland.

Lexington, Va., February 10, 1888.

SOUTHERN HOMICIDE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Being a regular subscriber and careful reader of your valuable periodical, I have been interested in your several recent articles on the above subject. As I am distinctly a Southerner, and personally acquainted with several gentlemen who have recently figured in desperate "affairs of honor," it may be pardoned if I submit a concise opinion on the subject.

The real source of trouble in the Southern mind is a lack of clear conception of what real honor consists in, while possessing at the same time an *overstrained sense of honor*. For instance, when Gen. Zolicoffer considered himself insulted by the criticisms of a certain editor, he at once armed himself and sought the gentleman, who, on seeing him advance, pulled his pistol and started to fire, but the priming had fallen. The General stood with pistol in hand, and waited until the other man had reprimed his pistol, and then both fired at once—neither being injured. Now, what could more admirably illustrate the nicest sense of honor than this?—and yet it evinces the most lamentable lack of clear understanding of the essence of true honor. To put it tersely, I would say that as to so-called insults which so many men think it necessary to resent, there is just one view of it which will remove every difficulty—*i. e.*, "A *blackguard* cannot insult me; a *gentleman* would not."

Resentment is always a confession of weakness, and never, in any circumstance, evinces strength except where that resentment is exercised in behalf of some one else who is too weak to defend himself. Don Quixote reduced chivalry to absurdity, but many who laugh at his pranks are themselves fully as foolish. Insult only becomes insult when noticed, and on the same principle that a man would not consider it an insult for a cur to muddy his boots, so he need never notice a human cur (or *currish* action) engaged in the like dirty business. True honor is neither in anger nor resentment, but in requiting abuse with a smile, and injury with good.

The only historic man who entirely lived these principles was Jesus Christ—the rest of us have a mixture of brute in us. The more a man resents, the less noble he is. The more a man bears with dignity, the higher his position in the gradation of humanity.

Sincerely, James Wood Pogue.

Nashville, Tenn., March 13, 1888.

VOLAPÜK.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have read Prof. Addison Hoge on Volapük with so much interest that I cannot refrain from expressing the surprise, which I feel sure will be shared by many others, at the leniency of his criticism. I am at a loss to understand how any one who has studied the necessities of modern speech and the manner in which the languages of civilized nations change, can for a moment accept this High-German bantling as worthy of being adopted by the world at large. A brief notice of Volapük which I had seen elsewhere, and the advertisements in your columns, had excited in me a desire to acquire some knowledge of the language as soon as possible. But Prof. Hoge has wholly convinced me that I have no time to waste upon such nonsense.

The name is enough for me, with the importance attached to its exact pronunciation. What sense is there in expecting all sorts of people to distinguish between *ü* and *i* when every one knows that in the best German poetry the former more often rhymes with the latter than with itself? The first requisite for a universal language is that the vowel sounds shall be as simple and open as possible; not only to the end that they may be easily learned, but also that their utterance may be grateful to the general ear. The three most euphonious languages of Europe, the Italian, the Spanish, and the Russian, are examples of the effect of few and simple vowel sounds in pleasing all lovers of musical speech. In the Italian language, moreover, the rejection of all aspirates and aspirated gutturals favors the greatest possible rapidity of utterance, combined with perfect distinctness. By all means let us call *it*, *eet*—if we had not lost our ear through the coarseness of our speech, we should perceive that our *it* is only *eet* modified by a boorish sort of grunt—and let us call *met*, *mäte*, for the same reason. Our *at* is a suppressed bleat, and the sound of *u* in *but* can only be matched in Ojibwé. It would be a great benefit to all our children to learn some other language in which the vowels were distinct and pure, and not grunted *à bouche fermée*. But we don't want any *ö*'s or *ü*'s in our universal language.

As to the grammar, the High-German predilections of the inventor of Volapük are strikingly illustrated by the fact that the authorized translator has been unable to render in English some of the auxiliary moods and tenses. True, Seret's qualifications for translating a German grammar of a third language into English seem to be of the slimmest. The sentence quoted by Prof. Hoge: "If November comes, we get snow," evidently should be, "When November shall have come, we shall get snow." Seret has stumbled over so slight a matter as the two-fold meaning of *wenn*. In German *when* and *if* are equivalent in such a sentence, because the speaker assumes that his hearer knows that November must come, and that there is no *if*—in our sole sense of the conjunction—about it. A similar reliance upon the intelligence of the person spoken to has led to our disuse of the subjunctive and other distinctive forms. We have to translate "Sie dürfen nicht" by "you must not," and "Sie müssen nicht" by "you are not obliged," but the uses of the German *lassen* and the French *laisser* show that one word may express both permission and command, and if there were but one construction of the verb for this and other cognate moods, the context would always show plainly enough what was meant.

Instead, therefore, of taking up Schleyer's invention, every English-speaking scholar should protest as loudly as possible against such a flagrant misuse of a great opportunity. We want a common mode of expressing thought easy, clear and rapid in utterance, and simple to the last degree in syntax. It must also be capable of poetical forms, for the earliest speech is always in song; but the author of Volapük was evidently at no pains to make his language suitable for rhyme and rhythm. In the Italian we see how few distinct sounds are necessary for the richest and most musical effect. It is the language which every vocalist prefers for displaying a well-trained voice, and probably every public speaker would choose it, too, if he could. Dante and Petrarch have shown us that such a language is fitted for the finest poetry, and Salvini shows us how readily it lends itself to the vocal expression of every kind of feeling. Again, the Danish language shows us how little inflexion and syntax are required for the lucid expression of the deepest thought and the subtlest shades of meaning. The vehicle employed by the late Bishop Martensen to give his 'Christian Metaphysics' to the world, will express much more than two nations ever do understand of each other's thoughts. If Schleyer had possessed sufficient detachment to take Italian for his model in pronunciation, and Danish for his model in construction, the result might have been acceptable to those who use the English, French, and other languages, as well as to the Germans, and he might have done more to mitigate the curse of Babel indirectly than will probably ever be done directly. For his new speech would then have offered a centre of attraction towards which the languages of the civilized world in their constant but slow movements (like those of a glacier) might converge. At present the tendency is towards divergence.

It is very doubtful if one man, and especially if one German, can so rid himself of national peculiarities and prejudices as to design even a fair model for the tongue which every one will be expected to know, and which may also serve as a sort of centre of attraction for existing languages and dialects. But it seems to me to be certain that the new language must be sweeter and simpler, and *therefore* more refined, than Volapük.—I am, sir,

Yours very respectfully,

Charles J. Gedge.

Nebraska City, Neb., March, 1888.

TOLSTOI'S CHRISTIAN NAME.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I am informed that a discussion has been going on in America as to the proper pronunciation of Count L. N. Tolstoi's Christian name. I have already contributed to that discussion, in a way, by writing the name as "Lyof" on the title-pages of my translations from his works and elsewhere. From a dictionary point of view, this is perfectly correct; all those misleading authorities are unanimous on this subject. But people who are at all intimate with that kind of literature are well aware that the stories are not only irritatingly short and incoherent, as Mark Twain puts it, but that they are also frequently characterized by a lack of strict truthfulness. Dr. Johnson's definition of *attic* as "the top story in a house," and of *garret* as "the story over the attic" (or vice versa, I have not the book at hand), are famous, and fit companions to R. H. Barham's burlesque "cellar under the bottomless pit." I also know of a Spanish dictionary which makes out a rear-admiral to be a "rare or raw" admiral, and a German dictionary which gives, in all seriousness, the definition of "soldier"

equally with "lobster," for *Hummer*, evidently without a suspicion that the latter is only the street Arabs' playful designation for the red-coated British warrior. But to return to Count Tolstoi. I have amended the error of my ways, and I hope that the admirers of the great Russian will do the same. The proper pronunciation here in Russia is not "Lyof," but "Lyef." My authority is the pronunciation of the writer's friends, disciples, and relatives. How many hours I have spent, within the last week alone, in the society of these relatives, disciples, and friends, it is not worth while to reckon; how many times the beloved name of "Lyef Nikolaitch" was uttered during those hours, it would be impossible to reckon. One of his disciples came to see me a few days ago, clad in a blouse, and girded with a narrow leather strap. Inside that blouse, and next to his heart, he carried a volume of Tolstoi's which the writer had just given him. It might have been done partly because the blouse made a convenient pocket, but that this was not the whole reason was plain from the man's words and looks when he touched the book. He, as well as the rest, pronounced the name "Lyef Nikolaitch."

It does not strictly bear upon the subject under discussion, but I will add that, in the course of a conversation with this "adept" (as some call them here) of Count Tolstoi's, on that chief doctrine of Christ which Tolstoi has adopted as his stronghold—love to one's neighbor—I inquired what success he had in applying this doctrine indiscriminately. We can all exercise it with discrimination! He looked much disturbed, but replied frankly that, although he tried hard to love all men, not only as well as, but better than, himself, there were "a great many—yes, a *very* great many—extremely—well, *unpleasant* people in this world!" It is a painful subject, and, having reached that point of universal sympathy, I did not pursue it further.

I advise people to reject the dictionaries and title-pages, and to save the pronunciation of "Lyof" for occasions when they wish to speak of the animal represented thereby, viz., the lion. It is a small matter, no doubt, but if it is worth while to discuss it, it is worth while to be correct. ISABEL F. HAPGOOD.

ST. PETERSBURG, February 14-26, 1888.

GOETHE, WAGNER, AND THE INVISIBLE ORCHESTRA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Among the great reforms which the modern opera stage owes to Richard Wagner's genius, not the least is that of an invisible orchestra, carried out for the first time at the performance of his 'Ring of the Nibelungs' at Bayreuth in 1876. Before Wagner, however, the immortal master of another art, Goethe, proposed the sinking of the orchestra—a fact overlooked even by Ferdinand von Hiller, the celebrated musician, who collected in his work, 'Goethes musikalisches Leben,' with great care, every written word of Goethe concerning music.

The passage, to be found in 'Wilhelm Meister's Apprenticeship,' is the following (I quote from Carlyle's translation):

"Music, particularly song, was a pleasure he could not live without; and it was one of his peculiarities, that he wished the singer not to be in view. 'In this respect, he would say, they spoil us at the theatre: the music there is, as it were, subservient to the eye; it accompanies movements, not emotions. In oratorios and concerts the form of the musician constantly disturbs us; true music is intended for the ear alone. A fine voice is the most universal thing that can be figured; and, while the narrow individual that uses it presents himself before the eye, he cannot fail to trouble the effect of that pure universality. The person whom I am to speak with, I must see; because it is a solitary man whose form and character give worth or worthlessness to what he says; but, on the other hand, whoever sings to me must be invisible; his form must not confuse me or corrupt my judgment. Here it is but one human organ speaking to another; it is not spirit speaking to spirit, not a thousand-fold world to the eye, not a heaven to the man.' On the same principles, in respect of instrumental music, he required that *the orchestra should as much as possible be hid;* because, by the mechanical exertions, by the mean and awkward gestures of the performers, our feelings are so much dispersed and perplexed. Accordingly, he always used to shut his eyes while hearing music; thereby to concentrate his whole being on the single, pure enjoyment of the ear."

EMIL BAKONYI.

WASHINGTON, D. C., February 20, 1888.

Notes.

THE fourth volume of the Comte de Paris's 'History of the Civil War in America' will be published about the middle of April by Porter & Coates, Philadelphia.

Macmillan & Co. will be the American agents of the new edition of Browning's works in sixteen volumes, with portrait and other illustrations to the number of at least one per volume.

A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago, publish immediately 'William I. and the German Empire,' by G. Barnett Smith.

Renan's 'History of the People of Israel' is in the press of Roberts Bros., who also announce a 'Life of Dr. Anandibai Joshee,' the kinswoman and friend of Pundita Ramabai, by Mrs. Caroline H. Dall, who dedicates the profits arising from the sale of the work to the Ramabai "School Fund."

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. will soon publish the fifth part of Prof. Child's 'English and Scottish Ballads'; 'Irish Wonders,' peasant stories gathered at first hand by Prof. D. R. McAnally, and relating to ghosts, fairies, witches, etc.; 'Negro Myths from the Georgia Coast,' by Col. Charles C. Jones, jr.—a welcome supplement to "Uncle Remus"; and 'Metrical Translations and Poems'—the former from the German by Dr. F. H. Hedge and Mrs. A. L. Wister; the latter, Dr. Hedge's own verse.

A monograph on 'Chairs of Pedagogics in our Colleges and Universities,' by Prof. E. J. James of the University of Pennsylvania, is about to be issued by the Philadelphia Social Science Association.

B. Westermann & Co. send us their prospectus of a new edition of 'Stieler's Hand-Atlas of Modern Geography,' consisting of ninety-five colored plates (or five more than the edition of 1875), and to be distributed in thirty-two monthly parts, beginning in April. Among the wholly fresh maps will be Italy in four, the Balkan Peninsula in four, and Africa in six sheets. Two improvements are worthy of remark: single maps will be furnished at a moderate price to owners of former editions; and a complete index will be issued, though as a separate enterprise.

The Paris publishers, A. Colin & Cie., announce as in press three volumes of texts from French authors, annotated by writers whose names are well known beyond the circle to which school-books especially belong. These are the 'Théâtre choisi de Racine,' by M. Petit de Julleville; the 'Théâtre choisi de Corneille,' by M. Paul Desjardins; the 'Lettres choisies de Mme. de Sévigné,' by M. René Doumic. M. Petit de Julleville has written much of late years upon the history of the theatre in France; 'Les Mystères' and 'Les Comédiens en France au moyen âge' being of special interest. M. Paul Desjardins, who is not to be confounded with M. Albert Desjardins, the author of 'Les Sentiments moraux au XVIe siècle,' is the extremely clever young writer of the "Notes et Impressions" in the *Revue Bleue*. M. René Doumic, less well known than the other two, has recently published a volume which has been spoken of in the highest terms: 'Éléments d'histoire littéraire' (Paris: Delaplane; Boston: Schoenhof).

Mr. W. E. Henley, formerly editor of the *Magazine of Art*, and long a close student of the French Romantic period, is engaged on a life of Alexandre Dumas for the series of "Great Writers." There is now no good biography of Dumas in either French or English.

The Clarendon Press is publishing a Middle High-German "primer" prepared by Dr. Joseph Wright, Lecturer at Girton College, Oxford. The book, which is based upon Paul's Grammar, is intended to furnish the shortest possible introduction to the reading of the language, but the grammatical principles, though presented in summary, will be handled in the light of most recent investigations of historical grammar. An old High-German primer by the same author is also ready for press, and a Gothic primer is contemplated. Dr. Wright is a pupil of Osthoff and Brugmann, and the translator of Brugmann's 'Grundriss der vergleichenden Grammatik.'

Prof. Gustav Meyer of Graz (Styria), the author of the well-known Greek Grammar, has now ready for the press a short Albanian grammar, accompanied by extracts for reading and a vocabulary. Prof. Meyer's two volumes of 'Albanesische Studien' (Vienna, 1883 and 1884) proved to be of fundamental importance for all intelligent study of the language. They established definite tests for a discrimination of the native material of the language from the great masses of borrowed material, Turkish, Slavic, Greek, and Italian, which only the most exacting processes of scientific grammar availed to recognize. After this débris had once been effectually cleared away, it was possible to form an opinion concerning the real character of the original language, and Prof. Meyer's conclusion, that the Albanian is neither an offshoot of the Slavic nor of the Greek, but an independent branch of the Indo-European family, has received the almost universal concurrence of scholars. Students of folk-lore will also recall his translations of sundry Albanian legends, published with notes by Reinhold Köhler in vol. xii of the *Archiv für Literaturgeschichte* (1883), and an interesting article on the language and literature of the Albanians in volume xxiv of *Nord und Süd* (1883).

The 'Grundriss der germanischen Philologie' which is to be published by Trübner of Strassburg on the same general plan as Gröber's 'Grundriss der romanischen Philologie,' is to appear somewhat earlier than had been anticipated. The first part, containing contributions from Paul, Kluge, Sievers, and others, is already in press. The whole work is under the editorship of Prof. Paul.

Volume xli of the second section of Ersch and Gruber's 'Encyklopädie' finishes the letter K, for which a little more than nine volumes were required, and begins L. While the former letter abounded in Russian geography, Turkish literature, and Greek history and philosophy, the latter opens with many interesting names in French biography, among which are Laboulaye, Labourdonnais, Lacordaire, Paul Lacroix, Laffitte, Laguerronnière, La Harpe, Lamartine, Lamarck, Lamennais, La-

moricière, etc. It is curious that most of these chance to belong to the Second Empire, so that this volume possesses special value as bearing on the history and literature of a recent period, concerning which information is not readily accessible. In many of these articles Hillebrand's 'History of France from 1830 to 1870' is cited as a leading authority. The longest article in the volume is one of twenty pages on Karl Lachmann, one of the founders of modern German philology, eminent for his editions of ancient classics and of ancient German literature. From internal evidence he arrived at the conclusion that the 'Iliad' consisted of eighteen separate poems by several authors, thus deducing from different premises the Homeric theory put forth at an earlier date by F. A. Wolf. The article next in length is one of fourteen pages on map-drawing, treated technically, with several pages of tables for the proper construction of a map according to latitude and longitude.

'What American Authors Think about International Copyright' is the title of a neat pamphlet issued by the Copyright League, and to be had on application to Mr. R. V. Johnson, Treasurer, 33 East Seventeenth Street, or Mr. G. W. Green, Secretary, 11 Pine Street. It has facsimiles of Mr. Lowell's autograph and of Longfellow's. In the mass of opinions of the leading living American authors here collected almost every point of view is taken, and every side of the question debated.

Dr. James C. Welling, President of Columbian University, has reprinted from the first number of the *American Anthropologist* his paper on the Law of Malthus. It is, in legal language, of the nature of a plea in confession and avoidance. The tendency described by Malthus is admitted, but the counteracting tendencies are dwelt upon, especially the capacity in man as a rational animal to control the conditions of his development. The paper is free from polemical bias, and gives a philosophical view of the subject.

A daughter of the late Norman Macleod, D.D., has compiled a volume from his writings and unpublished manuscripts, entitled 'Love the Fulfilling of the Law' (A. D. F. Randolph & Co.). It is made up of broken echoes of his literary activity—fragments of sermons, bits of description of persons and countries, parts of stories for children. The whole will doubtless be of value to his friends as a souvenir, though it will add little if anything of distinctive worth to what he gave to the world in his lifetime.

Mrs. Frances Hodgson Burnett gives children another rare treat in 'Sara Crewe; or, What Happened at Miss Minchin's,' reprinted from the pages of *St. Nicholas* (Scribners). This story is worthy of the captivating pen of the authoress of 'Little Lord Fauntleroy,' but within narrower limits. Sara is a precocious little maiden, with a most lively imagination, stimulated into wonderful activity by the hardships and privations which fall to her lot as drudge in a boarding-school. Her only pleasures come from books and from her various "pretends." The delightful and fairy-like surprise that presently brightens her life proves to be not a dream, but the beginning of a complete change of fortune.

'St. George and the Dragon: A Story of Boy Life,' by Margaret Sidney (D. Lothrop Co.), is the title of one of the tales in a book bearing that name. It is an interesting story, and portrays a very manly American boy, called St. George by his companions on account of his chivalric disposition. Half of the volume, however, is filled by another narrative, called "Kensington Junior," which is poor and improbable.

M. Daudet's 'Trente Ans de Paris' (New York: F. W. Christern) has already been reviewed at length by our Paris correspondent, and we recur to it now only to note the author's rather curious economy of material. It contains sixteen chapters. Five of these, under the general head, "Histoire de mes Livres," are accounts of the genesis of 'Le Petit Chose,' 'Tartarin de Tarascon,' 'Lettres de mon Moulin,' 'Jack,' and 'Froment Jeune et Risler Aîné'—all of which, written originally for the *Nouvelle Revue*, have also appeared as prefaces of the stories in the library edition of M. Daudet's works issued jointly by Dentu and Charpentier. Oddly enough, three other of these prefaces, including that of 'Le Nabab,' already printed in the *Nouvelle Revue*, are not to be found in 'Trente Ans de Paris.' The paper on Turgeneff is that written for the *Century*—with a single added paragraph; but the other *Century* paper, on Mistral, we seek here in vain. Another chapter, "Premier Habit," was published only a few months ago in the volume with 'La Belle Nivernaise.' An advertisement at the head of 'Trente Ans' informs us that the first volume of M. Daudet's writing which was published with frequent and ingenious illustration, 'Tartarin sur les Alpes,' has now attained a sale of 120,000 copies.

Calmann Lévy has issued another volume of the interesting and valuable "Souvenirs Diplomatiques" of M. G. Rothan, 'La Prusse et son Roi pendant la Guerre de Crimée,' which first appeared in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* in November, December, and January last. Like the preceding volumes of the series which the "ancien ministre plénipotentiaire" of Napoleon III. has been giving to the world for some years past, the present work is one which no one interested in the history of Europe since the middle of the present century can afford to pass by, and which will well repay the less serious reader in literary interest and pleasure, whatever his political sentiments and sympathies may be.

The long-expected tome viii of the 'Chroniques de Froissart,' edited for the Société de l'Histoire de France by M. Siméon Luce, has been issued in two volumes by the publishing house of Renouard. The first volume of this work appeared in 1869, but since 1878 nothing has been published until now.

'Shakespeare et les Tragiques grecs,' the third and concluding volume of M. Paul Stapfer's "Shakespeare et l'Antiquité," has just been republished in an 18mo edition by Lecène & Oudin (Boston: Schoenhof). The other volumes, 'Les Tragédies romaines de Shakespeare' and 'Drames et Poèmes antiques de Shakespeare,' have already been published in the same form by Fischbacher, who issued the original 8vo edition now out of print.

It may aid the reviewer who has to pass on the work entitled 'The History of Portugal,' by Edward McMurdo, lately published by Sampson Low, London, to know that it is a mere translation of Herculano's 'Historia de Portugal.' The title-page vouchsafes the information that Mr. McMurdo has "compiled from Portuguese histories." The author in the preface helps us a little further by the statement: "I had learnt so much of the glorious past of Portugal that I resolved to have a translation made of records available at Lisbon. The Portuguese language is most difficult, and it was only after two years' search that I found a competent translator in the person of the accomplished Miss Mariana Monteiro, to *whom all the credit* of the present volume is due." Herculano is not mentioned. Examination shows the present volume, which covers the history from 1097 to 1279, to be a very literal translation of the first seven books of Herculano. In all this, Mr. McMurdo's share in the production of this first English history of Portugal seems to be reduced to that of publisher. Herculano died in 1877, and his history does not extend much beyond the limit of the English version, so that if Mr. McMurdo intends to bring the history down to modern times, he will have to depend on some other authority, to whom it is to be hoped he will give credit.

The February number of *Petermann's Mitteilungen* contains accounts by Baron Eggers of his journey into the interior of St. Domingo, and by H. Wichmann of explorations in Jana-Land and the New-Siberian Islands. The article of greatest general interest, however, is by Dr. R. v. Lendenfeld, "On the Influence of Deforesting upon the Rainfall of Australia.' Though his observations have not been numerous enough nor sufficiently extensive to prove as yet of much scientific value, they have led him to believe confidently that Europe and Australia are affected in precisely opposite ways by the clearing of forest lands. One-quarter of the rainfall of central Europe he holds to be due to her forests—that is, the annual amount would diminish to that extent if the land was left entirely barren. Australia, on the other hand, is a dry country, and the trees and plants adapt themselves to this condition. Their roots penetrate very deep into the soil, and spread to a great extent to gather all the moisture possible. Of this they give out almost nothing by evaporation; the eucalyptus, for instance, closing its pores in the heat, and keeping constantly the edges of its leaves to the sun. No grasses grow under the trees in an Australian forest, as these absorb all the moisture, and consequently the ground is as hard as a rock, the rain from the infrequent showers running off as rapidly as from absolutely barren ground. The struggle between plants and grasses here is not, as in Europe, a struggle for light, but for water, and the two cannot exist together. But when the trees are cut down, the grasses spring up and flourish, and when they die, their stems and roots remain, making little ducts through which the water percolates into the ground, and so greatly increasing the subterranean stores of water. In New South Wales, tracts which, before the trees were cut down, would barely feed a hundred sheep, now support a thousand.

In the February *Bulletin* of the Société de l'histoire du Protestantisme Français, M Ch. Read completes his examination of Mme. de Maintenon's alleged complicity with the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes, in which he unequivocally acquits her of the charge. It also contains an interesting letter of the widow of M. Rapin, the historian, to Paul Mascarene, found in the Library of Harvard University, in which she gives some account of her husband and family.

The well-edited, agreeably printed, and always entertaining *Revue des Traditions Populaires* has been enlarged in size and in scope, and typographically embellished, with the volume for the new year. This puts the cost a little beyond the means of the Société des Traditions Populaires, which publishes the *Revue*, and an appeal for voluntary aid has been made to members. An enlarged subscription list abroad would doubtless also be welcome. The annual price is 17 francs. The treasurer is M. A. Certeux, 167 rue St.-Jacques, Paris.

The editor of *De Portefeuille* offers to artists everywhere a prize for a design for a pictorial cover to its winter issue for 1888, to be drawn in line or in water-color, for reproduction by zincography or chromotype. The best design will receive $120, the second $60, the third $40.

A copy of the paper (an illustrated literary and art journal published at Amsterdam, Rokin 70) will be sent on application by those wishing to compete. The designs must reach M. Taco H. de Beer, P. C. Hooftstraat 83, Amsterdam, by May 15.

—Among the great private libraries of England none perhaps is more widely known than the Middlehill library, collected by the late Sir Thomas Phillipps, it being especially noted throughout Europe for its wonderful collection of manuscripts, over 3,000 of which were described by Haenel in his 'Catalogi Librorum Manuscriptorum,' so long ago as 1830. At the death of Sir Thomas, in 1872, the number of manuscripts had increased to 60,000, and, as the owner was a trustee of the British Museum, many indulged in the hope that this remarkable collection, which had been transferred from Middlehill to Thirlestane House, Cheltenham, might find a permanent and fitting resting-place in the great national library. But, by a will made a few days before his death, Sir Thomas bequeathed Thirlestane House, together with the famous library which, it is said, literally filled the great mansion, to his youngest daughter, Mrs. Fenwick, for life, with remainders over to her heirs, coupled with the strange condition that neither his eldest daughter nor her husband (the noted Shakspere scholar, J. O. Halliwell-Phillipps), nor any Roman Catholic should ever be permitted to enter the house. It was also understood that, by the will, the collection was so strictly tied up that there was little likelihood of its passing out of the family. In August, 1886, however, it was advertised that the first portion of the Middlehill library would be sold at auction in London. This first portion contained 3,346 lots, and realized only about £2,200, but it seems it consisted chiefly of duplicates, imperfect copies, and working books, and included none of the manuscripts the collection of which still remained intact. In a note by Dr. De Vries of Leyden, in the February number of the *Centralblatt für Bibliothekswesen*, it is stated that, in consequence of recent changes in the English law of entail, the heirs of Sir Thomas Phillipps have succeeded in obtaining the permission of the Court of Chancery to sell the library, and that the German Government has taken advantage of this opportunity to secure the famous Meerman collection, which was sold at the death of Johann Meerman in 1824, and passed almost entire into the possession of Sir Thomas. De Vries also says that the Dutch Government has just succeeded in purchasing everything relating to Dutch history and literature (outside of the Meerman collection) remaining in the Middlehill library, comprising 161 numbers and 88 boxes of documents. Among the most important of these manuscripts are two unpublished works by Huygens, several chronicles, and a Middle-Dutch 'Spiegel Historiael,' by Jacob van Maerlant, much older and fuller than the only manuscript hitherto known of the first part. The documents relate chiefly to the history of Utrecht, and are said to be extremely valuable. They number about 3,000, and are nearly all older than the seventeenth century. According to the editor of the *Centralblatt*, the statement that the German Government has purchased the Meerman collection is not strictly correct, the fact being that the collection has been purchased by a few public-spirited citizens of Berlin, who on former occasions have shown an unselfish interest for learning, with the intention of offering it to the Royal Library at a moderate price. The Meerman collection contains many Greek manuscripts, but its chief value is said to be in the Latin manuscripts, among them being many of great importance for the history of Germany, and the late G. Waitz had long ago urged the desirability of purchasing the collection if ever the opportunity offered.

—Mr. Halliwell-Phillipps, observing our note on Shaksperiana and taxes on culture, calls it "an able and decisive article on the wrong inflicted by the book-duty." "All the books," he writes, "I am printing now and for the last sixteen years, excepting only my 'Outlines,' have been for presents only among friends and students, not a single copy being sold. It is perfectly monstrous that I cannot distribute such books among my numerous American friends without subjecting the latter to payments that are practically fines, and, if you will excuse a pun, payments which it is not morally their *duty* to discharge." Mr. Phillipps, though he says a succession of small illnesses has kept him for many weeks out of his study, has still with irrepressible productivity just written a 'Dictionary of Misprints.' This is, as he describes it, "a novel attempt to turn what has hitherto been thought slag into good use" He has printed this work in small quarto, "exclusively for presents only, not a single copy being sold." In a note saying that he has mailed us a presentation copy, he says: "I shall be anxious to know if duty is charged." In our paragraph concerning the book-tariff we had complained of being forced to pay a tax on a Bible we had imported—the Oxford Tetrapla New Testament—an edition that had never been reproduced in this country and never will be. In the reform tariff bill now before Congress all Bibles are placed on the free-list. If "books printed exclusively for presents" were placed on the same list, would protection suffer even in the ninth part of a hair?

—Parts i-iv of the Appendix to the Eleventh Report of the Historical Manuscripts Commission have recently appeared. Part i consists of "The Manuscripts of Henry Duncan Skrine, Esq.—Salvetti Correspondence"; Part ii, "The Manuscripts of the House of Lords, 1678-1688"; Part iii, "The Manuscripts of the Corporations of Southampton and King's Lynn." The originals of the letters comprising the Salvetti correspondence are preserved in the archives of Florence. They were written by Alessandro Antelminelli of Lucca, who assumed the name of Amerigo Salvetti, and was for many years the representative of the Grand Dukes of Tuscany at the English court. The volume before us contains his despatches during the years 1625-1628, and is based upon a translation made by Mr. Heath Wilson in 1881, now in the possession of Mr. Skrine. These letters contain the views of an intelligent observer of English affairs, and throw much light on the history of the period that they cover. The papers in Part ii elucidate many interesting events of the reigns of Charles the Second and James the Second, but they are particularly valuable for the study of the history of the Popish Plot and the Habeas-Corpus Act. The passing of the latter, according to Burnet, was due to an artifice, one of the tellers having counted a "very fat lord" as ten. "Incredible as this story appears, the Minute Book, strangely enough, contains fewer Peers present than are represented on the division" (p. viii). Mr. J. C. Jeaffreson is the compiler of Part iii. In this, as in most of his reports on the archives of English towns, he betrays an inadequate knowledge of the details of English municipal history, and hence often fails to emphasize duly what is of importance. For example, if he were a profounder student of the subject, he would have more strongly accentuated the conspicuous position of the Holy Trinity Gild in the community of King's Lynn, together with its peculiar relations to the governing body, and would have given us fuller and more judicious extracts from the Gild rolls. His "discoveries," which he always conspicuously labels as such, are often unimportant or untenable. For example, on page 211 he states that women were admitted only to the *spiritual* benefits of the Gild. "What is here said . . . should not escape the reader's attention, nor be allowed to pass from his mind, as it differs materially from what was written on the same subject by the late Mr. Harrod." But what he advances does not show that the latter was necessarily wrong. At all events, in most of the towns of England women were admitted to *all* the benefits of the gilds, and hence the reader would do well to allow Mr. Jeaffreson's statement "to pass from his mind." Mr. Jeaffreson ought to post himself more fully on the literature relating to the history of a town before he attempts to print extracts from its archives. On page 8 he exhorts Hampshire archæologists to print "The Oak Book" of Southampton, evidently not being aware that the greater portion of it was edited by Smirke in vol. xvi of the *Archæological Journal*. Moreover, here, as in his other reports, the compiler transcribes his documents very indifferently. On page 8, for example, he has "aler nyer devaunt ly" for "a servyer devaunt ly," to serve before him; "tauntoi," "tantu'," for "taunt cum," "tan cum," as long as; "mizt," "muytz," for "nuzt," "nuiytz," night; "vn galoundde vyn de vne chaundele," for "vn galoun de vyn et vne chaundele," one gallon of wine and one candle. But the shortcomings of the compiler, however grave they may be, only slightly diminish the real value of the volume before us, which is very great. It may now be said without hesitation that the reports of the Historical Manuscripts Commission constitute the most important source for the study of English municipal history. The only other source that will rival it in value is the Report of the Municipal Corporations Commission of 1835.

—Part iv gives an account of the manuscripts of the Marquis Townshend, which, in addition to a valuable collection of Jacobite papers, contain many documents of great interest for American students. Such are the numerous papers relating to the affairs of the American colonies in the first half of the eighteenth century. Most of the letters in this portion of the collection were addressed to Lord Wilmington, President of the Council from 1731 to 1743. Among the letters from the Governors of the Carolinas is one from Gabriel Johnston, giving a very unflattering account of the colonists of that province. He says it is

"an easy task to describe the genius and temper of the inhabitants; it is only to imagine the lowest scum and rabble of Change Alley transplanted into a rich and fruitful country, where with very small labor they can build themselves sorry hutts, and live in a beastly sort of plenty and all the rest of their time devoted to calumny, lying, and the vilest tricking and cheating; a people into whose heads no human means can beat the notion of a public interest, or persuade to live like men, or even to pursue the most commendable and surest method of acquiring riches. . . . Among them a cheat of the first magnitude is treated with all the distinction and regard which is usually paid to men of merit, and conspicuous virtue in other parts of the world. This is truly, and without any exaggeration, the real character of the generality of the people here. There are indeed a few, and but a very few, men of integrity and candor, by whose assistance I hope we shall be able to people the uninhabited parts of the province with a better race of men. Before my arrival there was no

such thing as recovering private debts, but for paying the King his rents, it never once entered into their thoughts."

A letter from Gov. Oglethorpe of Georgia reports very fully two interviews with the chiefs of the Chickasaw Indians at Savannah in 1736. The great fire at Charleston in November, 1740, calls forth a petition to the King, from the Legislature of the colony, in behalf of the distressed inhabitants.

—The Massachusetts papers include many letters from Gov. Belcher, describing the difficulties of his position. On November 13, 1740, he writes to his brother-in-law, Richard Partridge, who had been looking after his interests at court, "I understand, since the arrival of the last ships my Enemies have a great dependance upon a revival of the censure past on me last year in the Privy Councill. I know they would move heaven and hell if it were in their power, to get me out at the King's return, but considering the vast interest you have made for me, I hope they will be finally defeated and disappointed—I know I shall stand in need of all the strength you can make, so, pray, brother, be still alive and on the sharp look out." His hopes, however, were not fulfilled, for in May, 1741, he was superseded by Shirley. Full of interest, too, are the papers relating to the siege of Quebec. The opinions of two of Wolfe's subordinates as to his generalship are perhaps worth quoting. Brig.-Gen. Townshend, who succeeded to the command at the death of Wolfe, says in a letter to his wife, written from Camp Levi on September 6, 1759, "Gen. Wolfe's health is but very bad. His generalship in my poor opinion—is not a bit better, this only between us. He never consulted any of us till the latter end of August, so that we have nothing to answer for I hope as to the success of this Campaign." And Brig.-Gen. Murray, in a letter to Townshend dated October 5, 1759, says, "I have no copy of the paper I sent by you to Gen'l Wolfe concerning his scheme of landing between Point au Tremble and St. Augustin, but the publick orders are a sufficient proof of his intention to do it, and likewise of the suddenness of the thought of landing when we did. Indeed his orders throughout the campaign show little stability, stratagem, or fixt resolution; I wish his friends had not been so much our enemys, his Memory would probably have been dearer to his country than now it can be. We are acting on the defensive, you have the execution of the plan, and I am well persuaded you will manage it with as much tenderness to the memory of the poor General as the nature of things will admit of." The letter of Gen. Townshend to William Pitt, describing the attack and capture of Quebec, is printed in full, as is also another account of the operations from a series of Rough Notes of the movements of the forces from July 28 to September 13.

—Interesting in a different way is the correspondence between the third Lord Townshend and Dean Tucker, discussing theories of commerce, the corn bounties, taxation, etc., while the correspondence between this same Lord Townshend and the authorities of Cambridge University concerning the prizes offered by his Lordship, for the two best essays "upon subjects included within the Theory of Trade," will be found rather amusing reading. It closes with the following letter from his Lordship to Dr. Law:

"Sir: I received your letter of the 24th inst this morning and shall in answer only mention in a few words that when you, the Vice-Chancellor of Cambridge, did in your letter of the 28th of Jany last seem to charge me with inconsistency of conduct, and did mention in that letter, that the first question relating to the influence of Trade on morals might as you apprehend be postponed on account of the great corruption for some time visible among the trading ports of our nation; witness the late uproar raised about the general naturalization and Jew Bills, I did resolve to let the Institution drop so far as I have been concerned in it, and to give my self no further trouble about it, you need not therefore give yourself the trouble of transmitting to me the two Prize Dissertations. There is not any moral duty which is not of a commercial nature. Freedom of Trade is nothing more than a freedom to be moral agents. And since a free moral inquiry into this most interesting theory on the observance of which the happiness of this life and of the next do entirely depend, cannot be allowed at your University, I have done, and have nothing more to add than that I am, sir, your obedient humble servant."

—The February number of *Les Lettres et les Arts* (Chas. Scribner's Sons), though it contains only five articles, is as varied in its contents as this review generally is, for both M. Jules Simon and M. Guy de Maupassant have presented their subjects under so many aspects that an impression of variety and abundance is made by the whole. In "Un Normalien en 1833," M. Jules Simon returns to the days of his youth, to the *collège* at Vannes in Brittany and the École Normale in Paris. It is not an account of his student life that he gives, but rather a vivid picture of the great school which has sent into the world so many men of note in the present century, and of its famous teachers at the time—Cousin, Damiron, Garnier, for philosophy, Nisard for literature, Michelet for history. All these, and others less famous, are presented with striking vividness and reality. Even the Abbé Lacordaire and his lectures at the Collège Stanislas, which drew young men from all the schools of Paris to listen to him, are pictured in a few striking pages. But the chief figure is that of the writer's friend and companion, a Breton like himself, whom he calls Jean Le Bris, who, like Renan and Ferdinand Fabre, began in the *séminaire* of his province an ecclesiastical training which growing doubts finally cut short. The writer warns his readers in the beginning that perhaps Jean Le Bris was not at the École Normale, that he was perhaps not at the *séminaire* at Vannes, nor afterwards a member of the Institut. But he adds that, aside from these small details, all that he relates is scrupulously true. Jean Le Bris seems to represent the conscientious change from a state of faith to one of doubt, and, finally, unwilling rejection of early religious beliefs in the generation to which he belonged. But M. Jules Simon has made a striking reality of his moral and historical and artistic conception, and he has clothed it in the inimitable simplicity of that style which makes of him one of the most attractive of writers. In another way M. de Maupassant's "Sur l'eau" is as wonderful a piece of work. He tells us it is part of a journal kept during a cruise along the shore of the Mediterranean in his yacht, the *Bel-Ami*, in which he amused himself by writing what he saw and what he thought. What an artist and a thinker like M. de Maupassant sees and thinks and relates is something to charm any reader. This journal of three April days and nights is one of the most varied and finished of M. de Maupassant's always delightful impressions of travel, in which his best qualities are revealed.

—Mention was made in Number 1184 of the *Nation* of the discovery of the site of ancient Icaria in excavations conducted by the American School of Classical Studies at Athens, and we print this week a long letter on the same subject. The determination of the site was important in itself, but the continued excavations have been unexpectedly productive of interesting results. Among the objects which have been brought to light is a colossal head (ten inches across the face) of the bearded Bacchus, admirably executed, and believed to belong to the sixth century B. C. The front hair is made up into huge "spit curls" (each being an inch and a half across), all around the forehead, and down to the ears. The eyes are of the archaic, almond type, and the beard and moustache are curled with all the elaborateness of an Assyrian statue, yet this is distinctively not Assyrian. The beard resembles that of the Cypriote figures, yet it has a character of its own. One long slab, which had served (fortunately face downwards) as the doorsill of a Byzantine church, bears a complete duplicate (except the face) of the celebrated "Warrior of Marathon." Among other works of art are a torso of a young satyr, and another of a colossal statue of a male draped figure. Two slabs are covered on each face with reliefs of processions or sacrifices. Two inscriptions of the fifth century B. C. have been found, of the highest interest for the rural worship of Dionysus. Work has been interrupted somewhat by unfavorable weather; and as yet, when each day brings new discoveries which supplement those of the previous days, no careful study of the treasure-trove has been possible. These discoveries seem to us to be extraordinarily important, and we trust that they will excite sufficient interest to help in securing a permanent endowment for the School at Athens.

BRACTON'S NOTE BOOK.

Bracton's Note Book: A collection of cases decided in the King's Courts during the Reign of Henry III., annotated by a lawyer of that time, seemingly by Henry of Bratton. Edited by F. W. Maitland of Lincoln's Inn, Barrister at Law, Reader of the English Law in the University of Cambridge. London: C. J. Clay & Sons, Cambridge University Press Warehouse. 1887. Three volumes, octavo, pp. 337, 720, 723.

THIS is a book of extraordinary interest and value; and the importance of its contents is well supported by the thorough and admirable manner in which it is edited. It presents us with authentic copies from the judicial records, hitherto unpublished, of cases in the King's courts of the time of Henry III., covering nearly the first twenty-four years of his reign, say, 1217-1240. Not merely that; it is a selection of the more important cases, and made by a contemporary writer; and there is very strong reason indeed to believe that it was made by Bracton himself.

Bracton was one of the principal judges of the time, and the author of a great legal treatise of which, comparing it with Blackstone, Mr. Maitland well remarks: "Twice in the history of England has an Englishman had the motive, the courage, the power to write a great readable, reasonable book about English law as a whole." It has been the fashion, at one time and another, to slight Bracton on account of his use of matter derived from what has been called the legal *plenum* of that period, the Roman law. Fitzherbert, in his 'Abridgment' (*Garde*, 71), has preserved a remark of the Judges in the generation just preceding his own, to the effect that Bracton was never regarded as an authority in English law—"et tout le court dit que Bracton ne fuit unques tenus pur auctor en nostre ley." This was repeated by a chief justice in the next century (Plowden, 358); and in the last century we hear

it more than once, not only in England, but on the Continent. But, whoever says it, we know it now for a shallow and ignorant remark; we know that the sober Reeves was much nearer right when, in composing his 'History of the English Law,' he praised Bracton so highly and adopted him "as the basis of all legal learning." Now there is good and probably sufficient reason to believe that we have here a note book of cases, prepared under his own supervision, which Bracton used in the preparation of his great work; and we may now have the novel and really startling satisfaction of testing and weighing Bracton's statements of the law by comparing them with the cases upon the authority of which he made them. It is many a year since any contribution has been made to the study of the history and foundations of the English law which is at all comparable to this.

The manuscript of the 'Note Book' was discovered in the British Museum in 1884—or rather the true character of the manuscript was first suspected then—by Professor Vinogradoff of Moscow. We owe the publication of it now to the devotion and generosity of Mr. Maitland. He speaks in the most modest way of his excellent editorial labors:

"Before I am blamed for having done less than might have been done in the way of collating rolls, giving various readings, making indexes and notes, it will, I hope, be remembered that this has been a private enterprise. I have often had to count the cost; also to reflect that another day in the Record Offices or the British Museum would mean another hundred miles in the train. . . . As there was no learned society whose business it was to encourage the study of English legal history (for the Selden Society was not yet born nor even thought of), it seemed likely that the 'Note Book' would remain unprinted for many years unless some one would make such an edition of it as could be made at his own cost and without giving to it all his time. Perhaps I was not the man for the work; but I have liked it well."

The cases themselves, of which there are 1,982, are in the Latin of the original rolls, and fill two stout octavo volumes. Then there is another thinner first volume, containing a short preface, an account of the discovery of the manuscript by Professor Vinogradoff, a full and excellent introduction by Mr. Maitland, and, finally, a careful apparatus of tables and indexes. For many people the index of persons and of places will have much interest, exhibiting as it does familiar names of the present day upon the judicial rolls of six or seven centuries ago.

The discovery of the real nature and value of this manuscript so recently, and by a Russian, is a striking reminder of the relative backwardness of English scholars in a knowledge of the history of their own law. Vinogradoff, Professor of History at Moscow, while investigating the sources of mediæval history in England in 1884, in the course of examining Bracton and his authorities, was referred to this manuscript. A careful reading of it and comparison with Bracton's text led him to the belief that "it was drawn up for Bracton and annotated by him or under his direction." He published a letter in the *Athenæum* for July 19, 1884, giving strong reasons for this opinion; and the matter was then taken up by English scholars. England owes Mr. Maitland much for having come forward at once and assumed the great labor and expense of this publication. And it will do well if it heeds his humorous warning, in calling for a new edition of Bracton's treatise—so lately edited, in a very discreditable manner, at the public expense; "Bracton's treatise ought to be carefully and lovingly edited. If this be not done by an Englishman, it will be done by a foreigner—as it is written, Vocabo super eos gentem robustam et longinquam et ignotam cuius linguam ignorabunt"; and for this passage he duly cites his authority, Bracton, folio 34. "Carefully and lovingly edited"—the phrase is a peculiar one; but it intimates well the character of the writer's own patient, scholarly, thorough, admirable work in editing the 'Note Book.'

Passing over the first sixty pages of his Introduction, which relate to Bracton's treatise, and to matters illustrating his personal history, and which are full of instruction, we come to what takes up the larger part of the remaining eighty pages—an excellent account of the 'Note Book' and of its relation to the great treatise. The manuscript was bought by the British Museum from the library of a Mr. John Holmes of East Rexford. A few pages are missing at and near the beginning, and an unknown amount is wanting at the end. Some memoranda upon it in a hand of the fifteenth century indicate that it was in about its present shape then. It has marginal notes in a hand of the thirteenth century which appear to have been made by the person for whom the cases were copied. In comparing the 'Note Book' with the original rolls, Mr. Maitland discovered that many of the rolls here copied are not now extant; but where they do exist he found a circumstance which we must let him tell in his own words:

"When, having copied some pages of the 'Note Book,' I took my transcript to the Record Office, in the hope of finding the original records, I expected that the work of hunting for my cases would be tedious. To my surprise and delight, on taking up the first roll, I discovered that the work had been done for me. Every case that I wanted had against it a mark of an obvious, unmistakable kind. In the margin of the roll, down the whole length of the case, some one had drawn a firm, heavy line, in color a dark rusty brown; to look at, it was much such a line as might have been drawn by the old-fashioned red-lead pencil. I soon learned to know that this 'scoring,' as I call it, was the work of the man who had the Note Book made for him. Whenever there was a scored roll, the cases in the Note Book agreed perfectly with the cases on that roll, saving the immaterial omissions, of which hereafter, and saving mere clerical blunders. . . . In some instances the copyist has apparently obeyed what he took to be his instructions, with a slavish obedience; he has left out the important end of a case, because the mark on the roll did not go far enough, or has copied just the first lines of the next case, because the mark went a little too far."

Mr. Maitland's argument (pp. 72–117) for thinking the 'Note Book' to be Bracton's is singularly temperate; at the same time, it is strong, and such as will bring many a reader to join with him in the "revocable judgment" which, after the formula of the rolls, he enters up at the end of the discussion: "Et ideo consideratum est quod Henricus recuperavit seisinam suam, saluo iure cuiuslibet." We will state the outline of the argument, but much of its force depends on circumstances for which we have not room.

Bracton's treatise cites nearly five hundred cases, of which two hundred are found in the 'Note Book.' All are from three classes of Rolls: (1.) Of the bench at Westminster; (2.) Of pleas which followed the King; (3.) Eyre Rolls. Both the treatise and the 'Note Book' begin and end their collections from the rolls of the first class at the same point. Both begin taking cases from the rolls of the second class at the same point, and, as regards these, all the cases in both are from the same six consecutive rolls. Of the Eyre Rolls the treatise cites twenty, and the 'Note Book' only eight; but all, in both, are rolls of the same two famous judges, Pateshull and Raleigh; and inasmuch as the cases from the Eyre Rolls come last in the 'Note Book,' and the end of this is lost, a reason is given for the absence from it now of other cases of this class.

Again, there is a close and curious resemblance between the side-notes and other annotations of the 'Note Book' and the text of the treatise. The nature of the annotations, as being made by the one for whom the work was done, their references and omissions to refer to legislation, and their citations of other cases, indicate pretty plainly their date as about that of the compilation of the 'Note Book' itself, viz., about 1240–1256; and with this the handwriting agrees. Curious phrases, the same context of words, the same peculiar opinions, and the same errors appear in both. As regards certain not perfectly verifiable cases briefly cited in these annotations, *e. g.*, thus: *fere casus Cole*, *casus Corbyn*, *casus Radulphi de Arundelle*, etc.—Mr. Maitland examines them all. Some of them occur in a like form in an important manuscript of the treatise; others appear to be cases tried before Bracton himself, or such as related to neighbors or friends of his, or are in some probable way connected with Bracton.

The last of Mr. Maitland's arguments points out that the 'Note Book' and the treatise are both "guilty of the same astonishing blunder." The statute of Merton, chapter ix, as is well known, preserves, as of the date of January 23, 1235–36, the fact that the Bishops declared that they could not and would not answer certain questions relating to bastardy which were at that period put to them, and that they asked the Lords to consent to a change in the law, so that children born before the marriage of their parents should be legitimated by the after marriage. And then came the famous answer: "Et omnes comites et barones una voce responderunt quod nolunt leges Anglie mutare que usitate sunt et approbate." A hundred years later (11 Ass., 20) Chief-Justice Scrope said, in explanation of this "statute," that previously, if it was alleged that a man was a bastard, it was usual to send to the Bishop to certify in this form, viz., whether he was born before marriage or after, and upon the answer the common-law courts gave judgment according to the law of the land. The operation of this was to keep the question of law in the hands of the common-law judges instead of leaving it with the clergy. There had been in October, 1234, an ordinance requiring this to be done; and the statute of Merton shows that the Bishops refused to obey it. Now, it is a singular fact that Bracton transposes the order of these two provisions; he makes the ordinance of 1234 follow the statute of Merton, as of October, 1236, and as having been called out by the refusal recorded in the "statute." This error in Bracton was pointed out by Selden. Now, the 'Note Book' does the same thing, with a variation; it makes the ordinance follow the statute of Merton, only it carries both back to the year 1234. As regards these enactments there are also other remarkable resemblances between the treatise and the 'Note Book,' in points where both differ from the statutes; and these are brought out very clearly by Mr. Maitland by the use of parallel citations.

Such, in a very imperfect summary, are the arguments. While "the value of this book," as the editor justly says, "does not depend wholly or even chiefly" on the success of the argument that it is Bracton's own 'Note Book,' he reasonably considers the case to be made out, and sums up thus:

"The treatise is absolutely unique; the 'Note Book,' so far as we know, is unique; these two unique books seem to have been put together within a very few years of each other,

while yet the statute of Merton was *noua gracia;* Bracton's choice of authorities is peculiar, distinctive; the compiler of the 'Note Book' made a very similar choice; he had, for instance, just six consecutive rolls of pleas *coram rege;* Bracton had just the same six; two-fifths of Bracton's five hundred cases are in this book; every tenth case in this book is cited by Bracton; some of Bracton's most out-of-the-way arguments are found in the margin of this book, in particular that about the binding of land by warranty, that about the ejectment of a disseisor; the same phrases appear in the same contexts, *Juste propter jus sed iniuste propter iniuriam, Nihil certius morte, nihil incertius hora mortis;* Corbyn's case, Ralph Arundell's case are 'noted up' in the 'Note Book'; they are 'noted up' also in the Digby MS. of the treatise; with hardly an exception all the cases thus 'noted up' seem plainly to belong to Bracton's country, to affect persons whom Bracton must have known, Raleighs, Traceys, Gorges, Blanchminsters, Winscots, Arundells, Punchardons; lastly, we find a strangely intimate agreement in error. The history of the ordinance about special bastardy and the *Nolumus* of Merton is confused and perverted in the same way in the two books."

As regards one of the Latin phrases quoted in this passage—when Bracton says, "licet nihil certius sit morte, nihil tamen incertius est hora mortis," and the annotator says, "nihil certius morte, nihil incertius hora mortis," the suspicion arises that both may be using some familiar quotation or commonplace; and Mr. Maitland does not overlook this.

> "Mors incertarum rerum certissima cunctis,
> Incertum quando, certum aliquando mori";

so run certain seemingly monkish lines of unknown origin, in a little 'Flores Poetarum' published at Cologne in 1712. And Chaucer, as a friend reminds us, said, in the 'Clerk's Tale,' in the next century after Bracton's:

> "And al so certein as we knowe echoon
> That we shal deye as uncerteyn we alle
> Been of that day when death shal on us falle."

Perhaps the "nihil certius morte" will hardly be found in any classical author. And yet Bracton does quote Horace. In his "Est enim modus et mensura et fines certi, ultra quæ citra quæ nequit consistere rectum" (fol. 229 b), one detects the passage from Sat. i, 106, 107:

> "Est modus in rebus, sunt certi denique fines,
> Quos ultra citraque nequit consistere rectum."

Fleta (Lib. iv, c.; 23, s. 4), which seems to belong to the date of 1285, or thereabout, repeats this (as we might expect) in Bracton's form, but with the slight variation of "ultra quæ et citra." And then, oddly enough, in the 'Placitorum Abbreviatio' (226, col. 2), we may read it actually incorporated in the records of the King's Courts in precisely Bracton's form (saving only an evident slight misprint), at the end of a long judgment of 1291 in an Irish appeal on a writ of right. Among a variety of defects it was adjudged that the form in which the parties had put themselves upon the grand assize was wrong. Form, the judgment says, is necessary here, and consent of the parties will not cure the fault [etc., etc.], "cum sit modus et mensura et fines certi ultra quæ citra quæ nequid [*sic*] consistere rectum. Ideo consideratum est quod processus predictus irritetur, etc." Now, evidently the writer of that judgment might have taken this passage from his Bracton, or even, what is less likely, from his Fleta. Or, perhaps, Bracton's use of it had made it a commonplace. Or was it, possibly, already a commonplace when Bracton used it?

So far we have spoken of the relation of the 'Note Book' to Bracton. But the interest of it, as connected with other books and authors, does not end with what has yet been stated. "There can be but little doubt," says Mr. Maitland, "that, some two hundred and fifty years after its making, it came to the hands of another very famous lawyer, of Chief-Justice Sir Anthony Fitzherbert, who published his 'Grand Abridgment' in 1514. . . . If Bracton introduces, Fitzherbert closes one great period of English law, the age of the Year Books." Mr. Maitland gives his reasons for this opinion, and they are very strong. We will merely indicate them. Fitzherbert has 214 cases from the reign of Henry the Third, of which 207 are from the first twenty-four years of the reign and are all in this book, and seven only are from the later thirty-two years. The cases are taken from the same rolls and follow the same unusual order adopted in the 'Note Book.' And it tends a little to support this conclusion that here and there in the 'Note Book' words (like *Corona*, etc.) are scribbled in it in a hand of the fifteenth or sixteenth century, which may well have been the catchwords for a Digest:

"For a second time, therefore, our 'Note Book' entered into the history of English law. Mediately, through Fitzherbert, it became one of Coke's main authorities (the treatises of Glanvill and Bracton are the others), for what was law before the days of Edward the First, his only authority for the case law of those days. . . . That Coke had studied at first hand the rolls of the thirteenth century, there are very few signs indeed; he was dependent on Fitzherbert, and Fitzherbert was dependent on this 'Note Book.'"

It strikes a reader's attention that the number of cases in Bracton and in Fitzherbert which are also found among the 2,000 of the 'Note Book,' is very nearly the same. But a look at the tables given by Mr. Maitland indicates that they are not the same cases. Was there an attempt on Fitzherbert's part to select such only as were *not* in Bracton's treatise? It looks a little like that; and one wonders what that may mean. The reader also finds himself curious as to the intermediate history of the 'Note Book'—from Fitzherbert to Mr. John Holmes of East Rexford. Could not something be done to clear this up, by working backward?

And, now, what is it that one finds in the 'Note Book'? This is not the forum for any extended answer to that question, nor have we room for it now. But it may be said in a word that it is a mine of treasure for the student of our ancient law. To one who has any acquaintance with the learned researches of the Germans into the old Frankish and Germanic law, it will have much interest—both giving and receiving light. And, again, as a link between the older law and the Year Books, it will help to a better understanding of much in these dark volumes which the lawyers of their own time did not understand. The puzzling subject of the secta and the various substitutes for it, and the earlier usages as to trial by jury, are illustrated in many of the cases. As regards the law of real property, "numberless points are here set in a clear light." There is much relating to the jurisdiction of the spiritual courts. Wager of law and trial by battle are in full operation at this time. Selden remarks (*Duello*, c. 8): "Rare are the examples of battels waged upon criminals in the annals of the English laws, and (if I forget not) the least plural number doubled comprehends as many as are therein reported with ensuing performance"; and thereupon he cites three cases from the Year Books. At least three more may be found in the 'Note Book.' A highly interesting class of cases are the appeals from the county and hundred courts; they disclose the antiquated procedure and usages that long held their own there, when newer ideas had made great headway in the King's Courts. We had marked a number of these cases for quotation, but they must be omitted. "In the eyes of a few connoisseurs," says Mr. Maitland, "the gems of this collection may be two cases which seem to show that feoffments to uses are as old as the days of Henry the Third." But perhaps in this, as a learned friend suggests, the author seems to intimate a greater significance in those cases than they really have.

It should be added that Mr. Maitland has collated all his cases with the originals at the Record Office so far as the rolls are now extant; and that he has also done his readers the same good turn as in his excellent publication, three years ago, of the 'Gloucester Pleas of the Crown,' in extending the abbreviated Latin of the text. We have now, in Palgrave's 'Rotuli Curiæ Regis,' a copy of all extant rolls of the King's Courts from the beginning, in 1194, to the year 1200, being those of the sixth, ninth, and tenth years of Richard I. and the first year of John. Then come the invaluable selections of this 'Note Book,' running from 1217 to 1240; and also Mr. Maitland's other volume before referred to, the 'Pleas of the Crown for the County of Gloucester,' in 1221. And the much abbreviated contents of the 'Placitorum Abbreviatio,' in a way, carry us on from 1194 to 1327. These comprise about everything that we now have in print of that magnificent collection of judicial rolls now roofed within the Record Office in London. But we have a promise of more, thanks to the Selden Society, which is to issue to its subscribers very soon a collection of Pleas of the Crown, to be edited and translated by Mr. Maitland, which will help to bridge the gap between Palgrave's volumes and the 'Note Book.' In the good work upon which it is thus entering, we trust that the new society will be heartily encouraged by large additions to its funds and its membership. It is most fortunate in having at its service so learned, accomplished, and devoted a scholar as Mr. Maitland.

It goes hard with us to make any complaint whatever, but we have found ourselves wishing now and then that the index of subjects were a little fuller—at any rate in cross references—and that an index for the Introduction had not been omitted.

FOUR CLERICAL BIOGRAPHIES.

Life and Work of J. R. W. Sloane, D.D., Professor of Theology in the Reformed Presbyterian Seminary at Allegheny City, etc. Edited by his Son. A. C. Armstrong & Son.

The Life of Constans L. Goodell, D.D. By A. H. Currier, D.D., Professor of Pastoral Theology in Oberlin Theological Seminary. With an introduction by William M. Taylor, D.D. Anson D. F. Randolph & Co. Pp. xix, 486.

A Sketch of the Life and Episcopate of the Right Rev. Robert Bickersteth, D.D., Bishop of Ripon, 1857–1884. By his son, Montagu Cyril Bickersteth, M.A., Vicar of St. Paul's, Pudsey, Leeds. With a preface by his cousin, Edward Henry Bickersteth, D.D., Lord Bishop of Exeter. E. P. Dutton & Co.

Autobiography of William G. Schauffler, for forty-one years a Missionary in the Orient. Edited by his Sons. With an introduction by Prof. E. A. Park, D.D., LL.D. A. D. F. Randolph & Co.

Prof. Wm. Sloane's Life of his father consists one-quarter of biography and autobiography, and three-quarters of sermons and addresses. It is a valuable contribution both to church history and to the history of the anti-slavery movement in this country. The variously denominated Scottish-American sect of which Covenanters is the most honored name, had the peculiar distinction of being anti-slavery in its very constitution. As Dr. Sloane has recorded (p. 81);

"A few Covenanters in Orange County, N. Y., and quite a number of them in South Carolina, and a few, I think, in Tennessee, had, while their organization consisted merely of separate societies without a ministry, purchased, or in some way become possessed of, slaves. The commissions which organized the congregations required the members to manumit their human chattels. This they did in all cases: it is not known that a single person refused."

Even the co-sectaries of John Woolman have no such record as this. When Dr. Sloane's father removed to Washington Co., Ill., his congregation consisted largely of Covenanters who had removed from South Carolina, in order to escape the environment of slavery.

This sect had a further unique distinction, in that its members disfranchised themselves under the Federal Constitution, not only on account of its pro-slavery character, but also because of the absence of God in it, as the phrase goes nowadays. They held that to derive the just powers of government from the governed, and not from the Almighty, whose existence, even, was unrecognized in our national charter, was to establish an infidel commonwealth. Hence they would neither vote, except at elections relating to Constitutional amendments, nor hold office, nor do jury duty. This attitude placed them side by side with a body of men who equally renounced office and the ballot from anti-slavery scruples—the abolitionists, namely—but who were commonly branded as infidels in religion, and many of whom undoubtedly merited the designation in the strict evangelical sense. Had the Covenanters, therefore, put their theology above right living, they would have imitated the other denominations without exception in shunning and denouncing the abolitionists. They would then, too, merely have done what the orthodox wing of the abolitionists themselves, under the lead of the Tappans, William Goodell, and J. G. Birney, did at the great schism in 1840.

The Covenanters were of other stuff, however, and though their Calvinism was beyond suspicion, they welcomed all sincere opposition to slavery, without fear of the contagion of infidelity. Dr. Sloane, who had taught school in Kentucky and deepened his innate hatred of the system by close inspection of it, came as a Covenanter preacher to New York in 1856, and the next year found him a speaker on the anniversary platform of the American Anti-Slavery Society. His topic was "Slavery in Church and State," and the speech rightly stands first in the present collection. His private judgment of one of his new associates was that he was "a fanatic, but a tempest on the platform"; of another, that he was "an infidel, I believe an honest one." He knew that Garrison "was not an orthodox believer—and little wonder, when one considers the pro-slavery churches with which he came in contact." These defects did not hold him back from public coöperation with them while the struggle lasted; and this coöperation was not patronizing, but unaffectedly cordial and dutiful. He became prominent in this city among the few clerical abolitionists. At a prayer-meeting held in Dr. Cheever's church on the day John Brown was to be hung, "Dr. Sloane was present, and among others was asked to lead the meeting in prayer. 'You must excuse me, if you please!' exclaimed he; 'I am too mad to pray.'" During the draft riots of July, 1863, his house and person were in imminent peril, yet he would desert neither his home nor his congregation.

"But the writer," says Prof. Sloane, in a graphic passage (pp. 98, 99), "remembers well the old covered express-wagon into which the anxious father put his son on the first afternoon, and had him driven through quiet and obscure streets to the dock of the steamer, to be conveyed to a place of safety among his father's kind friends at Newburg. The closed shutters of the shops; the unwonted stillness of the streets in the absence of all traffic, broken only by the too loud rumbling of the shaky old vehicle in which he sat, or the distant howls which seemed all too near; the deserted sidewalks; the absence of stages and street-cars; the suspicious glances of every passer-by—all united to arouse awe and terror in his mind. The boat was loaded to the water's edge; and scarcely had she drawn out a few hundred feet into the stream when the roar of an angry multitude was heard with distinctness, as it drew nearer and nearer. As it gradually filled the pier, the scene beggars description. The men, without hats and coats, with uncombed hair, and frenzied by drink and excitement, waved their flaming torches in the air, and sent their hoarse cries of disappointed rage far into the calm heaven, and across the ever-increasing distance. The women tore their flying locks, and rent their flimsy rags, till many of them were naked to the waist, and, in frantic fury, with bloodshot eyes, added their shrill, brutal screams to swell the tumult."

Slavery abolished, Dr. Sloane continued his other great denominational object. It was not enough to have got the devil out of the Constitution; the vacuum was not filled unless God took his place *nominatim*. From 1868 to his death in 1886, this excellent man filled the chair of systematic theology in the Theological Seminary of the Reformed Presbyterians at Allegheny City, while also holding the pastorate of the First Reformed Presbyterian Church.

Prof. Sloane has discharged his filial task (undertaken on behalf of the Covenanter body) with perfect taste and discretion. The informal autobiography which he happily extorted from his father is a charming piece of writing, particularly interesting by reason of the reminiscences of early New England and Western country life. Dr. Sloane rightly laid most stress on his anti-slavery convictions and career, and gives a number of impressions of his fellow-abolitionists in addition to those we have already cited. In theological circles, two men once famous made a deep impression on him, the Rev. Robert J. Breckinridge, with whose colonization views he could have had no sympathy, and the Rev. Alexander Campbell, founder of the sect bearing that name, whom he styles "this truly great man." "Altogether," he adds, "it seems to me that he was more distinctly stamped with greatness, the the greatest-*looking* man I have ever seen. Perhaps in this respect Dr. Willson [Dr. Sloane's namesake] was his peer. The latter was as good as he was great. Alexander Campbell, I fear, was not."

Dr. Goodell was undoubtedly a man of great personal force and attractiveness. He found his sphere and his happiness in the work of a pastor, and so wholly devoted his life to the interests of the two churches which he served that he is almost canonized in the affectionate remembrance of his parishioners. His hand was felt also upon the larger interests of his denomination. A man of the broadest sympathies, he was forward in all the religious and charitable works of the city of St. Louis, where the last fourteen years of his life were spent, and worthily won an honorable name, and left a gracious memory, in that community. All this is told with great detail in the book before us, which will no doubt be highly acceptable to Dr. Goodell's personal friends, as a memorial for whom, we are informed, this biography was principally designed. Yet it seems to us to exhibit some grave faults both in matter and expression. The style is a return to the creeping leisureliness of the religious biography of a half-century ago. There is an intolerable amount of serving notice on the reader that something is about to be said, after the generous but mistaken manner of Mr. Winkle, in the scrimmage with the police, deliberately pulling off his coat and announcing in a loud voice that he was about to begin fighting. But it is no great wonder, after all, that the book gets on at such a slow pace, when we notice the immense burden of ornamental quotation which it has to stagger under. Such a pillaging of note-books we have not seen in many a day.

It also appears to us highly probable that some of the friends of Dr. Goodell will accuse this biography of the same fault that Carlyle found in Hare's Life of Sterling—that its view is too restricted, that it treats of its subject too exclusively as a clergyman. Dr. Goodell had the name, during his residence at New Britain, of being "the model pastor of Connecticut." Professor Currier has pitched his entire book to that phrase. His pages read like a series of lectures to his classes on the "lessons" for them to be derived from the experiences of Dr. Goodell. There is almost a complete absence of reference to any interest not strictly ecclesiastical. Thus, Dr. Goodell's early ministry was cast in the stirring times of the civil war, yet, beyond one or two casual allusions in his letters, we are told nothing of how he was affected in that heroic period. Nor do we discover the faintest reflection in this biography of the revolution in the intellectual world which has taken place since he began his ministry. It is incredible that he did not feel it. He was no scholar, but as a man peculiarly sensitive, as it would appear, to what was astir in the lives of his fellows, he must have felt it. But, for all this book tells us, he thought and said nothing of it.

We think, too, that the author has greatly erred in printing so large an amount of extracts from Dr. Goodell's private devotional memoranda, communings with his own heart, and records of matters surely never meant for the light. It seems to us that laying such things before the world is just as indelicate and as much to be deplored as the unnecessary personal revelations of some recent literary biographies. When Dr. Goodell uttered such things in life, they were redeemed from the suspicion of affectation by his healthy personality; massed in cold type, they are at once an injustice to him and a wrong to the reader.

The Bishop of Ripon was one of a family somewhat remarkable for its ecclesiastical fecundity and general success. John Bickersteth, his father, occupied a position of comparative obscurity as Vicar of Acton. One of his uncles was Edward Bickersteth, the famous Evangelical Churchman and Church missionary enthusiast, whose son is now Bishop of Exeter. Another uncle, Henry, is best known as Lord Langdale, a great lawyer, who, as Master of the Rolls, drew up the judgment in the Gorham baptismal controversy, of which Dean Stanley said that perhaps no decision of any council or holy office was equal to it in moderation and insight, preventing, as it did, a schism in the Established Church. A brother of Bishop Robert is now Dean of Lichfield. The father was one of that considerable company which combined with the fervor and piety of the Wesleys, from whom came their inspiration, a spirit of sober loyalty to the Church. These were the men who formed the Bible Society, who supported missions to the Jews, and, with Wilberforce and Clarkson, stormed against the slave-trade till the conscience of the nation was aroused to roll away that terrible reproach to England and to Christendom. Robert, walking in his father's steps, was always an Evangelical Churchman. Whether at Queen's College,

Cambridge, or as curate, vicar, and rector at successive stages of his later life, or at his final post, he was a hard-working man, in personal religion most devout (his mother's self-examinations in her Memoir, after the Bible, his most studied manual of devotion), and in the duties of his office most laborious and faithful. His bishopric—"under Divine Providence," we are told in a parenthesis—was the gift of Lord Palmerston. In his later politics he was distinctly liberal, but here, as in ecclesiastical matters, his zeal was always tempered with discretion, and his relations with both Gladstone and Beaconsfield were on a cordial footing. He preferred the activities of his diocese to those of the House of Lords, in which, however, he was not an idle listener. He spoke at length in opposition to the disestablishment of the Irish Church, being Evangelical and hence strongly anti-Romanist. In the prolonged discussion of the bill allowing marriage with a deceased wife's sister, he took the radical position for a conservative reason. He was a strict constructionist, and he was persuaded that the Bible did not forbid such marriages. For him that was sufficient, for he never questioned the supreme and absolute authority of the Bible as a divine revelation. Whether he avoided every modern study of the literature of the Old and New Testaments is not clear, but it is certain that these studies did not make on him the least impression. He passed through life without a doubt which he might not have had if the whole bulk of modern criticism had remained unwritten. For the heresies of the 'Essays and Reviews' he had only the sternest condemnation, but to the prosecution of the offenders he was steadily opposed. Disliking "ecclesiastical millinery," he put on the purple cope when it was commanded by "the Purchas decision," evidently feeling a little foolish when so doing. Not without opinions and preferences of his own, he had the tact, the suavity, and the easy subordination of himself to the higher powers which make the typical churchman, with much personal kindliness, in the most intimate relations of his life setting a good example, and making himself warmly loved.

Dr. Park's introduction to Mr. Schauffler's Biography is taken up almost entirely with an account of Mr. Schauffler's personality and habits and acquirements when he was a student in the Theological School at Andover. At that time the missionary spirit was stronger there than it had ever been before or has been since, and Mr. Schauffler's enthusiasm for the missionary work was so great that it not only had great influence on his companions, but established a tradition which was active and inspiring in the school for some time after he had gone away. What we lack in Dr. Park's introduction, and in the book as a whole, is some general estimate of Mr. Schauffler's missionary work. Mr. Schauffler nowhere attempts such an estimate in his autobiography, and we are left with the impression that the enthusiasm of the scholar somewhat outran the missionary's zeal for souls. To this it might be answered that it was his zeal for souls that made him an enthusiastic scholar. It was so at first, beyond a doubt, but, as he went on, the habits and the instincts of the scholar seemed to dominate all others. If it was not actually so, there is some defect in the proportions and the emphasis of the narration that it does not otherwise appear. As it is here set forth, the work of Mr. Schauffler was pretty nearly coextensive with his translation of the Old Testament into Hebrew-Spanish, and of the Bible into Armeno-Turkish. Here, of course, was the laborious fashioning of tools. What was accomplished with them is not made clear; perhaps it could not be. That, after a time, the work among the Jews came to an absolute halt, is painfully suggestive as to the outcome of the major part of Mr. Schauffler's undertakings.

Mr. Schauffler was born in Stuttgart in 1798. His father was for some years Mayor of the German population of Odessa, and this circumstance had much to do with shaping his career and fixing the scene of his activity when he came to man's estate. Having decided to be a missionary, he came to this country and to Andover to pursue his theological studies. His sense of backwardness was a continual spur, and he soon distanced his companions, especially in his knowledge of the Hebrew and the Greek. At the conclusion of his Andover studies, he was ordained a missionary of the Jews in Turkey, and afterwards studied Arabic and Turkish with the best masters of those languages in Paris, one of them the celebrated Sylvestre de Sacy. His work as a missionary did not fairly begin till 1836, when he settled down at Odessa, and was more at home than he could be anywhere else in the East. Meantime he had been married, and his family was increasing in the old-fashioned way of clergymen. The account of his marriage is one of the most entertaining passages in the book. That a relation entered on so perfunctorily should have brought him so much happiness, is not a little strange. In order to be quite sure that his own will was not to be followed, after he had written the letter, he let it lie over one or two posts, the mails at that time being carried across Asia Minor (the lady was at Smyrna) by a mounted Tartar. "When the day for its departure came, I shut myself up for the day for fasting and prayer, and commended the subject to the Lord, praying that if the step I had taken was not in accordance with his will, the letter might drop out of the mail-bag by the way—which, considering Turkish management at that time, could have been done even without any particular providence. But the letter was conveyed safely to its destination."

There is considerable of personal incident and observation in the book that is interesting. During the prevalence of the plague, and at various other critical junctures, Mr. Schauffler proved himself a man of sterling stuff. His other-worldliness did not prevent his seeing much that was beautiful along his mundane path. To his personal ideals he was as faithful as a man could be, and from a character so earnest and sincere and so affectionate much good must have gone forth to all who came in contact with him, whatever result there was from his special missionary work. He was born with the voice of music in his soul, and his flute was not the least among the consolations of his social and domestic life. His serious and happy course was ended in New York on January 26, 1883.

My Autobiography and Reminiscences. By W. P. Frith, R.A. Harper & Bros. 1888.

Mr. Frith's autobiography is a collection of anecdotes about himself and other people. It is written in a rambling style, and suffers somewhat because the author has not been satisfied with telling stories at first hand, but has allowed himself to include others from hearsay, in consequence of which there is a plentiful sprinkling of antiquated jokes in his pages. His own life was uneventful, and is interesting as much by being an example of a painter's career as for any other reason. There is a good deal about the class of models, among whom, of course, there are many strange people, whose biographies or characteristics serve to fill an idle page, and there is as much more about the tribulations of "the hanging committee" and their victims, interspersed with sketches of peculiar "R.A.'s," usually in a comic vein. But Mr. Frith saw a number of distinguished persons in literature and art, and had an eye for the humors of men. His encounters with literary men were not always pleasing. Once he was taken to see Thackeray at the club; he was then young and timid, and modestly sat in the background, perhaps with a little awe of the burly genius who was keeping the party in good spirits. Suddenly, on finishing a song, Thackeray turned to him as the applause died away, and said: "Now, then, Frith, you d——d saturnine young Academician, sing us a song"; and Frith continues, "I was dumb before this address, and far too confounded to say anything in reply. Encouraged, perhaps, by my proving myself such an easy butt, the attack was renewed a little later in the evening. 'I'll tell you what it is, Frith, you had better go home; your aunt is sitting up for you with a big muffin.'" This "paralyzed" the youth again, and he soon went away. The anecdote does no credit to Thackeray, and publication of it is, we suppose, Frith's long-delayed repartee. He found Dickens very friendly and agreeable, but his account of him is flat.

The reminiscences of painters make the bulk of the book, and of many of these he has something interesting to say. Turner, Landseer, Mulready, Wilkie, and Millais are the most notable of the circle. He tells of Turner's ridicule of his own pictures, and even comparing them to a salad before him: "Nice cool green that lettuce, isn't it? and the beetroot pretty red—not quite strong enough; and the mixture, delicate tint of yellow that. Add some mustard and then you have one of my pictures." The Great Duke occasionally appears as a figure at exhibitions. Frith says he always looked at the paintings of Waterloo with interest, but not more than he showed in other subjects, and once he heard him remark on one by Allan, "'Too much smoke,' said the Duke." He tells some of Sothern's practical jokes, which were really cruel, and sometimes wantonly played on strangers in such a way that the consequences were entirely beyond prevision and likely to cause real trouble. There is one instance of his sending an unsigned love-note to a strange lady in a box, couched in such terms as to imply great impropriety in the past; he saw the lady's husband capture the note from her unwilling hands and the two leave the theatre in a manner that threatened a scene when they got home. Here is an equally unfeeling example. An old friend of Sothern's had recently lost his mother; Sothern dabbled in spiritualistic deception, and at a séance had the spirit of this man's mother announce herself and rap out that if her son would put his hand under the table, the hand of the dead would touch it. He did so; and Sothern, having dipped his naked toes in ice-water, touched his friend's hand with them, and "the victim turned pale, the tears started to his eyes, and he fell back sobbing in his chair." We are glad to learn that when the trick was afterwards discovered, the "old friend" cut Sothern's acquaintance. "Dundreary's" jokes are retold, but they are still worth telling. For a sharp thrust of real life there is nothing quite so good as the remark of the orange girl who was asked by Frith whether she was not annoyed by the soldiers and street-loafers in Albany Street: "'Yes, sometimes she was bothered, but it was by swells. Gentlemen,' she said, 'is much greater blackguards than what blackguards is.'"

Such is the general character of a book

which is entertaining if it is not read too steadily. Frith himself appears as a good-natured, well-satisfied, harmless fellow, who enjoyed his life, worked faithfully at his art, succeeded with the popular taste, and has come to his old age with many good things of the world in his possession. There are no "views" in the volume, but several workmen's rules about how pictures ought to be painted. He insists that everything should be drawn from some real object, and he approves of painting the forms before any draperies are put on them. As a whole, however, it is a book for gossips.

Natural Resources of the United States. By Jacob Harris Patton, M.A., Ph.D., author of a 'Brief History of the Presbyterian Church in the United States,' etc. D. Appleton & Co. 1888.

In compiling this work Mr. Patton had access to an enormous amount of material, and had he possessed the requisite scientific and technical knowledge of the various subjects treated to enable him to discriminate between what was entirely trustworthy and what was either evidently exaggerated or scientifically unsound; or if, in the absence of such qualifications, he had confined himself simply to the task of preparing a condensed statement, in popular form, of the facts contained in the annual reports of the United States Geological Survey on the Mineral Resources of the United States, he might have produced a work of permanent value. As it is, he has supplemented this material by extracts from the reports of the Governors of thirty-one States and Territories (ninety-four volumes were sent him on application), from State and railroad handbooks to encourage emigration, and from various other "authentic" sources. His work is mainly founded on the above-mentioned reports on mineral resources, and adopts their general system of subdivision, but leaves out all their tabulated data, except the general condensed table of production. This portion is probably trustworthy, because it is the business of the technical men who prepare these reports to separate the wheat from the chaff in the data which come into their hands. How much of the balance is good, bad, or indifferent seems to be more or less a matter of chance. In spite of the author's statement in the preface, that due credit is given to authorities consulted, but few names or titles of works are mentioned as authority for quotations, and those that are, however good their standing in the Church, are not always such as would be accepted as authorities by the sceptical scientist.

Such statements as that "iron is the only metal that can be welded," that "black sands in streams are limonite," that "no true coal is found west of Kansas," and that "the Rocky Mountain coal beds were first discovered at Cheyenne," evince the author's want of acquaintance with his subject, and his too great readiness to accept pleasing stories without verification. These are examples of actual divergence from fact. The selection of some (probably interested) person's statement that a certain alum deposit "covers an area of 1,600 acres, and may be termed a mountain . . . of almost chemically pure sulphate of alumina," rather than the far more conservative description of it as impure, given in 'Mineral Resources,' which corresponds with the analysis he himself gives; and the frequent mention of "practically inexhaustible" deposits of various materials—are, on the other hand, rather evidence of his abundant faith in the "immense resources with which the Creator has endowed this land" than of the critical and conservative spirit which should characterize a work of this kind.

It is a pity that such blemishes should appear in a work on so fruitful a subject, and one which, as regards form, type, and paper, is so admirably got up. It contains a great amount of useful information leavened with some mistakes; a few false statements, especially as regards scientific definitions; and various exaggerations.

Hegelianism and Personality. By Andrew Seth. Second Series of Balfour Lectures. Edinburgh and London: Blackwood. 12mo, pp. 230. 1887.

Small as this book is, it may be called memorable, for it rings the funeral knell of a school. The philosophical achievement which we of English-speaking lands have effected in this generation has been to outgrow the indigenous form of empiricism in which we were reared. Twenty-five years ago all of us whose education had any outlook and vitality were pupils of the Mills and Bain. Hamilton was the only native philosopher having authority enough to stand as their counterpoise, but his erudite scrappiness hardly led anywhere. Spencer and evolution were not yet triumphant. German philosophy was for the most part a sealed book. Ferrier of St. Andrews was too esoteric and quixotic to count. The "common-sense philosophy" taught us officially by the college presidents, even with Cousin's latest rhetorical touches, was uninspiredly fighting a retreat. We either became cordial and enthusiastic Millites, or gave unwilling submission because we saw no deliverer from the body of this death. Since then, what a change! Evolutionism sweeping in like an inundation; psychology born anew out of the physiological laboratories; logic transformed; continental philosophy grown familiar; one of those great periods of expansion which, chaotic as their immediate results may be, make everything that preceded them seem out of date. Bain and Mill have in a few short years come to appear altogether childlike, old-fashioned, and quaint.

Meanwhile, in the seething cauldron, where a Spencer boiled over in this place and a Lewes bubbled in that, where a Hodgson, a Jevons, a Sidgwick, a Martineau, and others rose and sank, and rose again, there was only one place where a real *school* of higher thought seemed forming, and that was where Green and Caird, with Kant and Hegel in their right hand, Ferrier and Stirling behind them, and Bradley, Watson, and a troop of younger ones at their side, were uttering, in English words of much impressiveness, what they conceived to be the essential discoveries of the Germans, and pointing out how meagre, abstract, insufficient, and irrational was the Associationism dear to the English mind. Few movements in philosophy have shown more rapid and vigorous life than this Anglo-Hegelianism of the last few years, already begun in America through the devotion of the editor of the *Journal of Speculative Philosophy*, but soon outstripped and outshone by the writers across the wave.

The critical work of the school has probably "come to stay." It will be hard after this for educated men to regard any abstract way of conceiving the world as the true way, so plain has it become that the only true world is the total world. It will be hard, too, for Associationism, with its denial of any real unity in consciousness, to make much more of a fight. But, as far as constructive work went, it was evident from the first that there was bound to be an uproar in the school-house; and, sure enough, the *débâcle* has come. Messrs. Bradley and Seth were the disciples from whom most was hoped. But Bradley's Logic dealt many a felon blow; and now, more cruel still, Professor Seth inflicts what are pretty sure to be mortal wounds, and overtly arrays himself against that saintly man, but strenuously feeble writer, Green, the leader of the school. This notice must be so short, and the points at issue are so esoteric, that the detail of them had better not be opened up at all. Suffice it that Professor Seth plants himself squarely on experiential and pluralistic ground, refuses to interpret as a universal consciousness that "ego" which (as analysis shows) is involved in the nature of knowledge, and, finally, insists rigorously on the chasm between Logic and Fact.

The independence shown in Mr. Seth's earlier writings has thus come to maturity; and now that he is back in what seems really the normal intellectual attitude of our race, and fully conscious that he is there, may one not hope for some positive and constructive work from his pen? More than any of our younger writers on philosophy, he has the classic quality. His learning, vigor, luminousness, ease, delight the reader on every page. Why, with all the spoils of the enemy's camp to enrich him, will he not now set forth empiricism in an adequate and modern way? Can it be that he, too, finds this sorry writing of books about other books, which is the bane of our generation, so much the easier task?

Musical Dictation. By Frédéric Louis Ritter, Mus. Doc. Novello, Ewer & Co.

The Standard Opera-Glass. By Charles Annesley. B. Westermann & Co.

The majority of music teachers no doubt pay too much attention to the conquering of merely mechanical difficulties of execution. They forget that the fingers can learn their tasks in half the time if they are guided by intelligence and taste. This error is beginning to be recognized, and such works as Lussy's on 'Expression,' and the late Mr. Christiani's 'Principles of Expression in Pianoforte Playing' (which every pianist should study), are paving the way for better pedagogic principles. Dr. F. L. Ritter, of Vassar College, has just issued a work which will help along this movement. In his 'Musical Dictation' he gives a series of rules and exercises that will teach students of music to write down pieces that they know by heart. Extensive experience convinced the author that "in order to strengthen the musical memory in the right direction, and teach students to *think* musically, they ought to possess the faculty of writing down correctly all that they are able to play or sing correctly by heart; in this way the musical sense becomes sharpened, the more delicate shades of time, rhythm, the cut of the melodic motive and its expansion into phrases and periods, will be impressed upon the mind more vividly and more distinctly." He also points out that these exercises will assist pupils in the art of listening; and that they are invaluable to those who are ambitious to compose is self-evident. Dr. Ritter's definitions are always clear, and his examples well chosen; and this little book, which forms one of the series of Novello's music primers, may be commended to all teachers, private and in public schools. It can also be used by two students dictating to each other in the absence of a teacher.

From Westermann & Co. we have received another little book containing the plots of the most popular operas of the day. This is the fourth, so far as we know, in the English language. It differs from the others in the

arrangement, which follows the operas alphabetically instead of the composers. While not equal to Upton's, it is better done and more complete than Boosey's and "Notelrac's." It also indicates the change in operatic taste by giving full accounts of Wagner's later operas, which are omitted in the two works last mentioned. The list includes eighty operas.

The Story of the Fifty-fifth Regiment, Illinois Volunteer Infantry, in the Civil War. By a Committee of the Regiment. 1887.

It is not uncommon to see, in the literary columns of our newspapers, cynical, if not sneering, allusions to the stream of military literature that has poured with increasing current upon the present generation. The captious paragraphist tells us that the public is tired of the "*Century* War Series," of military histories, of the memoirs of generals, and of the stories of campaigns and battles. But still the great stream somehow flows on, and the thirsty multitude drinks of it, and remains unsatisfied. Whether or not the public is growing tired of the contributions of leaders, it certainly still has a relish for trustworthy accounts of the doings and sufferings of those who, with muskets on their shoulders, bore "the heat and burden of the day." Of all such accounts few better have appeared than 'The Story of the Fifty-fifth Illinois Volunteers.' Three members, Captain Lucien B. Crocker, Captain Henry S. Nourse, and Sergeant-Major John E. Brown, shared in the composition of the book, each doing a separate part, the closing chapter being by Chaplain John L. Haney. Each contributor is entitled to the praise or blame which belongs to his part of the work. The job is well done, and all deserve praise, not blame. The truth, in just enough detail, is set forth with frankness, courage, and an evident purpose to be just. Alleged deficiencies and shortcomings of high officials are mentioned as parts of the story that had to be told, but there is no evidence of animosity or personality. Some question might be raised as to the soundness of the military criticism in the book, but fortunately there is very little of it. The only feature of the work to be seriously deprecated is a bitterness of feeling that some of the writers express towards their former foes. In this age of a reunited, prosperous, and happy people, of reunions between Federal and Confederate soldiers, of general harmony and good-will, it seems out of place to file, in a book of this sort, a dissent from the right of "rebels" to take part in the control of the Government, or the wisdom of the policy that long ago permitted them to do so.

This straightforward account, bearing upon its face the stamp of truth and accuracy, of what men in regiments actually saw and did, affords a pleasing contrast to the overdrawn pictures and exaggerated stories that characterize Frank Wilkeson's book called 'Recollections of a Private Soldier.' Illinois has a right to feel proud of her Fifty-fifth Regiment of Infantry, and that regiment may congratulate itself upon the work of its historians.

Uncle Sam at Home. By Harold Brydges. Henry Holt & Co. 1888.

This little book is worth putting in the pocket if one is starting on a railroad journey, but its merits are chiefly negative. The author has evidently studied our newspapers and talked with all sorts and conditions of men. He has travelled through the country by rail and has kept his eyes and ears open; but his intellectual equipment is not extensive enough to enable him to generalize from his observations. His judgments, therefore, do not rise above the level of ordinary newspaper correspondence, and remind one of the conversation of a rather superior commercial traveller. But, although superficial, he is entertaining. His style is fresh and clear, he has collected many striking facts, and his quotations and anecdotes are cleverly presented. There is not a trace of British prejudice in the book, and both praise and blame are distributed with much friendliness and good sense. The author has achieved a mastery of current American "humor," and it is impossible not to be amused by his selections from the exploits of our orators and story-tellers.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Carhart, Prof. D. Treatise on Plane Surveying. Boston: Ginn & Co. $2.
Forbes, A. William of Germany. Cassell & Co. $1.50.
Forde, Gertrude. Only a Coral Girl. Harper & Bros. 30 cents.
Franzos, K. E. For the Right. Harper & Bros.
Hart, G. E. The Fall of New France. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $3.
Hutton, Rev. W. H. Simon de Montfort and his Cause (1251–1266). G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Hyde, Mary F. Practical Lessons in the Use of English. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 40 cents.
Jacobs—Brower. Handbook to accompany the Graphic System of Object Drawing. A. Lovell & Co.
Kinglake, A. W. The Invasion of the Crimea. Vol. VI. Harper & Bros.
Maupassant, Guy de. Pierre et Jean. Paris: Ollendorff; Boston: Schoenhof.
Michelet, Jules. Mon Journal (1820–1823). Paris: Marpon & Flammarion; Boston: Schoenhof.
Milligan, Rev. W. Elijah: His Life and his Times. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $1.
Morley, Prof. H. English Writers. II. From Cædmon to the Conquest. Cassell & Co. $1.50.
Munroe, K. Derrick Sterling: a Story of the Mines. Harper & Bros.
National Perils and Opportunities: Discussions of the General Christian Conference at Washington, Dec. 7–9, 1887. Baker & Taylor Co. $1.50.
Palmer, Mary T. The Doctor of Deane. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.25.
Prestwitch, Prof. J. Geology: Chemical, Physical, and Stratigraphical. Vol. II. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Ricard, Mgr. L'Abbé Maury (1746–1791). Paris: Plon & Nourrit: Boston: Schoenhof.
Rothe, R. Still Hours. Funk & Wagnalls. $2.
Stapfer, Paul. Shakespeare et les Tragiques grecs. 18mo. Paris: Lecène & Oudin; Boston: Schoenhof.
Stockwell, C. T. The Evolution of Immortality. Chicago: Chas. H. Kerr & Co. $1.
Swedenborg, E. The Soul; or, Rational Psychology. New Church Board of Publication.
Sweet Pansies. E. P. Dutton & Co. 50 cents.
Talbot, C. R. A Midshipman at Large. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.50.
The Message of the Dove. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.
Thom, Prof. W. T. Shakspere and Chaucer Examinations. Boston: Ginn & Co. 2d ed. $1.10.
Thwaites, R. G. Historic Waterways. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.
Todd, C. B. The Story of the City of New York. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.75.
Tolstoi, Count L. N. The Two Pilgrims; or, Love and Good Deeds. T. Y. Crowell & Co.
Tourgée, A. W. Black Ice. Fords, Howard & Hulbert. $1.25
Tuttle, Prof. H. History of Prussia under Frederick the Great. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $4.50.
Valdés, A. P. Maximina: A Novel. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.50.
Vincent, J. H. Better Not: a Discussion of Certain Social Customs. Funk & Wagnalls. 50 cents.
Walker, E. D. Reincarnation. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Waters, C. A. Explanatory Digest of Prof. Fawcett's Manual of Political Economy. Macmillan & Co. 70 cents.
Watson, W. Life in the Confederate Army. Scribner & Welford.
Westbrook, R. B. Girard's Will, and Girard College Theology. Philadelphia: The Author, 1707 Oxford Street.

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NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 29, 1888.

The Week.

THE death of Chief-Justice Waite was so sudden and unexpected that most people were probably surprised to learn that he was a man well along in his seventy-second year, who had earned the right to retire on a pension a year ago last November. He had but recently completed his fourteenth year of service, having been appointed in January, 1874. Judge Waite was Grant's fourth choice for the Chief Justiceship, and his nomination was received by the country with a profound sigh of relief after the remarkable selections which the President had previously made. The place was first offered to Mr. Conkling, who had never shown any qualification for it, but happily declined, as "Senatorial courtesy" would doubtless have secured his confirmation Grant next hit upon George H. Williams, then his Attorney-General, who was not only without proper legal qualifications, but was positively disqualified for other reasons. When it became evident that Williams could not be confirmed, Grant gave the country a fresh surprise by sending in the name of Caleb Cushing, who was already four years past seventy, and who, in his long career, had become better known for craft and shrewdness than respected for integrity. Cushing was quickly done for by the production of a letter which he had written in 1861 to "my dear friend" Jefferson Davis, recommending another friend of his, a renegade civil servant, to the President of the Confederacy. While everybody was wondering what surprise Grant would next perpetrate, came the nomination of Morrison R. Waite, a man only slightly known to the general public, but of excellent repute and record as a lawyer and as counsel for the United States before the Geneva tribunal. The appointment was hailed rather as a happy escape than as a conspicuously fit one, but the Chief Justice has grown steadily in public estimation, and he leaves an eminently respectable name.

The death of the Chief Justice, following within a few months that of Justice Woods, foreshadows an early reconstruction of the Supreme bench politically, so far as a majority of its members are concerned. Of Lincoln's five appointees to this bench only Miller and Field survive, and they were both born earlier in the same year with Waite. Of Grant's four appointees, Hunt and Waite are dead, Strong retired, and Bradley was seventy-five years old last week. Blatchford, Arthur's appointee, was sixty-eight a few days ago. Fortunately, these changes in the Supreme Court did not begin until the old issue which formerly divided parties had been settled. The "State rights" question was formally and finally disposed of by the Supreme Court while all its members were the appointees of Republican Presidents; "the necessity of the autonomy of the States and their power to regulate their domestic affairs," to use the language of Justice Miller, having been reestablished, after the unsettling period of war and reconstruction, before a Democratic President had a chance to make a single appointment. The great distinction of the late Chief Justice will be the fact that he threw the weight of his influence on the right side when the highest judicial tribunal was annulling unconstitutional laws passed by a Congress of his own party, and that he did not shrink from joining in a decision on the Virginia debt question a few weeks ago, which was "regarded by all classes in Richmond as a fixed and final triumph of State sovereignty." There was a time when the fear of a "State rights" bench appointed by a Democratic President would have caused widespread apprehension, but the course of events has been such that the wildest partisan organs will now find it difficult to arouse alarm over the prospect that Mr. Cleveland is to appoint a Chief Justice.

Mr. James Russell Lowell will deliver another address in this city April 13, on the invitation of the Reform Club. It will probably be full of politics, and will cause renewed agitation among the Blaineites. It is almost impossible to avoid making them howl in any political speech not delivered on behalf of Blaine, because they resent as insulting to their fetish all praise of any other public man, living or dead. If one who is known not to admire Blaine speaks well of Washington's integrity, for instance, they suspect him of alluding to Blaine's crookedness. If he eulogizes Macaulay as an historian, they think he means to depreciate 'Twenty Years of Congress.' If he speaks highly of Hamilton Fish's diplomacy, they conclude he means to deride Blaine's "Pan-American" conference. But the climax of annoyance is reached if he calls the President upright or disinterested, because this is always received in Blaine circles as a veiled allusion to the Little Rock and Fort Smith bonds and the Mulligan letters. As it would be hard for Mr. Lowell to make a speech without praising somebody, we may therefore look for "lively times" among the "aut Blaine aut nullus" people.

The London correspondent of the *Tribune* telegraphs that "nothing affords Mr. Blaine so much amusement as the Democratic and Mugwump comments on his refusal to allow his name to be presented to the National Convention, etc." But the same correspondent telegraphed December 6, 1887, that Mr. Blaine "laughed—he is always laughing." It would seem, therefore, that either Mr. Blaine is afflicted with cachinnatory hysteria, or he is so easily amused that there is nothing wonderful in the amusement he gets out of the Mugwumps and Democrats. The truth is, however, that the discussions over all his sayings—his refusals and assertions and denials—are very amusing, and amuse even the gloomiest men of all parties. The difficulty his followers have in interpreting his utterances, the general unwillingness to accept any of them as final, the "further explanations" that follow them, and the various modes in which exposures of his ignorance or untruthfulness are met, have been making people laugh now for ten years. The hardest blow his admirers have received is the announcement that he sees the fun of it all himself.

There could hardly be a better sign of the times than the debate on the tariff in Boston on Saturday between Mr. E. P. Wheeler of this city and Mr. Butterworth, the member of Congress from Ohio, the former representing the Massachusetts Tariff Reform League, and the latter the Home Market Club. The Tremont Temple was crowded with people eager to listen to the controversy, and their plaudits and interruptions showed their keen interest in the subject. Mr. Butterworth was naturally embarrassed by his advocacy of free trade with Canada, which, of course, is not to be justified by the standard tariff arguments, but he made as good a fight as can be made on the anti-British line of defence. If the association of bad, wicked England with a low tariff had been taken out of his argument, there would have been but little left. Mr. Wheeler, on the other hand, was undoubtedly much aided by the effect of the Trusts on the popular mind. Arrangements for keeping up prices are, in other words, discredited just now as they never have been before; and consequently any one who says a good word for the poor consumer receives a more attentive hearing than he has done for many a day. But no matter who gets the best of it, the fact that the subject is at last being debated before popular audiences is a great thing for the country, and full of promise for the future.

The Louisville *Courier-Journal*, by its Washington correspondent, foots up 142 Democratic votes for the Mills Tariff Bill, together with 5 Republicans and 4 Independents—total, 153. In a full house 163 votes will be required to pass it. These must be obtained from the Randall Democrats—19 in number. What is meant by passing the Mills bill is not stated by the writer. If he means that the Mills bill as it stands, with all its items unchanged, will receive 153 votes, we take leave to doubt the statement very seriously. But if he does not mean this, he means that some bill, after running the gauntlet first of the Committee of the Whole and then of the House, will pass, which is a very different thing. We do not believe that the bill as reported, or as it may be reported, will come anywhere near passing—not because it is not a good bill, or as good as all the circumstances, political and other, will allow, but

because every local interest touched by it will make a desperate effort to change the particular item which concerns itself, and will, in many cases, succeed in doing so. The necessity of reducing the revenue, however, makes a vast difference between present circumstances and those of 1883. This necessity is imperative and overwhelming. Consequently the Mills bill may, and probably will, pass, but it will be a very different thing from the present bill. Its value consists more in the shaping of future political issues than in the particular items contained in it. Even if the final shape of it should be the taking of the whole revenue reduction off sugar and tobacco, we should consider it a measure of great value and importance, since it would not only relieve the strained financial situation, but would present to the country a new set of ideas to work out and vote upon, swamping the Southern question and all the faded and fading issues of the past quarter of a century.

Among the numerous Trusts springing up in every direction, the Halibut Trust is entitled to some consideration. This is a fish trust, and is closely connected with the fishery dispute that has been the cause of so much international disquietude. The Boston *Herald* recognizes, in the names of the persons prominent in the Halibut Trust, several that have been prominent in protesting against the "surrender of our rights" in the pending treaty, and who are urgent in favor of immediate "retaliation." In case retaliation is put in force so that Canadian fish are wholly prohibited, the *Herald* expects that a Cod Trust and a Mackerel Trust will be formed immediately. Why not? Is there anything more absurd intrinsically in a Smoked Herring Trust or a Sardine Trust than in a Sugar Trust or a Lead Trust? Certainly not. Let us have all the Trusts we can—subordinate, of course, to the great Tariff Trust. They are all for the advantage of the laboring man, because the more money the Trust is enabled to levy on the community, the higher wages it is enabled to pay. But when we come to consider the pending Fishery Treaty, it is consoling to know that there is a Halibut Trust opposing it with might and main.

The Chicago *Tribune* gives a very instructive account of the headquarters of the managers of the engineers' strike in Chicago. They have rooms which would be the best in the hotel if they did not front on a courtyard. They are very large and luxuriously furnished, and Chief Arthur's bedroom adjoining is one of those expensive ones which have bath-rooms attached. They cost $20 a day, or $500 for twenty-five days. Men who are directing a strike have to be comfortable, and make a good show to the monopolists when they call on them. Besides these, the Brotherhood is paying for other rooms at the European National Hotel, where the C., B. and Q. Grievance Committees sit. The bills here are also very heavy, and the telegraph bill is said to be huge. The result of all this is that about 1,000 men are thrown out of work for an indefinite period, and must live for some time to come on the funds of the Brotherhood. In other words, the strike has proved a total failure, and, besides the loss to the men, has inflicted great loss on the railroad and on the community. In resisting it, the C., B. and Q. was simply asserting the right to manage its property in its own way, opposing the doctrine of compulsory hiring, which asserts the right of laborers to stay in other people's service against the employer's will, on their own terms. It is for the enforcement of this doctrine that Powderly concocted the maxim that "the injury of one is the concern of all," and initiated the practice of sympathetic strikes. The answer to it all is that mankind could not, in the existing condition of human nature, extract even a bare living from Mother Earth under any such arrangement. Mother Earth has fixed matters in such a way that the human race at present can only make itself comfortable through the plan of having every man mind his own business, and rigidly refrain from unloading on his neighbor, or meddling in his neighbor's affairs without the neighbor's consent.

Gov. Larrabee of Iowa was very neatly caught by President Perkins of the Chicago, Burlington and Quincy Railroad in the correspondence which was printed last week. By way of harassing the road in the interest of the strikers, the Governor wrote that "frequent complaints had of late been made to him concerning the interruption of freight and passenger transportation caused by the strike of the engineers, as well as the danger arising from the employment of incompetent substitutes for such employees." This Mr. Perkins took quite seriously, and said: "I will esteem it a favor if you will kindly have transmitted to me a statement of all complaints which have been or may hereafter be brought to your attention, in order that we may endeavor to render satisfaction in each case." He also offered "to make payment in full" by way of damages where liable. We need hardly say the brave Larrabee was not prepared for this. So he made answer:

> "In compliance with your request, I shall take pleasure in forwarding to you any claim for damages that may in the future be brought to my attention. While the inconvenience caused to the public by the present strike has been the subject of much complaint, my intercedence to recover damages has thus far not been requested."

In other words, either he had evolved the "frequent complaints" out of his gubernatorial imagination, or they came from the strikers themselves.

The sympathetic strike of the switchmen on the Chicago, Burlington and Quincy Railroad of course must end as the strike of the engineers has done, in the employment of other men to fill their places, with more loss to the road, heavy loss and suffering to the men and their families, and considerable delay and interruption to business. The general result will be, that at the end of the year both labor and capital will be worse off in consequence of these strikes than they would have been, though their relations to each other will not be changed. People who expect some great revolution in the organization of modern society in consequence of these labor troubles, would do well to take note of these facts. Labor troubles, in the existing condition of intelligence and character, cannot possibly produce a social revolution of any kind. They can cause disturbance, delay, and diminution of profits, and increase the timidity of capital, but they cannot introduce any new order of things. All the great social changes have been the results either of increased mental and moral culture on the part of the masses, or the increased ascendency on the part of the cultivated few. Discontented ignorance has done nothing for the world thus far, and never can. The only solution of the labor question thus far offered by Labor in this country is that great enterprises should be controlled by their employees under the despotism of a small knot of outside professional agitators, and that the lazy and incompetent man should be paid as much as the diligent and capable. Of course these are not wonder-working suggestions. In fact, sensible men do not consider them at all, and civilized society in the long run is carried on by sensible men.

Another important decision bearing upon the question of prohibition has just been rendered by the Supreme Court. The State of Iowa, by a law passed in April, 1886, attempted to prevent any railroad company from bringing liquor into the State unless the company had been furnished with a certificate from the County Auditor of the county to which the liquor was to be transported, showing that the consignee was legally authorized to sell it. This was equivalent to denying any citizen of Iowa the right to order and have brought to him, even for his own sole use, any liquor by any railroad company from outside the State. The court declares this law invalid, holding that the power to regulate or forbid the sale of a commodity after it has been brought into a State does not carry with it the right and power to prevent its introduction by transportation from another State, and that such legislation would be an unauthorized interference with inter-State commerce. The *Iowa State Register* pronounces this "a pretty serious blow to the cause of prohibition in Iowa, as it will inevitably lead to a large traffic in liquor in the State from other States."

The stringent working of the new High-License Law in Pennsylvania is calling forth loud complaints from the brewers. They cannot take out licenses for as many saloons as they please, as they have done heretofore. In fact, they can take out none at all. As about half the saloons in the city have been closed already, there is a great falling off in the sale of beer, and it is said that nearly all the smaller breweries will be forced to shut down. The larger brewers say that they shall have to reduce

the number of their employees from a half to two-thirds, and declare that in all probability 9,000 of the 12,000 hands at present employed will be discharged. A manufacturer of brewers' wagons says, that, since the law went into effect, orders which he had for twenty new wagons have been countermanded. A dealer in horses for brewers says that his business has also been greatly injured. Just how much exaggeration there is in these complaints cannot be ascertained, but there is evidently a good deal. Still, there is no doubt that the law is restricting the liquor traffic seriously, and as a consequence all branches of it are affected more or less. This is a most encouraging development, for heretofore in Philadelphia, as in New York, the law has not operated as a check, but has been rather an aid to the great brewers in their eagerness to increase to the utmost the facilities for the sale of their product.

It is very natural that the Presbyterians North and South should be anxious to italicize this their centennial year by an organic reunion of the two great sectional divisions of their Church. Indeed, the sentimental considerations in favor of union now appear to be more powerful than the sentimental considerations which tend to keep up the separation. The hitch will come in matters of practical detail, if at all, and, among these, the hardest to handle is the status of the colored people under the new arrangement. From the published correspondence of the committees on reunion, it would seem that the Northern committee is disposed to accede to the Southern demand, and to set off the colored Presbyterians in separate presbyteries, even when conterminous with white presbyteries. This would be a recognition of the color line highly distasteful to many of the Presbyterians of the North, and in the teeth of the professions of the Northern Presbyterian Church. That it would be an abandonment of the practice of the Northern Church, however, as is asserted in some religious papers, is not so clear. Of course there are occasional colored members of Presbyterian churches in the North, who are tolerated and even made at home among their white brethren, though usually, we believe, in the guise of interesting objects of charity among the church's poor. But, so far as we know, there is no colored Presbyterian church in the North affiliating on equal terms with white churches of the same denomination, or even a church in which the colored membership rises above the most insignificant fraction.

If this were all the difficulty before the Southern Church, it would be no difficulty at all. The trouble arises in view of the larger masses of colored people at the South, and the question is how to deal with the two or three colored presbyteries of Florida, Georgia, and the Carolinas, composed wholly of colored members, and established as the result of missionary effort conducted by the Northern Church among the freedmen. They have been in as complete isolation from the Northern Church as from the Southern, with the exception of being entitled to representatives in the General Assembly, and that privilege is to be accorded them under the suggested arrangement. So that, practically, the proposal involves no change at all for the Northern Church, and the committee from that branch of the denomination seem to think it unfair to force a social difficulty upon their Southern brethren which, they doubtless feel, their own Church would shrink from meeting were the question one of practice and not sentiment. It certainly ought to be remembered, in connection with these pending negotiations, that in some cases—for example, in home missionary work in Texas—the Northern Church has already drawn the color line as sharply as the Southern; even a "Northern" Presbyterian church there having to be, as a minister of one such remarked, "either one thing or the other, white or colored, no mixing allowed."

The State Treasurer of Kentucky, one Tate, has defaulted and absconded. The assets he has left behind are very curious and a little "racy of the soil." One item is $75,000 in due bills from friends to whom he had lent the State money. Another, and the best, is 600 barrels of fine old whiskey, estimated at $50,000. That a man harassed, as he must have been, with pecuniary cares, should lay up so much whiskey, shows what a place this product holds in the Kentucky mind. It evidently stands where diamonds stand in other countries, as the thing to put money into for a rainy day. There used to be an old story of the Kentucky gentleman's travelling outfit consisting of two bottles of whiskey and a clean shirt to wrap them in to keep them from breaking; but that belonged to the day of small things, before the telegraph and telephone and electric light. Whiskey is now "carried" in broker's offices and public stores, instead of in gripsacks.

A mere glance at the work cut out for the Woman's International Council in Washington ought to be enough to send James Anthony Froude's heart down into his boots, and to convince him that no amount of talk from him will induce the talkers to stop talking, or even cut down their talk. "Papers" are to be read on fifty-one topics, if we have counted rightly, and discussion is to follow each paper. Besides this there is to be a sermon, a "Conference of Pioneers," and a symposium, and a farewell address, a song from "Lohengrin," and a solo on the violin. A full stenographic report of the proceedings is to be printed day by day. All this is to be the work of one short week. It will be a bad week for the Senators and Representatives who have not as yet made up their minds on the leading questions of female politics. The scarcer they make themselves, the better it will be for their peace. Most of the topics on which the talking is to be, are of a practical character, so that it is possible to communicate information as well as "views," and we, therefore, are satisfied, Mr. Froude to the contrary notwithstanding, that the talk, voluminous though it be, will do good, help to correct mistakes, and make some dark things clear.

We have, what is very rare, two *causes célèbres* pending in this city at present—both will cases, and both very odd in their way. One is nominally an attack by her blood relatives on the will of the late Mrs. Stewart, which gave ex-Judge Hilton half the residue of her estate, and, curiously enough, was drawn by himself, but it is really an inquiry into the way in which nearly the whole of A. T. Stewart's vast fortune was transferred to the same person, although only $1,000,000 was bequeathed to him in the will. The case will probably grow in interest as the trial proceeds. Ex-Judge Hilton's own examination or cross-examination by Mr. Choate will probably be one of the most interesting forensic spectacles of our time. The contest over Mr. Tilden's will concerns the claim of the city to about $4,500,000 for a public library, one of the most splendid gifts ever made for such a purpose. There could hardly be a better illustration of Mayor Hewitt's account of the composition of the city population than the small amount of interest taken by the public in this magnificent contribution to its higher welfare. Few seem to know, fewer still to care, much about the matter. If the will should be set aside and the money for the library lost, we doubt if there would be a word of lamentation, except something formal in the newspapers.

The Ministry have been making very distinct gains in England during the last two or three weeks in the sense of making the dissentient Liberals more contented with their lot, and readier to remain in the Tory camp. The Local Government Bill is as democratic in all its features as any that Mr. Gladstone would have introduced, and Mr. Goschen's budget is probably the best that any Chancellor of the Exchequer except Mr. Gladstone has produced in these later years. He is, after Gladstone, probably the most competent man in English public life to make a clear financial statement. In the present case, too, he has the immense advantage of coming to Parliament with a surplus, and being able through his conversion scheme to promise a reduction of taxation. His conversion of the public debt when fully carried out will reduce the annual charge by over $10,000,000, which to Englishmen, whose surplus rarely exceeds that amount even in good years, is a considerable gain. The applause with which his proposed imposition of a tax of $25 on race horses was greeted was due partly to the disgust excited by recent "turf scandals," partly to the belief that if anything be a luxury it is a race horse, and partly to the feeling even of sporting men that there are far too many "meetings" and too many horses in the field either for the good of the breed or the good of sport.

THE CHIEF JUSTICESHIP.

To a man of legal training and judicial temper, interested in the study of principles and the development of institutions, ambitious to participate in the government of his country and to leave an enduring mark upon its history, the Chief Justiceship of the United States Supreme Court is the most attractive position in the nation. The tenure of office is for life, unless the incumbent chooses to retire upon a pension equal to his salary after reaching the age of seventy, and he is thus freed from all anxiety as to his old age. He is never troubled, as Senators so often are, by the fear that a political revolution or the temporary loss of public favor may end his career with the current term, and he escapes that terrible but inevitable revulsion which overtakes the man who has been President when he retires from the White House into obscurity. If he is appointed in middle life, he has before him the precedents of men who held the office for periods of twenty-eight and thirty-four years, and may anticipate seeing several generations of Congressmen and several executive administrations come and go while he keeps on his way.

The first Chief Justice clearly perceived the preëminence of the position. When the Government was organized, Washington offered Jay the choice of all the offices at his command, and he selected the headship of the Supreme Court. As he resigned after six years, because he believed it his duty to the people of New York to accept the Governorship, Jay's incumbency was too brief for him to realize his ideal, but Marshall, who served from 1801 to 1835, demonstrated the great possibilities of the place. For a third of a century Marshall was, as the Chief Justice should be, the dominant personality in the Court, and Taney, who succeeded him and served nearly as long, came to wield in his turn the paramount influence in the tribunal. Ill health and the Presidential fever combined made Chase's comparatively brief service hardly worthy of his earlier fame, and Waite never quite measured up to the full requirements of the office, highly respectable though his record was. The varying experience of the nation with Chief Justices has only served to emphasize the great importance of the office which a man of Jay's power deemed the most desirable, and there will be no lack of candidates for the existing vacancy.

It is a remarkable fact that, although the Chief Justiceship is the highest judicial office in the land, its incumbents since the beginning of this century have been men who had previously held no judicial position. Waite had not even had a case before the tribunal when he entered it, and his only legal service outside the ordinary practice of his profession had been as counsel of the United States at Geneva. Chase had been Governor of Ohio, Senator, and Secretary of the Treasury, but never a judge. Taney had been a member of the Maryland Legislature, Attorney-General of his State, and Attorney-General of the United States, but never a judge. Marshall had been member of the Virginia Legislature, Representative in Congress, and Secretary of State, but never a judge. It will thus be seen that it is as true of those who made the greatest careers in this office as of their less conspicuous successor just deceased, that they became the chief judge of the country without having held a subordinate judgeship.

It is also true that there have been great associate justices who went upon the highest bench, like their chiefs, without previous service upon any bench. Take two cases, one in our earlier and the other in our later history. Story, who sat for nearly a quarter of a century with such distinction beside Marshall, had been a member of the Massachusetts Legislature and a member of Congress, but never a judge, and, indeed, had practised law only ten years when appointed. Miller, whom Lincoln appointed in 1862, was educated a physician and practised medicine for eight years. He did not even begin the study of law until he was thirty, and he had held no judicial office, nor indeed any office of any sort, when elevated to the highest bench sixteen years later. Miller's case is perhaps the more striking of the two. Both were worthy of the Chief Justiceship, but Story was somewhat overshadowed by the greater Marshall, whereas for years Miller has been the dominant figure of the court. Nobody can examine the series of decisions rendered since the war, which have brought the Government back to its ancient moorings, without perceiving that Miller's has been the controlling mind, or without feeling that he ought properly to have been also the titular head of the court.

It would, of course, be absurd to argue that vacancies on the Supreme bench should only be filled from among men who had served on no lower bench, but it is obvious, in the light of such history, that the field of choice should not be restricted to men who are or have been judges. Other things being equal, such service would be an advantage; but if the President finds a man whom he considers conspicuously fit for the tribunal devoid of such experience, he should not consider it a drawback. The country doctors of Kentucky who had known Miller when he was an M.D., doubtless thought it odd when they heard not many years later that he had been made a judge of the highest court; but experience showed that Lincoln knew his man. With Republican administrations at Washington from 1861 to 1885, and Republicans controlling most of the States during the same period, Democratic lawyers have stood but a poor chance of holding judgeships, but Mr. Cleveland need not feel restricted to the comparatively short roll of such judges. If he can find the man who will prove a second Story or Miller, it will be no objection that he has never been a judge before.

One qualification should be insisted upon in any case. The appointee should be a man of vigorous physical constitution and in the prime of life. It is every way desirable that changes in the Chief Justiceship should be as rare as possible. Two men filled the position from 1801 to 1864, whereas the latest two incumbents served only from 1864 to 1888, or considerably less than half as long. Taney's case was exceptional, as he was 59 years old when appointed, and yet sat for 28 years, but Marshall's record of 34 years was due to his appointment in his 46th year. Forty-six was the age of Miller, who has already served nearly 26 years, and appears good for a number of years yet, and Field, who joined Miller in 1863, was born in the same year with him. Wayne, who sat 32 years, was 45 when appointed; and McLean, who also sat 32 years, was 44 when he received his commission. Of late the tendency has been towards appointing older men, Lamar, Blatchford, Hunt, and Strong having been 62, Waite and Bradley 57, and Chase and Matthews almost 57; but it is not a tendency to be encouraged, in view of the fact that Chase and Hunt broke down before they had served ten years, and Strong retired on a pension after ten years' service. By the time he has reached forty-five or fifty a man has had a chance to prove his quality, and if he goes on the bench then, experience shows that he will stand an excellent chance of doing good service for twenty-five or thirty years. The Chief Justice named by Mr. Cleveland in 1888 ought to be a man who, barring accidents, may be expected to keep at work until 1915 or even 1920.

THE SENATE AND INTERNATIONAL COPYRIGHT.

EARLY in the present Congress (December 12, 1887) Senator Chace presented his proposed amendment of the Revised Statutes, which extends, under certain conditions, the protection of the domestic copyright law to the productions of foreign authors and artists. The bill was referred to the Senate Committee on Patents, and there became the personal charge of the Senator from Rhode Island, who has been untiring in his efforts to put the project upon such a footing as should secure for it an affirmative vote in the Senate. To this end the chief concern has been to adopt such a text for the International Copyright Bill as would secure the support of all persons whose interests should be in any way affected by it. The success which has attended the repeated conferences between the representatives of the typographical unions, the publishers, the authors, and Senator Chace, was demonstrated at the hearing held in the room of the Senate Committee on Patents on Friday, March 9, where representatives of all classes concerned in the production of books were unanimous in advocating the passage of a bill with a final compromise text (the result of the various consultations), approved by the Senator having charge of it.

But five members of the Senate Committee on Patents took any part in this hearing, and of these no more than four were present at any one time, while for the greater part of the session only three members were in their seats, and but two remained during the entire conference. With the exception of the intelligent interest exhibited by the Senator whose bill was under discussion, there was the same expression of apathy so noticeable two years ago, when this subject was under consideration before the same Committee. It was bluntly intimated that

there was no desire to hear anything concerning the abstract right of an author to his literary property, or any arguments as to the equity of granting him proper legal security for the same; and even Mr. E. C. Stedman's remarks urging the need of "protective" legislation for the authors of America, in order that they might have a reasonable chance to live by their mental labor, and that our native literature should have a fair opportunity to develop, fell upon inattentive ears. It was only after the representatives of the sixty thousand or more typesetters, pressmen, stereotypers, etc., members of the various typographical unions, had made known their adhesion to the bill, that any expression of interest took place. But Mr. G. H. Putnam's clear and cogent statement of the present status of authorship and publication in the United States, and the result it was reasonable to expect from the passage of an international copyright bill, did produce a marked impression upon the members of the Committee present.

While slight interest was manifested in regard to the possibility that the passage of the proposed law would tend to elevate the national taste in literature, the reiterated question was, "Will the passage of an international copyright bill make books dear?" It is to be understood, of course, that this question was asked with the mental reservation: "after proper *protection* has been accorded our publishers, printers, and binders." To pay honestly the foreign author a modest price for his property, which we have appropriated for our own benefit, and at the same time remove the uncivilized restriction put upon the spread of knowledge, and cheapen literature by abolishing the iniquitous tariff upon books, was a proposition which it did not seem possible for the Committee to entertain. The real question in the minds of the Committee, apparently, was the possibility of affording sufficient protection to our book industries, and, in addition, securing to the foreign author his moderate percentage, without placing upon American readers a burden heavy enough to tempt the latter to revolt against our pet system; and the only alternative was to allow the continuance of the present method of literary piracy, aided and abetted by our tariff laws. For the important consideration was the preservation of "the protection principle of the country."

The bill was reported by Senator Chace Monday, March 19, and assigned a place on the calendar, and it seems fairly probable that it will succeed in passing the Senate. In that event no accusation can be brought against that body of any infringement of the above-named principle, because the bill provides for its extension to every class concerned in the production of books, even American authors for the first time coming in for a share of the benefits. The latter constitute almost the only class of producers in the United States who have not had the benefit of tariff protection; and not only that, but the American author has been obliged to bring his production—the manuscript of a book—into the market in direct competition with the printed copy of a book which the publisher has obtained without the necessary expenditure of a single penny of cost, simply because of the absence of honest legislation to prevent the reprehensible seizure of the foreign author's work.

Nor is this the only advantage which the American reprinter has enjoyed at the expense of the author. An equitable application of the so-called protection principle would suggest that the duty of 25 per cent. levied upon imported books for the benefit of American bookmanufacturers, should have been confined to books written by foreign authors. This would allow the native author to take advantage of the privilege accorded to him by the domestic copyright law, of having his manuscript put into a book wherever he could have the book manufactured at the lowest cost. In that case he would have 25 per cent. the advantage of his foreign author competitor, which is precisely the amount of advantage secured to the American publisher as against the foreign publisher by the present tariff duty. And the author's honest gain over the American reprinter in the cheaper material production of his book would go to offset the latter's dishonest advantage obtained by the piratical appropriation of the foreign author's manuscript or printed copy, and would allow the former to furnish his book to American readers at a very material reduction in price, and yet with an increase of profit to himself.

But the mite of "protection" which is to be secured to the American author by the proposed law is simply this: that when he takes his completed manuscript to a publisher to be printed, he will do so assured that the publisher must offer him payment for it with the knowledge that he can no longer obtain a similar production by a foreign author for nothing, but must pay something, at least, to the foreign writer for his work if he prefer it. And this protection is to be obtained by obliging the American reprinter so to pay the foreign owner—like any other *honest* dealer—for his raw material, and is, therefore, a very different thing from the protection now secured to the reprinter by extracting a heavy toll from the foreign publisher who attempts to invade this market. But to obtain even such protection as this, the American author is asked to aid in robbing himself of the privilege referred to above, viz., his right to print his manuscript wherever he pleases, by advocating a measure which obliges him to manufacture his book wholly in the United States in order to secure any copyright at all.

ANOTHER WARNING FROM CONNECTICUT.

Two years ago we presented the experience of Connecticut with the Western Reserve Fund as an argument against the scheme of Federal aid to Southern schools. When the State sold her lands in Ohio, the proceeds were devoted to a school fund, and as the fund proved very productive, the income during the early part of this century ranged from $70,000 to $100,000 a year. This was a large sum of money for a small State in those days, and it was expected that it would serve to elevate the standard of public education materially above the level previously reached, when the people had supported their schools entirely by taxation.

But the fund proved to be a curse instead of a blessing. Mr. Charles D. Hine, Secretary of the Board of Education, summarized the effects in a letter to the *Evening Post* published February 6, 1886, which attracted wide attention. "The history of our State," he said, "shows conclusively that at the time when the fund was most productive, yielding $1.40 or $1.50 for each person of the school age, and when towns depended upon it, as they generally did, for the support of their schools, the schools themselves were poor and short. In fact, this was the darkest period of our educational history. A very striking deterioration took place as soon as the fund became productive and the income began to be distributed. Before that period, schools had been maintained at least six months, and at most nearly the whole year, according to the size of the district. After, and not long after, this new source of income was opened, the usual length of schools was reduced to only three months, or just the time that this fund would maintain the schools. The sums which came as gratuities relieved the people of responsibility and deadened their interest, until the schools were continued only so long as the charity lasted." The evil gradually cured itself, as population increased and the fund grew proportionately so small that the people could no longer depend upon it, until Mr. Hine was able to say, "Happily the danger from this direction is passed and cannot return."

This early experience of Connecticut was alone enough to constitute an unanswerable argument against the policy of educational subsidies, but, curiously enough, its force is strengthened by a later experience of the same State with school funds which came unexpectedly from abroad. When the surplus revenue of 1837 was distributed among the States, Connecticut received as her share $764,670, and an extra session of the Legislature was called to decide what should be done with the windfall. It was finally decided, after a stormy and confused discussion which lasted nine days, that the money should be deposited with the several towns, in proportion to their respective populations, on condition that they should keep and preserve it as a deposit and in trust for the State, should repay it into the State Treasury if it should ever be called for, and should appropriate at least one-half of the annual income to the promotion of education in the common schools. In 1855 an act was passed requiring the whole income to be devoted to common schools, so that for nearly two-thirds of the period since the money was received the entire benefit has by law been given to public education.

Mr. Hine has made a thorough investigation as to the history of this fund in every town of the State, and in his recently published annual report he presents a summary of the facts which is very impressive. It appears that, although the original act provided that

"the principal of this fund shall remain permanent, and no part thereof shall be used for any purposes other than those designatad in this act," which were educational, about five-sevenths of the entire sum has been borrowed by the towns from themselves, as trustees, in times of emergency, and town orders or notes given as security, the whole proceeding in most cases consisting of entries on the books which enabled the towns to use the money without increasing their interest account. In the majority of cases the towns do not regard this sum as a liability, and do not put themselves in the position of borrowers, but have simply taken the fund as though it belonged to them. "In fine," says Mr. Hine, "the towns which were made trustees of a fund devoted to the education of their children, have so far violated the fiduciary relation as to borrow from themselves a fund intended to be permanent, and given upon the condition that it be preserved; and the fund appears, if it appears at all, as debt from the trustee to the beneficiary. In many cases all traces of the fiduciary relation have disappeared, and the town alone enjoys the benefits of the trust in a diminished indebtedness."

The question whether the fund has promoted education is already practically answered by this exposition of its general misappropriation, but Mr. Hine answers it in detail by showing that it does not add in any sense to the sum which towns devote to their public schools, as they would be obliged to raise no more by taxation if the interest reported were to drop out of sight and the fiction of a fund disappear. Its main purpose, he says, has been to relieve towns that were in a tight spot by enabling them to discharge or avoid their debts, and thus diminish their interest charges, and he can find no evidence that it adds to the number of schools, increases attendance, decreases illiteracy, or, indeed, benefits the schools in any way. "The surplus which the general Government bestowed, and which the State endeavored to direct into an educational channel," he says, "has not relieved the State from its responsibility, nor lightened its burden of taxation. The money has drifted away from schools, which must depend, and do depend, upon the liberality of the people."

We may add that the experience of Connecticut in this matter has not been exceptional. In his 'History of the Surplus Revenue of 1837,' Mr. Edward G. Bourne has traced the fate of this fund in each of the States which participated in the "divide," and shown that in nearly every case where it was originally devoted to schools, it has been either entirely lost or so misappropriated that scarcely any permanent advantage has been reaped. One such lesson ought to suffice for the nation, and the warning of 1837 should be heeded by those who have ignorantly supposed that good schools could suddenly be secured by dumping a large slice of the surplus of 1888 into the Southern States. As Mr. Hine well says, in concluding his review of Connecticut's history: "There is no doubt that the present attempt to again distribute to the States a surplus would result as before. Not even a temporary stimulus to education would be afforded; the tendency in every State would rather be to so order things that the gratuity should relieve from all responsibility and endeavor. The honorable public duty of providing free education for all children would be shirked, and the day of educational independence long delayed."

JAPANESE TREATY REVISION.

THIRTY-FOUR years ago the Japanese allowed the thin end of the wedge of diplomacy to be inserted in the closed shell of their isolation. While Perry initiated, in 1854, the main treaty, in which he even exceeded his powers and the orders of his Government, his interpreter, Dr. S. Wells Williams, innocently went still further beyond the demand for supplies and asylum, and introduced the "favored nation" clause, article ix. With the purest of motives, he yet furnished unwittingly a mighty weapon for the humiliation of Japan. In the commercial treaty secured by Townsend Harris in 1859, and in the later conventions obtained by seventeen nations, this clause was copied; and another, conferring exterritoriality, or exemption from the law of the land, was unsuspectingly yielded by the Japanese.

Though unintended and unforeseen by the originators, there has been built upon these contracts a potent engine of oppression that now threatens the very existence of the empire. A system of consular courts has been devised, which is little else than a shield for crime. Eighteen different codes of law are in operation at Yokohama, with as many methods of trial for one crime. The Japanese are practically a conquered nation, so far as their ownership of the sea front, waterways, and land occupied by the seven foreign settlements is concerned. They are not allowed to regulate their own customs, and are held to an agreement forced on them at Ozaka in November, 1865, under the guns of a British man-of-war. They cannot guard the lives of their people by quarantine regulations against contagious diseases. Under menace of war, when a war-ship of the German navy convoyed the *Hesperia* to Yokohama and landed her passengers, they were compelled to allow an infected vessel to bring the cholera scourge to Japan in 1879. As the direct cause of loss of life to the people, this proved to be worse than the bloodiest war known in the empire for four centuries. Though this so-called heathen nation has expended millions of dollars in creating and supporting one of the finest lighthouse systems in the world, she is unable to collect a single penny of tonnage duties on ships lighted to her own ports by her own beacons. The promised revision of treaties has been put off year after year. The costly embassies sent abroad to plead for the repeal of the odious exterritoriality clauses have come back disappointed and heart-sick. Over 3,000 settled Caucasian foreigners live in her five ports and two cities, doing an export and import business amounting to many millions annually, yet paying no taxes except a nominal ground-rent. Japan is thus obliged to lay four-fifths of the burdens of taxation upon her farming population. Despite her high credit abroad, she is considered to be on the verge of bankruptcy.

When the treaties were made a generation ago, the Japanese, long secluded as hermits, were as children in political knowledge. They had only a very limited knowledge of foreigners, and these in the form of marauding or shipwrecked whaling sailors, often of a muscular and violent type, whom they promptly caged, fed, and on opportunity shipped through the Dutch out of the country. Hence, they were only too glad to allow foreigners to control their own criminals, thinking themselves well rid of a bad job. So also in trade questions, apart from points as to exchange of coinage, on which they insisted to their hurt, they willingly yielded first to Mr. Harris and then to Lord Elgin. The hermit in the market-place soon found, however, that these people who had plenty of war-ships became inveterate in interpreting the treaties always in their own favor. In defiance of Japanese law and protest, they fixed precedents first made in conquered countries as a foundation, and then added others, until a lofty structure of "sacred rights guaranteed by treaty" was built that seemed, and has thus far proved, as solid and impregnable as the fortress of Gibraltar. If the Japanese made obstacles, they were threatened with various dire results, and, after tasting bombardment at Shimonoseki and Kagoshima, they could only keep silence, for it was while the country was rent with domestic troubles, and the Yedo Government was in its death throes, that this mighty superstructure arose. When, after 1868, by the genius of the Mikado's ministers, a new government was established and a new nation formed, they found that under cover of the exterritoriality clause the most dishonest and dishonorable acts were committed. Besides, it seemed as if the foreigners were encouraged by their own ministers and consuls to defy wantonly the decencies and proprieties of a sensitive people. Hence, their first movement after feudalism fell was the despatch of an imposing embassy, headed by a noble of highest rank, to plead at the courts of civilized nations for the abrogation of the odious clauses. Despite their assurances that Japan had changed her political and social systems, they were unanimously refused, and returned crestfallen and disappointed.

Nevertheless, unable to command success, the leaders of Japan set to work to deserve it. The mere catalogue of reforms wrought since 1870 is an eloquent plea for justice by treaty. In the difficult and delicate responsibilities of diplomacy, the postal service, steam and coasting traffic, the management of railways, lighthouses, or quarantine—in short, in all the enterprises of public service wherein life must be guarded or the conveniences of civilization secured to foreigners, as well as in the keeping of promises and obligations—the Japanese have proved themselves worthy of confidence, and have extorted the praise of critics for their scru-

pulous fidelity. Persecution abandoned, religions tolerated, hundreds of Christian churches organized and unmolested, and revolutions in caste, dress, social freedom not only permitted, but encouraged, show the earnestness of Japan's desire to part with the Asiatic past, and to enter into the life of the West.

During the long years of her distress the sympathy of but one nation has been made manifest. The United States, though commercially almost wholly a purchaser rather than a seller, has in repeated acts of well-meant, if not complete, justice, shown a desire to do the right towards a weaker neighbor. Withdrawing the steamers of the Pacific Mail Company, and yielding to the Japanese the right to their own coasting trade, and negotiating a postal treaty on equal terms, they accompanied these acts by the purpose to grant Japan the right also to control her own customs. The treaty signed July 25, 1878, and actually ratified and exchanged at Washington April 8, 1879, was made null and inoperative by the tenth article, which proves how closely American diplomacy was then, at least, if not now, in the leading-strings of Europe. That article restricted "the two Governments from giving effect to their convention until, by the voluntary act of each and all the other treaty Powers holding relations with Japan, they shall consent thereto." In other words, the European Powers had threatened Japan with a one-sided application of the "favored nation" clause, and it was not convenient for the United States to be as independent as Fourth of July orations and common profession would indicate, and the matter was dropped. Another act of imperfect justice was the return of the extortion money, known as the Shimonoseki Indemnity Fund, in 1883, shorn, however, of a sum called "prize-money" and of another amount equal to the principal, namely, the accumulated interest for many years at 7 per cent., notwithstanding that the Japanese had borrowed the money of London bankers, paying 9 per cent. To crown all, two years ago the Extradition Treaty was made and ratified. This latter is a fact of great significance, because it implies an approach to equality in criminal law, and the logic and sequence of it must be the abolition of consular courts, with their multiplying scandals. It only remains now to revise the treaties in the interest of righteousness, to abolish in due time exterritoriality, and to grant Japan the recognition of sovereignty.

For the doctrine of exterritoriality, the existence of consular courts, and the general system of diplomacy based on the modern theory of civilization as against barbarism, there was once a reason. So long as in certain countries of Asia or Africa State and Church are one, and politics are based on creed, civilized governments cannot treat them as equals, or allow their citizens to encounter the risks of an inferior jurisdiction saturated or tinctured with fanaticism. Were Japan a religious Power, like Turkey, she might be treated as is Turkey. On the contrary, it is not difficult to show that our Government would be justified in reversing old custom and diplomatic precedent, and yielding in due time the right to Japan to control American citizens residing in the empire. To withdraw from the entangling alliance with European Powers seems the first duty. To recognize the right of Japan to self-government, and abolish consular jurisdiction after sufficient time is given for mutual convenience, is another. Apart from the question of justice to Japan, the only fear, even of the hostile critic, is that her jurisprudence be inferior to our own standard. We have only to remember, however, that such a standard is not demanded of many countries, Russia and the South American republics, for instance; while we must not forget that since 1881 the revised criminal code of Japan has been in excellent working throughout the empire. Torture was long ago abolished, decapitation by the sword ended in August, 1881, and cruel and unusual punishments are now no more. Further, the Japanese expect to furnish such guarantees as will satisfy the reasonable demands of foreigners. Their record of twenty years past, and what we know of them as a people, inspire confidence that what they promise to do they are able to perform. Before the end of 1888 they expect to have their completed codes finished and translated. We therefore hope that the present Administration, which has always with promptness and energy given attention to American interests in Asia, has been noted for its quick removal of incompetent envoys, and has negotiated the Extradition Treaty with Japan, may reopen negotiations for the revision of the old treaties, and crown its achievements by meting out justice to a weaker nation.

THE LATE MRS. ANN BENSON PROCTER.

SINCE the death of Miss Mary Berry, London society, or that part of it which is not wholly given over to commonplace, has lost no one more irreplaceable than Mrs. Procter. The stepdaughter, through her mother's second marriage, of Basil Montagu, she was descended on the spear side from that Scheffer who, with Fust and Gutenberg, makes up the inextricably triune effigy of the inventor of printing. Her mother, through whom she was cousin to the present Archbishop of Canterbury, had, as Miss Benson, been in correspondence with Burns. She herself was the widow of Barry Cornwall and the mother of Adelaide Procter. A more purely literary pedigree were hard to find.

Born with the century, and retaining all her faculties to the last, the mere accumulation of years would have made her a personage, had she no other claim to the distinction. Her death snapped the last living link which united the literary world of to-day with that of more than two generations ago. She had vivid personal recollections of Wordsworth, Coleridge, Keats, Lamb, and Hazlitt, as little sallowed with time as her later memories of Rogers, Hunt, Thackeray, and Dickens; to speak only of the dead. Except Byron and Shelley, she had known, and in some cases intimately, as only an agreeable woman can, every greatly or less renowned English man of letters for the last seventy years. To name her friends is to name them all. Of many she was the intimate correspondent; of not a few the trusted confidante. Clever by natural endowment, she grew constantly more clever by collision with witty and agreeable people to the last. Those who had known her in Wimpole Street, found her even more vivacious in Albert Hale Mansions. Her handwriting of last year had the same untremulous precision it had sixty years ago. She realized for this generation the octogenarian girlhood of Ninon de l'Enclos. To the lovely view which her windows there commanded over the tufted greenery of Kensington Gardens, she was indifferent. Her inner verdancy supplied her. It was the Town she loved, and when she went out of it to make visits (never till the season was over, of course), she would have been bored and cross had she not found a fairish fragment of the Town awaiting her at the country-house.

In her eighty-seventh year she was still a courted and assiduous diner-out, going and coming in her *growler*, nor ever forgiving a hostess who sent her in to dinner with a dull man. On him she avenged herself by saying clever things to him, about which he fumbled uneasily, and then by dramatizing the scene with immitigable *verve* for the more trusted friends at her next Sunday or Tuesday afternoon reception. If not the cleverest woman in London, a thesis which might be not unhopefully maintained, she was beyond question the most thoroughly equipped. Not easily to be matched in narrative, reminiscence, and unprinted or unprintable anecdote, she was past mistress in epigram, repartee, and that bland innuendo which is more deadly the more harmless it seems. A thorough woman of the world, her mind had that easy-going movement, that freedom from jolt or creak, that comes of constancy to long-practised grooves. Scantily endowed on the imaginative side, and vigorously contemptuous of conventional sentiment, she yet had all the graces of mind and phrase which seventy years of unremitted commerce with the pick of society could give. Exigent of the *bienséances*, insisting upon the rigors of the social game, we cannot but fancy that she would have preferred *Et ego in Bohemia* to *Et ego in Arcadia* on her headstone. But it must have been a Bohemia with a seaport and all the other proprieties. She shed cares and sorrows lightly, and her face was pitilessly smooth from any record of them. She was a faithful friend and as faithful a foe. If she had not charity, she had in full measure the tolerance which is inculcated by experience. There was only so much woman in her as she could not help—her sex. She seemed to have held over by some occult bequest a reversion of the last century, thoroughly at home though she was in the present. Taken for all in all, she was such a type as we shall not see again. There was a certain hardness in her, not, it seemed, of the natural grain, but the long result of some petrifying process carried far enough for the surface to take a protective polish. Alas, extreme old age has seen and felt so much, has outlived so much, and yet found a relish in life! Nay, she was lovable too in her own way, though she would not have demanded or expected a tear upon her grave. She was a thoroughly brave and self-sufficing soul.

It is hard to conceive of her in that Other World of which she never spoke and perhaps never thought, of her there—with faculties so perfectly and exclusively trained for the conveniences and enjoyments of This. But if her days here had been little given to serious things, yet her keen intellectual interest in the shifting scenery of life saved her from that collapse of character and individuality which sooner or

later overtakes the merely frivolous, and makes us wonder if such vague beings can continue. She is gone, we will not doubt, where old friends will be glad to welcome and later friends to follow her. She has left a void in many lives which may not ache, indeed, but which no one else can fill.

ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS IN WOMEN'S COLLEGES.

BOSTON, Mass., March 5.

AN interesting phase of the higher education of American women is seen in the position now taken by the leading women's colleges in regard to their requirements for admission. To appreciate fully their present attitude, a résumé of their history on this point is necessary.

When Vassar was opened in 1865, vague ideas of the number and qualifications of the women who demanded a college education prevailed. A huge building was erected, and students were invited to come. No entrance examination was attempted. In the words of the late President Raymond:

"There were no established precedents for a woman's college. Of the 350 students with whom the college began, a respectable minority, say one-third, had been well taught, a few admirably, but of the majority it could not be said with truth that they were thoroughly grounded in anything. The first year, no attempt was made to grade the students by any common standard. *Toward the close of the second year, a part were arranged in classes.*"

Of 352 students, it was necessary to classify 165 as specials and 71 as preparatories. The conclusion was inevitable, that the instruction given in the girls' schools throughout the country was generally inadequate to a suitable preparation for a college course, and that a preparatory department was a necessity. Yet the authorities at Vassar recognized the need of enforcing a high standard of entrance conditions, and as, from time to time, they found themselves supported by public opinion, they increased both the number of subjects and the amount required, and also the thoroughness of the examinations for entrance to the Freshman class.

In 1875, when the two new colleges for women were opened at Northampton and Wellesley, Mass., the position of Vassar in regard to this question of entrance conditions was as follows:

(1.) The requirements for admission, in quantity and quality, were equivalent to those in the best colleges for men, excepting Harvard.

(2.) All examinations were conducted at the college by the faculty.

(3.) The conditions of admission were strictly adhered to.

(4.) None were admitted, on condition, to membership in any class—that is, not until examinations in all the requirements had been passed.

(5.) No one was allowed to *recite* with a college class in any study in which she had not passed an examination on all the requirements for that class in the desired study. A few such advanced students were classified as "specials."

(6.) All other students were classed as "preparatories," even when they had passed in all but one of the requirements for the Freshman class.

(7.) The students were graded as follows: In the four college classes 214, specials 11, preparatories 159.

Wellesley opened in September, 1875, and, accepting all applications for admission to the extent of its accommodations, repeated Vassar's experience of ten years before. Students were received who were deficient even in the preliminaries, and it was found necessary, report said, to give instruction even in arithmetic and the elementary history of the United States. Like Vassar, too, Wellesley had built a large building. Its 300 students slept under a single roof, and ate in one large dining-hall.

In the same month, Smith College, also, received its first pupils. Vassar's acknowledged experience had taught the founders of Smith that the presence in a college of a large number of younger students, as yet unprepared for collegiate studies, affected unfavorably the tone of the whole institution, both socially and intellectually. It was believed that the grade of the secondary schools for girls had sufficiently improved to render a preparatory department at Smith unnecessary, and to make it possible to demand of *all* that standard of preparation required by Yale and Amherst. A private residence was Smith's first dormitory. In his opening address, the President said:

"I believe this is the only female college which insists upon substantially the same requisites for admission which have been found practicable and essential in male colleges. It seems useless to talk about advanced education to those who have not yet reached its starting-point. Unless a college insists upon enough preliminary work to carry out its design, it must soon be encumbered by many who might spend their time more profitably in ordinary schools. Instead of advancing, the teacher is obliged to go back with his pupils, and to consume time which should be devoted to a higher education in wearily expounding the first principles of a lower."

The soundness of this opinion was proved by the effect which immediately followed its enunciation and subsequent application. A hundred students tried the examination. The majority failed. Twenty passed and twelve entered. The moral effect was great. Teachers and pupils began to look towards passing the examinations of Smith College as the worthy goal of a student's ambition. Only such buildings as were absolutely needed were erected. The fear of financial loss, arising from the occupation of a large dormitory by a few students, was avoided.

About this time, the relations of the large State universities to the public-school system began to be generally discussed. Public attention was called to the method of admitting by certificates from the preparatory schools, in place of examination by the college. Michigan University declared that its experience was evidence of the advantages of the new policy. In 1877, the women's colleges had begun to accept new students on certificates, but had not generally adopted the safeguards of the Michigan scheme.

The Faculty of Vassar resolved:

(1.) "That all candidates for the Freshman class, coming from *schools* which have *previously sent students* prepared for *unconditional* admission to that or any higher class in this college, will be admitted without examination here, on the certificate of the *principals* of said schools (based upon a general examination *immediately* before their coming) that they have mastered the entire requisites for admission as set forth in the latest catalogue, or equivalents accepted by the Faculty.

(2.) "That the admission of every such student shall be regarded as probationary until the Faculty, on personal knowledge of the student, shall make it absolute.

(3.) "That this privilege shall be continued, in the case of every such school, until a candidate coming from the same shall, after a fair trial, fail to establish her claim to unconditional membership in the class for which she was recommended."

Under these conditions, four students only were received on the certificates of two schools, and their probation continued for three months. These four students expressed the opinion that to be subjected to a rigorous examination at the preparatory school, and then be held for three months on probation at college, was a doubtful privilege. These rules have since been modified so as to render admission by this method less difficult.

Wellesley was less exacting towards the certificates proffered it. The written statement of a country high school, in another State, that within two years its students had passed a satisfactory examination in all the required studies, was acceptable. If studies, such as geometry and algebra, had been pursued in the first years of that high-school course, the students reviewed and took an examination in these only, before receiving their certificate. It is not known what per cent. of Wellesley's students at this time were thus admitted. The number of certificates received was undoubtedly large.

At Smith, also, a change had taken place. Of 133 students enrolled that year, 20 per cent. were specials, and a large part of all had been admitted by certificates. The following is one form which received the approval of the College:

"This is to certify that ——— is a graduate of the ——— High School, having pursued a four years' classical course, and that she has maintained a good rank in scholarship and deportment. ——— HEAD MASTER."

This was intended merely as a formal "testimonial of character," and was given as well to every youth taking the Harvard examinations. At Smith, this certificate was received in lieu of an examination in all subjects, even Latin and Greek, save geometry and algebra. Admission on certificates was followed by an eleven-fold increase of students at Smith.

The public too often judges the success of any educational institution by the numbers of its students. The trustees are often business men who realize the relation of the income of a college to the number of its paying students, and are apt to emphasize that source of funds when the need of an extension of its educational facilities is urged upon their attention. The President of ——— himself realizes that "it is possible for the college at any time to greatly increase its income by lowering its standard, and receiving, without regard to qualifications, the large numbers who apply for admission." During the last ten years, the number admitted to all these colleges on certificates has greatly increased, and was larger last year than ever before. At Wellesley, it is reported, 150 certificates were accepted. Vassar still holds the most conservative position.

All these colleges now issue printed forms of certificates. An examination of them discloses how cumbrous the system is, how many exceptions to the rule prevail, how easily the instructor may shirk the responsibility for a student's failure after she has entered college, and how numerous are the opportunities for abuses to creep in. Stated generally, certificates are now accepted from "approved" schools and *individuals*. This approval has been based upon actual experience in educating pupils prepared at the school, or a visit by one or more of the college faculty, the recommendation of a trustee of the college, or a self-appointed committee of alumnæ, or even a "mutual friend." These "visits," it is said, have sometimes proved purely social in their nature. Usually, no limit is placed to the time during which this privilege shall hold good.

Enough has been said to indicate the direction in which the policy of these colleges now tends. The advocates of the certificate system hold that it increases the number of students enjoying the privileges of the college; that it

increases the available income; that it avoids a nervous excitement which necessarily attends entrance examination; that it affords a connection with the public and private secondary schools beneficial alike to school and college; and that, to quote the recent statements of the President of Brown University, "the whole system of depending upon formal examinations is a humbug," and "a certificate of competency from a trustworthy teacher is eminently preferable to these formalities."

The opponents of the certificate scheme hold that the weight of authority is against that system, and point, as examples, to Harvard, Yale, Princeton, Cornell, and Johns Hopkins University; that few students, who are *properly prepared* and accustomed to written examinations, suffer from a nervous dread of the college examinations; that a thorough written examination in the subjects required for admission to college extending over several days accurately gauges a student's knowledge of such elementary subjects, and is distinctly opposed to a success resulting merely from a process of cramming; that a connection with secondary schools which lowers the standard of the college is of questionable value to either school or college.

Moreover, justice to all those students who have faithfully submitted themselves to the college's published requirements, and have presented themselves fully prepared in all subjects, demands that the same standard shall be exacted uniformly from all. A competent instructor meets the level of the average intelligence of his class, and it is manifestly unjust to the best students to increase the natural inequalities of a class by a failure on the part of the college to enforce its own conditions. And surely, it is not the function of college officers to travel about the country passing judgment upon preparatory schools. Nor can the college reasonably expect that those schools will be more efficient in maintaining a standard which the college itself has failed to enforce. While it is not claimed that all students entering on certificates are ill-trained—such an assumption would be absurd—it is held that a larger number of students "not well-grounded in anything" enter the women's colleges every year under the present system, and it is a very delicate matter to dismiss students, when once admitted, who, after a residence of two or three months, are proved to have been, through no fault of their own, insufficiently prepared.

It is time that those who have the true interests of the higher education of women at heart, and who believe in the great advantages which spring from a residence in the cultivated and scholarly atmosphere of the best academical seats of learning, should utter a protest against this baneful system of admission by certificates, and ask that public opinion should demand a return to the honorable position held by Vassar ten years ago. A. Y.

DICKENS IN GENOA.

GENOA, February 23, 1888.

ALTHOUGH Dickens was endowed with quick perceptions and a ready sympathy with whatever he saw, his manner of working was too methodical, and his interest lay too much in England, for him to be greatly affected by his surroundings when in the act of composition, or for his novels to show many traces of his life on the Continent.

We all know the picture of his favorite writing-table at Gadshill, and he could do no work, either at Genoa or Lausanne, or Paris or Boulogne, unless his table were placed in the same way in front of the window, with the same orderly arrangement of paper and pens, knives and weights, and of the cheap and tasteless little ornaments, each one of which had for him some particular meaning. 'Dombey and Son' was begun at Lausanne and finished in Paris; his second Christmas story, 'The Chimes,' was suggested to him by the ringing of the bells at Genoa, the sound of which came up to his windows from every quarter of the town. In the 'Tale of Two Cities,' the scene is laid partly in Paris, and the story was suggested by his residence there. Apart from that, only one incident in 'Dombey and Son,' and a portion of 'Little Dorrit,' seem to contain any references to his journeys on the Continent. 'Martin Chuzzlewit,' of course, sprang from his American trip, and was written with a distinct object; but, unlike the 'American Notes,' the 'Pictures from Italy' did not blossom into a novel.

This book, which is unjustly depreciated by most, but of which the charm for me has not gone after several re-readings, was begun in the form of letters in the first number of the *Daily News*. Delightful as it is, it by no means equals the private letters from which it was made up—at least so far as we can tell from those published by his children, and the extracts given by Forster, who refused to publish anything "resembling his printed books however distantly.". Forster's work is not so much a biography of Dickens, in spite of its title, as an account of Dickens's relations with Forster. This rendered necessary the publication of additional volumes of letters, thereby affording a new pleasure to those who enjoy Dickens's letters more than his novels. In all of them, and especially in those from Italy, Dickens displays not only his power of vivid and picturesque description, but an instantaneous perception, sympathy, and clear-sightedness, which is only occasionally led astray by reflection based on a supposed knowledge, turning out at times to be either insufficient or erroneous.

When, in the winter of 1844, Dickens decided to go to Italy for a year, he had thoughts of Nice, and wrote to Lady Blessington to know "whether this same Nice be a healthy place the year through, whether it be reasonably cheap, pleasant to look at and to live in, and the like." D'Orsay strenuously insisted that there was no place for headquarters like Pisa; but Genoa was finally decided upon, and, by my Lady's advice, it was arranged to take for the summer a villa in the suburb of Albaro (where he arrived with all his family, having driven post from Calais to take a steamer at Marseilles), at an expense altogether of about two hundred pounds. He found out afterwards that he could have had the Villa Doria at Pegli, "a wonderful house, full of the most unaccountable pictures and the most incredible furniture," with a great park and woods, for £40 a year; but a stupid friend had hired for him, at an exorbitant price, a common Italian country-house, badly furnished, although with a lovely view and in the midst of fine vineyards. This was the Villa Buonavista, or, as it was called from the name of the proprietor, Bagnerello, which, from its color and some peculiarity of the courtyard, Dickens nicknamed the Pink Jail. He had hoped to get the villa in which Byron had lived, but that was close to the main road, and had even then been turned into the disreputable wine-shop which it is still.

To get to the Pink Jail it was necessary to go through narrow lanes with sharp turns, and his carriage had first to be measured to see if it could pass, as a few days before the carriage of some grand lady had got stuck, and she had to be pulled through the front window. Even lately, on my first pilgrimage, some well-intentioned persons who met us warned us of the danger, and suggested a different and roundabout road. But the coachman exhorted me to have courage, and brought me safely to the house. The next-door neighbor of Dickens, and one of his great friends, was the French Consul-General, who had married an English lady, and had even written about his earlier novels in a French review. He says: "Their house is next to ours on the right, with vineyards between; but the place is so oddly contrived that one has to go a full mile round to get to their door." This is a pardonable exaggeration, unless old lanes were strangely unnoticed by Dickens, but has been construed as a fact by his biographer, who was never there. A similar statement, which comes only from the fancy of a nervous temperament, is that of his sufferings from the sirocco, in the first week of his stay, described as if he were in the interior of the Sahara; it being a notorious fact that foreigners experience rather pleasant than unpleasant sensations from the sirocco blowing over the sea during their first year in Italy.

It is impossible to refrain from quoting a passage from a letter to Maclise, because, with its exaggerations, it so exactly expresses the effect of summer on the Riviera:

"When the sun sets clearly, then, by Heaven, it is majestic! From any one of eleven windows here, or from a terrace overgrown with grapes, you may behold the broad sea; villas, houses, mountains, forts strewn with rose-leaves, strewn with thorns—stifled in thorns! Dyed through and through and through. For a moment. No more. The sun is impatient and fierce, like every one else in these parts, and goes down headlong. Run to fetch your hat—and it's night. Wink at the right time of black night—and it's morning. Everything is in extremes. There is an insect here (I forget his name, and Fletcher and Roche are both out) that chirps all day. There is one outside the window now. The chirp is very loud—something like a Brobdingnagian grasshopper. The creature is born to chirp—to progress in chirping—to chirp louder, louder, louder—till it gives one tremendous chirp and bursts itself. That is its life and death. Everything is in a concatenation accordingly. The day gets brighter, brighter, brighter, till it's night. The summer gets hotter, hotter, hotter, till it bursts. The fruit gets riper, riper, riper, till it tumbles down and rots."

On the 1st of October Dickens moved into Genoa, where he had an apartment in a palace which even still occupies the finest site in the town. It is that large, stately square house, then called the Palazzo Peschiere, standing high up above the promenade of Acquasola, at that time let in apartments. On a subsequent visit in 1853 Dickens found it occupied as a girls' school; but it is now restored to its original purpose, and is again the residence of a single family. During his winter in Genoa Dickens, of course, walked through every street and alley, and over all the surrounding country, by night as well as by day, though he missed what he saw in his night walks through the London streets, of which he sadly complains; for he was deprived of all that put him into a mood fit for the field of writing which he had chosen. He made an excursion along the Cornice road to Marseilles; found time for a hasty trip to London to read his new Christmas story, 'The Chimes,' to his friends; and was able to make a much more leisurely journey to Florence, Rome, and Naples.

Genoa has greatly changed since Dickens knew it, although he found much that was new on his second visit, and speaks of a new and fine café with gardens, next to the new Municipality, which had ousted pupils and teachers from the Jesuit college—a café which we seem to recognize as the Concordia, the only good

restaurant in northern Italy, except Doney's at Florence, Franconi's at Como, and Quadri's at Venice. Mediterranean and American commerce and the opening of the St. Gothard tunnel have so increased Genoese trade that, with the demolition of the charming old marble promenade and the construction of new moles, quays, and warehouses, even the appearance of the Port is altered. The town stretches now almost to Sestri on one side, and fills up all the valley on the other as far as Albaro. By the side of the Palazzo Peschiere runs the long new Via Assarotti with its great piles of buildings, but a part of the Peschiere Palace gardens still remains. The old gate at the foot of the Acquasola has given place to a fine paved square, with statues of Vittorio Emmanuele and of Mazzini; and the villetta of Dickens's old friend, the Marchese di Negro, is now a public garden and museum.

Dickens gives a very amusing description of the Marchese, whom he calls a "very fat and much older Jerdan, with the same thickness of speech and size of tongue. He was Byron's friend, keeps open house here, writes poetry, improvises, and is a very good old Blunderbore; just the sort of instrument to make an artesian well with anywhere." The quality which so particularly amused and enraged Dickens was the mania of the Marchese for reciting his own verses on all occasions. The description of him, which is far too long to quote, is vivid and on the whole not ill-natured; indeed, one may believe it not exaggerated after seeing the bust of the Marchese now in front of the door. Nevertheless, the little foibles of this gentleman were far more leniently judged by his countrymen, and, if we may believe the letters of Giordani and others, his acquaintance was sought for and appreciated by literary men.

I cannot help copying a passage about the new Governor to whom Dickens had been told he should pay his respects—a ceremony from which he was excused by the tact of the Consul:

"'Where's the great poet?' said the Governor. 'I want to see the great poet.' 'The great poet, your Excellency,' said the Consul, 'is at work writing a book, and begged me to make his excuses.' 'Excuses!' said the Governor, 'I wouldn't interfere with such an occupation for all the world. Pray tell him that my house is open to the honor of his presence when it is perfectly convenient for him, but not otherwise. And let no gentleman,' said the Governor, a-surveyin' his suite with a majestic eye, 'call upon Signor Dickens till he is understood to be disengaged.' And he sent some one with his own cards next day. Now, I do *seriously* call this real politeness and pleasant consideration—not positively American, but still gentlemanly and polished."

Unfortunately, the published letters give us little information as to the real friends Dickens made in Genoa, who welcomed him back so warmly on his visit ten years later. We only know that the last few days of his stay, when the establishment was being broken up, he passed at the Palazzo Rosso above the Vandyke Picture Gallery, as the guest of Mme. Delarue, whose death last year is still deplored.

Of the novels it is only 'Little Dorrit' that shows the influence of Dickens's stay in Italy. The scene in the Monastery on the St. Bernard is, so far as we can tell from the letters, and from a confession in a letter from M. Cerjat, almost a description of his journey with that gentleman and other friends from Lausanne. The little pictures of Italian post stations and country towns, and the sketches of Venice and of life there, are mere reproductions of the author's actual impressions, and could only have been drawn by one who had been on the spot. These bits are so excellent as to counterbalance the many defects of the story. E. S.

Correspondence.

DR. VON HOLST.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I am much obliged to your correspondent "N. Z." for calling my attention to the article in the *Zeitschrift*. Dr. von Holst is no friend of republican or parliamentary government, as shown not merely in his writings, but by the fact, very rare in my experience with Germans, that, after living some time in this country, he has preferred to return and make his home in Germany.

But as to the particular point, the want of influence other than negative, by the President as to legislation, I do not see that "N. Z." has disproved the argument. What difference does it make in this respect that the President's voice bears any particular proportion to the Congressional vote? Congress passes a measure and the President vetoes or negatives it. Is his veto any more or less negative if it takes sixty-six or twice that number of votes to overcome it? If it required a unanimous vote, how would that give the veto any positive power? Positive power means at least a share in *creating* legislation, which the veto does not and cannot have. "N. Z." says that the President and Cabinet can introduce measures through members of Congress. So can I or any man, and in either case the attention which such bills receive from the committees will depend upon the personal or party gain which the members see in it. On any other ground, a bill presented by the Executive has very little advantage over one from anybody else—in some respects less, on account of the jealousy which Congress as a body always feels towards the other branch.

"The conspicuous instance of the Tariff Bill," instead of upsetting the Professor's theory, seems to me to work just the other way and to confirm it. The country has seldom been stirred by any President's message as by the last of Mr. Cleveland. But the "Mills" bill, which I suppose is the most prominent one, is not identified with the President at all. It may embody his ideas, but I do not believe that one person in ten thousand in this country knows whether it does or not. There is an active campaign in tariff discussion going on in this neighborhood, but, so far as I can learn, it does not turn upon this or any other bill. It deals with the generalities of protection and free trade, and the effect of protection upon wages. Neither has the President endorsed publicly the Mills or any other bill. He has simply uttered some general ideas.

It seems incredible that Congress should allow this session to pass without touching the tariff, and I do not venture to predict that it will. But I always have believed it, and believe it now, on the ground of the tremendous power of the lobby and the want of positive power in the President, unless by underhand intrigue, which I pay him the compliment to believe he will not use. It is this problem which I am watching with intense curiosity, and, if it turns out so, shall have a word to say.

Dr. von Holst says that it is not possible for our Cabinet to take part in the proceedings and debates of Congress without a thorough overhauling and reconstruction of the Constitution. That seems to me the state of mind, not uncommon among foreigners towards this country, of a man who sees somebody having a great many things which he would like, but who comforts himself with the idea that he has exclusive possession of something which the other man would like but cannot have. In the same strain Bagehot says: "The Americans have many excellent things, but this they have not and cannot have." In answer, I will simply refer again to the Senate Report of February 4, 1881, signed unanimously by eight Senators of both parties, which recommends the admission of the Cabinet to seats with the right of debate in both houses; and, after saying that the advantages of this course are too obvious to need discussion, proceeds to demonstrate its entire compatibility with the Constitution as it stands. G. B.

Boston, March 24, 1888.

BOOKS IN THE TARIFF BILL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The Tariff Bill submitted by the House Committee is in the main a step in the right direction. But in one respect at least it is only faint-hearted: I mean in regard to books. The bill recommends putting on the free list books printed in foreign languages, but leaves English books subject to a duty of 25 per cent. Why this invidious distinction? Is it tenable in moral, or even in political, law? For years the friends of learning in America have borne the book-tariff with ever-increasing murmurs. And now, when our hopes of a reform seem to be about to be realized, we get *half a loaf!* We are apparently doomed to see the trashiest productions of France and Germany admitted free, and the science, art, history, poetry, and belles-lettres of England still subject to the most degrading tax that ever disgraced civilization.

The House Committee cannot plead ignorance. I have good reason for supposing that a plain and comprehensible statement of facts was laid before them, in three points: first, that the book-tariff was wholly unnecessary to the maintenance of Government; second, that it bore heavily upon those who were least able to bear taxation, viz., the studying class; third, that even from the protectionist point of view it was wholly unnecessary, inasmuch as books were not articles of merchandise in the ordinary sense, and did not compete upon a pecuniary basis. If the Committee were in doubt upon any one of these points, could they not have got further and more explicit information from the real "book-makers" of the country? Why, let me ask again, are French and German books to be free and English to remain taxed? We proclaim to the world that we are afraid of the only nation that speaks our language, that enjoys the same political and religious freedom. We go on saying to every teacher and reader of the grand old English literature: You are a fool, and you shall pay for your folly.

Only one English book is to be duty free, the Bible. That is to say, the only book that is above question of authorship, the only book which *is in competition*. Oxford and Cambridge are to be free to compete with our Bible societies. The idea of competition is not my invention. I merely take it as I find it. But truly it must savor of irony, that the Bible *makers* of England are to be encouraged to crowd out the Bible *makers* of America. Does not this feature partake largely of cant?

Our legislators are occasionally surprised to discover themselves held in slight esteem by the literary classes. They occasionally find out that Representative passes for a joke, and Senator for a byword. The explanation may be learned by whoever seeks for it. In part it is suggested above. M.

Cincinnati, March 19, 1888.

A QUESTION OF INDEBTEDNESS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The review of my 'Two Chapters on the Mediæval Guilds of England' in the *Nation* of March 15, contains, by implication, several charges to which I feel bound to reply. These consist in the inferences that my obligations to the works of Gross and Ochenkowski are deeper than I confessed in the preface and footnotes; that my essay is simply a condensation; and that my references were taken from the German works so carefully as even to follow their mistakes.

I should be sorry to underrate my obligations in chapter i to Dr. Gross, and took pains to acknowledge my indebtedness. Not only do I state in the preface that Dr. Gross "deserves all the credit for setting the subject in its proper light," but I make no less than fifteen references in the notes, such as, "Gross was the first to clear up the confusions," "first refuted by Gross," "cf. in general Gross," etc., etc. (pp. 13, 15, 16, 22, 23, 28, 29, 31, 34, 35, 39, 41, 42, 45). At the same time I must protest against the assumption that my chapter is only a condensation, not based on original researches. I may assert with confidence that there is not a single reference to any page or authority which has been taken at second hand, and which has not been carefully scrutinized by me. The review maintains that my arguments, illustrations, and authorities are simply those of Dr. Gross. This again is unfair. Among the arguments adduced by me, but not mentioned by Dr. Gross, are these: The distinction between guild member and burgess, because of admission of prelates (p. 38), and of women (p. 42); the distinction between guild merchant and borough (p. 41); the whole relation between craft guilds and guild merchant (pp. 57-60 and *passim*); the denial of Gross's statement as to the origin of the merchant guild (pp. 16, 17), etc. Among the illustrations not mentioned by Gross, are some on pages 22, note 4; 23, n. 4; 25, n. 1, 2, 3; 27, n. 1; 27, n. 5; 28, n. 3; 31, n. 3; 33, n. 1, 2, 3; 37, n. 5; 38, n. 6; 45, n. 1; 46, n. 6; 47, n. 2; 48, n. 1, 3. Among the authorities not mentioned by Gross, but used by me are: Corry, History of Bristol; Deering, Notinghamia; Historic Documents of Ireland; Palmer, Perlustration of Great Yarmouth; a History of Preston; Reader, History of Reading; Regiam Majestatem; Scaum, Beverlac; Seymour and Marchant's London; Throsby's Leicester; Warden's Dundee; Woodward's Hampshire, etc. That most of the remaining authorities are to be found in Gross is natural. They are the common property of all scholars, and are mentioned, almost without an exception, in the works of Brady, Madox, Thompson, Stubbs, Merewether, and Stephens. It was through these works that I was referred to the sources during the years 1882–83, and it was only when the chapter had been substantially written that Dr. Gross's essay appeared. It is true that my conclusions are mainly identical with his, but in many cases both his and mine are also identical with those of other authors, and in some cases we do not agree. I have yet to learn that any one is precluded from arriving at the same conclusions as his fellow-workers, especially when he makes continual reference to them, or from using any material to which attention has been called repeatedly. Not a single illustration is used by me at second hand. The only instance on which the review depends for a contrary imputation, is that Walworth is printed for Walford in two cases. This is entirely unfair, as in both these cases (pp. 35, 67) there is only a simple general reference to the author's name as Walworth, but without giving any specific reference. Whenever reference is made to any specific page or volume (and this alone can be called a reference to authority), the name is correctly spelled Walford (cf. p. 15) —a point which ought not to have escaped the reviewer's attention. In the light of all these facts, it seemed to me that I was certainly giving Dr. Gross all due credit, and in a sufficiently "unequivocal" manner.

As to chapter ii and Ochenkowski the matter is still plainer. Here I give entire arguments of which no account is to be found in the German work. So the theory as to the origin of the crafts (pp. 50-58, 59, 63); the economic significance of the crafts (p. 75); the error of Ochenkowski in overlooking the municipal influence (pp. 79, *et seq.*), etc. In this chapter there are scores of new points and references unknown to the German work, and yet I expressly state in the preface that the essay "is in harmony with many of [his] conclusions," and refer to him in the notes in most of the important points.

I submit that a work, fragmentary though it may be, which was the result of eighteen months of laborious and detailed research, does not deserve the epithet of a "condensation," and that the assumption of disingenuousness is both unwarrantable and unjust.—Truly yours,

Edwin R. A. Seligman.

New York, March 23, 1888.

A FAMILIAR QUOTATION TRACED.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In No. 1186 of the *Nation*, page 243, in your interesting review of 'Bracton's Note Book,' occur these words:

"As regards one of the Latin phrases quoted in this passage—when Bracton says, 'licet nihil certius sit morte, nihil tamen incertius est hora mortis,' and the annotator says, 'nihil certius morte, nihil incertius hora mortis,' the suspicion arises that both may be using some familiar quotation or commonplace; and Mr. Maitland does not overlook this.

'Mors incertarum rerum certissima cunctis,
Incertum quando, certum aliquando mori';

so run certain seemingly monkish lines of unknown origin," etc.

Then, after a quotation from Chaucer, the review proceeds: "Perhaps the 'nihil certius morte' will hardly be found in any classical author."

I do not know where these exact words may be found in a classical author, but is not this familiar passage from Cicero (Cato Maior, sec. 74), sufficiently near in sentiment and phrase to be the source, possibly, of the commonplace: "Moriendum enim certe est, et incertum an hoc ipso die. Mortem igitur omnibus horis impendentem timens, qui poterit animo consistere"? Seneca in several passages expresses a like sentiment. In Ep. 30 are these words: "hora illa inevitabilis"; in Ep. 26: "Incertum est quo te loco mors exspectet: itaque tu illam omni loco exspecta"; in Consolat. ad Marciam, 10: "Nihil de hodierna die promittitur, . . . nihil de hac hora. Festinandum est, instat a tergo mors"; again, *ibid.*: "Nos oportet in promptu habere, quæ in incertum diem data sunt." In another passage from the Epistles, quoted by Aldus Manutius, which at this moment I cannot verify, Seneca says, "In tanta volutatione rerum humanarum, nihil cuiquam, nisi mors, certum," which is not greatly different from the passage from Bracton.

The quotation from Cicero is so near at hand that I have hesitated to call attention to it, but possibly it may prove serviceable to some one.

I am, respectfully yours,

William Carey Poland.

Brown University, Providence, R. I., March 23.

DR. JOHNSON'S ATTIC BULL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The first time I heard Dr. Johnson's famous definitions of "attic" and "garret" referred to, it was in a lecture given in my boyhood, in a New York village, by a professor from Hamilton College. Having access later to a first edition of the noted Dictionary, I speedily turned to the above words to see how the Johnsonese looked, but I looked in vain for "attic." It is not in the book. Miss Isabel Hapgood's reference, in the last *Nation*, to the words prompts me to state that the definition sought for may be found after "cockloft," thus: "The room over the garret, in which fowls are supposed to roost, unless it be rather corrupted from *coploft*, the *cop* or *top* of the house." Garret is defined, "A room on the highest floor in the house." The Doctor's quotation from Swift implies that his versions of the words were common in his day: "My garrets, or rather my *cocklofts*, indeed are very indifferently furnished; but they are rooms to lay lumber in."

Again, Dryden, translating Juvenal, says:

"If the lowest floors already burn,
Cocklofts and garrets soon will take their turn."

As used in these extracts, the words do not seem unreasonable, and a careful reading of the definitions fails to discover the ridiculous features so often ascribed to them.

Alfred S. Roe.

Worcester, Mass., March 23, 1888.

Notes.

Still another life of the Emperor William I. is announced, by Belford, Clarke & Co. The author is Gen. Hermann Lieb.

Ticknor & Co., Boston, publish immediately 'Agatha Page: A Parable,' by Isaac Henderson, and 'Isidra,' a Mexican novel by Willis Steell. Later in the season they will issue 'The Pilgrim Republic,' an historical review of the Colony of New Plymouth, by John A. Goodwin; 'Felix Mendelssohn's Letters to Ignaz and Charlotte Moscheles,' translated and edited by Felix Moscheles; 'Homestead Highways,' by Herbert M. Sylvester; 'Sketches Abroad,' by J. A. Schweinfurth, architect; 'Along the Shore,' poems by Rose Hawthorne Lathrop; 'The Ethics of Boxing and Manly Sport,' by John Boyle O'Reilly; and the following novels: 'Olivia Delaplaine,' by Edgar Fawcett; 'An Uncloseted Skeleton,' by Lucretia P. Hale and Edwin Lassetter Bynner; 'A Mexican Girl,' by Frederick Thickstun; and 'Len Gansett,' by Opie P. Read.

A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago, announce 'His Broken Sword,' a novel, by Miss Winnie L. Taylor.

Prof. A. Melville Bell means to demonstrate the fitness of English for adoption as the universal language, in a work, 'World-English,' to be shortly issued in this city by N. D. C. Hodges. It involves an amended alphabet for phonetic spelling.

'Voltaire's Prose,' edited for schools by Adolphe Cohn; 'Selections from Boccaccio's Decamerone,' by Prof. A. Marshall Elliott; and 'Meissner's Children's Own German Book,' adapted for American use by Prof. Edward S. Joynes, are among D. C. Heath & Co.'s announcements in modern languages.

Dr. F. Holthausen is preparing for the "Sammlung kurzer Grammatiken germanischer Dialekte," edited by Braune and published by Niemeyer, a grammar of modern English.

Prof. Cappeller of Jena has in preparation an English edition of his Sanskrit dictionary, the German edition of which was completed in the summer of 1887. It will contain all the words found in those texts which are generally read during the first two or three years of a Sanskrit course. It is based upon the St. Petersburg dictionary, but has the great advantage over Böhtlingk's 'Kurzgefasstes [3 vols. !] Wörterbuch' that it is complete in one handy volume.

All students of syntax as well as all students of Sanskrit will be gratified to learn that Prof. Delbrück's (Jena) Vedic Syntax, a work to which he has exclusively devoted himself for the past six years, is shortly to appear from the press of the Buchhandlung des Waisenhauses (Halle).

The Clarendon Press will, on a guarantee of fifty guineas in sums of two guineas, reproduce by the Collotype process a series of at least ten large maps of properties in Oxfordshire belonging to some of the colleges, and all dating from the beginning of the seventeenth century. They illustrate not only the open-field system, but the topography of the country. Subscriptions may be sent to Mr. Mowat, Pembroke College, Oxford. Should there be fifty, the pledge will be reduced one-half.

Prizes of $500 and $200 are offered by Mr. Henry Lomb of Rochester, N. Y., through the American Public Health Association, for the two best essays on "Practical, Sanitary, and Economic Cooking adapted to Persons of Moderate and Small Means." They must be sent to Dr. Irving A. Watson, Concord, N. H., on or before September 15, 1888, with the writer's name in a sealed envelope. Dr. Watson, who is the Secretary of the Association, can supply copies of four previous prize essays elicited by Mr. Lomb, on "Healthy Homes and Foods for the Working Classes," by Prof. Victor C. Vaughan; "The Sanitary Conditions and Necessities of School-houses and School Life," by Dr. D. F. Lincoln; "Disinfection," by Dr. Geo. M. Sternberg; and "The Preventable Causes of Disease, Injury, and Death in American Manufactories," etc., by Geo. H. Ireland.

Mr. W. F. Taylor is editing for publication the marginal notes writen by Coleridge in the books owned or borrowed by him. A limited issue in quarto form, with three portrait illustrations, will be made to subscribers by David Nutt, London.

The Publication Agency of the Johns Hopkins University has made a tasteful pamphlet of the proceedings at the unveiling of the bust of Sidney Lanier on February 3. It contains poems, papers, and letters, and a bibliography, and lacks only a portrait, or a view of the bust, to be a complete summary of the occasion. Two copies will be sold for one dollar.

Mr. Benj. R. Tucker of Boston has undertaken the translation, publication, and sale of the complete works of J. P. Proudhon, which are expected to comprise about fifty volumes. Volume first has already appeared, and volume fourth—'System of Economical Contradictions'—is now before us. Since Mr. Tucker has decided that the work was worth doing at all, we can only say that, so far as the translation and publication are concerned, he seems to have thought that it was worth doing well.

The first volume of a new series, "Twelve English Statesmen," published by Macmillan & Co., has just appeared. The series aims "to present in historic order the lives and work of those leading actors in our affairs who, by their direct influence, have left an abiding mark on the policy, the institutions, and the position of Great Britain among States," and "is intended to form a continuous narrative of English freedom, order, and power." The illustrious twelve are William the Conqueror, Henry II., Edward I., Henry VII., Wolsey, Elizabeth, Oliver Cromwell, William III., Walpole, Chatham, Pitt, and Peel. Among the contributors to the series are E. A. Freeman, F. York Powell, M. Creighton, Frederick Harrison, and John Morley. 'William the Conqueror,' by Edward A. Freeman, is the first of the twelve monthly instalments. In comparing his 'Short History of the Norman Conquest' with this new work, the author says (p. v): "That was a narrative of events reaching over a considerable period of time. This is the portrait of a man in his personal character, a man whose life takes up only a part of the time treated of in the other work." It is almost unnecessary to state that no one was better fitted than Freeman to write this biography, and that the series opens most auspiciously.

Two new volumes have been added to the series "English History from Contemporary Writers," viz.: 'Strongbow's Conquest of Ireland,' 1166-1188, by Francis P. Barnard; and 'Simon de Montfort and his Cause,' 1251-1266, by Rev. W. H. Hutton (London: D. Nutt; New York: Putnams). The former "tells the story of the first contact between the newly organized feudalism of Anglo-Norman England and the far older and primitive civilization of the last independent Keltic States." Mr. Hutton's 'Simon de Montfort' is more ably compiled than his other work in the same series, 'The Misrule of Henry III.' He conveys a wrong impression when he states, on p. 47, that Henry III. sold the Jews of England to Earl Richard of Cornwall. In reality, the revenues accruing from the Jews were temporarily assigned or mortgaged to the Earl, in order that, as Matthew Paris tells us, "he might eviscerate those whom the King had excoriated." The royal revenues from important towns such as Bristol and Exeter were often transferred in a similar way. Mr. Barnard's and Mr. Hutton's volumes are both excellent contributions to the series; they will aid in bringing the public in closer touch with the periods of which they treat.

The second volume of the Henry Irving Shakspere (Scribner & Welford) contains the second and third parts of "Henry VI.," "The Taming of the Shrew," "Midsummer Night's Dream," and "Richard II." The general plan of the work we have already spoken of. The special features of this volume are the condensation of "Henry VI." made by Charles Kemble and printed from his MS., in Henry Irving's possession, and the citation of the Egerton MS. "Richard II.," an acting play later than Shakspere (c. 1630) of which Halliwell-Phillipps once printed eleven copies. To Kemble's condensation we may recur hereafter. The work of the editor is very well done, as in the previous volume.

Mr. Lewis Sergeant's new 'Government Year Book' (London: Unwin; New York: White & Allen) explains itself as "a record of the forms and methods of government in Great Britain, her colonies, and foreign countries," and justly claims for itself a certain originality. Its scheme may be said to be comparative and philosophical rather than statistical. The more or less fixed portions analyze the constitutions (in the largest sense) of the several countries, quoting nearly in full the charter of the United States and the French Republic's organic law of July, 1875. The renewable portions are reviews of political events of the previous year (1887), so far as these bear on inner questions of state, or international relations. We cannot say that we think the editor quite qualified for his task, either by lucidity and condensation of style or by intellectual grasp. Still, the execution is respectable and may be improved. We remark convenient lists of treaties and other international conventions since 1815 (the number of which is increasing most significantly), and of the principal British Cabinet Ministers from 1869 to 1888; and a tabular view of the forms of government in the world. A queer sentence on p. 300 is worth quoting (italics ours): "The Civil War between the North and South in 1861-65 not only brought about the emancipation of the slaves, but also confirmed the claim of the Union to prevent by force the secession of particular States. *In this not very satisfactory manner* the greatest of the federal republics dealt with the most formidable of the dangers which beset the path of every federation."

From Cupples & Hurd, Boston, we receive a fresh edition of Mr. W. H. Whitmore's incomparably ingenious and compact 'Ancestral Tablets'—a collection of diagrams for pedigrees, "so arranged that eight generations of the ancestors of any person may be recorded in a connected and simple form"; and W. P. W. Phillimore's 'How to Write the History of a Family,' of which we shall have something to say hereafter.

In the fourth volume of the *Forum* the labor question, in one form or another, asserts its supreme interest. "What is the Object of Life?" was also a concern to several writers, and more yet had to tell of "Books That Have Helped Me." In this last series the permanent value appears to us to lie far more in the autobiography than in the spiritual experience related. The rest of the table of contents shows the usual range of political, literary, and ethical discussion.

The *Universal Review*, a monthly periodical having an international character, is announced to be launched in England in May.

Mr. Hamerton resumes, in the March *Portfolio* (Macmillan), his dialogue over "Book Illustration," beginning with the question of its utility. The "Scientist" upholds it in imaginative literature as a stimulus to the reader's imagination. If the artist falls short of the author, so does the unaided reader. "It is quite a mistake to suppose that when you read 'The Newcomes,' you see in your mind's eye exactly the Colonel Newcome that Thackeray saw. Doyle's conception of the Colonel is not Thackeray's either; but it may be more vivid and more consistent than your own." The "Critic" (Mr. Hamerton) reports that "Anthony Trollope was extremely pleased with Millais's illustrations to his novels," and George Eliot no less with Leighton's to 'Romola,' especially his conception of Tito, "one of her favorite creations." Dickens said of Seymour that he made Mr. Pickwick a reality, and Thackeray used to praise Frederick Walker. Mr. Hamerton takes the surprising ground that "the use of illustrating 'Gulliver's Travels' is very questionable," and so with 'Robinson Crusoe.' He is quite right in wishing to exclude from histories composed pictures of events which the artist could not witness, and in his enumeration of the kinds that are admissible.

A paper on Francesco del Cossa, with illustrations of his works, and a paper on Alexander Dumas, senior, as a dramatist, compose the main text of *L'Art* for February 15 (Macmillan). The full-page etching is a portrait of Baron James de Rothschild.

The *Journal of the Military Service Institution* for the first quarter of 1888, No. 33, is perhaps the most valuable issue up to this time. It contains the prize essay upon "Our Northern Frontier," by Lieut. Woodruff, Fifth Infantry; "How to Feed the Soldier," a most interesting paper by Major Spurgin, the popular Commis-

sary of Cadets at the Military Academy, etc.; "Systems of Defence of the Principal Powers of Europe," by Capt. Turtle, U. S. Engineers. But the most timely and valuable paper in the *Journal* is part i. of Lieut. R. W. Young's "Legal and Tactical Considerations Affecting the Employment of the Military in the Suppression of Mobs," etc. The data for this work were compiled while General Hancock was President of the Institution, and at his instance, and the manuscript has been examined at the invitation of the Institution by General F. J. Porter, Commissioner of Police, General Josiah Porter, Adjutant-General of New York, and General E. L. Molineux, an authority upon the subject, and has met their approval. It cannot fail to be of value to officers of the regular service and of the National Guard. The *Journal* closes with an exhaustive discussion of a lecture recently delivered by Captain Birnie, Ordnance Corps, upon "Gun-making in the United States." Fifteen experts (civil and military) in the invention, construction, or use of heavy ordnance, including some of the most famous iron founders in the country, took part in this discussion.

Prof. Milne of Tokio continues research, with his accustomed activity, in the phenomena and causes of earthquakes, earth tremors, and the like. In vol. xi. of the Transactions of the Seismological Society of Japan — the latest which has reached us—he follows up a line of investigation which he began five years ago, and in which he seeks to make out the theory of the influence of the wind and barometric changes upon the earth's crust. After treating of late researches on earth tremors by Italian seismologists, Prof. Milne discusses the observations made up to the present time in Japan, and concludes that nearly all these tremors are traceable to the effects of the wind upon the earth's surface, and that these slight motions of the crust are frequently propagated to regions far removed from the immediate area of wind disturbance. More specifically, the earth tremors coincide with a low barometer more often than with a high one; a high barometric gradient is more favorable to their detection than a small one; the stronger the wind the more likely are the earth tremors to be observed; earthquakes and earth-tremors appear to have no connection, other than that both occur during the same seasons with greater frequency; and, lastly, the tremors, quite different from earthquake effects, are fully as severely felt on the summits of mountains as on the plains below. From the evidence exhibited in Prof. Milne's paper, the conclusion appears to be well established.

Professor Winslow Upton, Secretary of the New England Meteorological Society, Providence, R. I., has distributed a circular to some five hundred towns in western New England, asking for records of the average depth of snowfall in the recent severe storm, with which to supplement the 150 reports that will be received from the regular observers of the Society, and thus gain material for a discussion such as the storm warrants. The newspapers have been so occupied with the effects of the snow-drifts, that the storm as a whole has gone almost undescribed; there has been no adequate account of it yet published. The signal-service stations are too scattered to furnish the data needed for a detailed statement of its approach and passage, although its extraordinary character entitles it to careful study. At such times, especially, the value of the local State weather services is particularly apparent, and it is to be regretted that New York has not followed the example of all the adjacent States in organizing one. There was a time, some forty years ago, when New York led the country in the fulness and accuracy of her climatic records, but now she stands at the other end of the list, behind Louisiana and Arkansas in this respect. We can hardly expect the desired increase in the accuracy of the official weather predictions until fuller material for the study of storms that are predicted incorrectly is gathered and discussed in a thorough manner.

The first paper in the March Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society is on Siam, by J. McCarthy, Superintendent of Surveys in that country. Referring to the proposed Indo-Chinese Railway, he expresses strong doubts as to the commercial success of the enterprise. In one of his journeys in the northeastern part of the kingdom, he found some gigantic stone jars in a great plain, the former use of which is unknown to the natives, but which remind us of the burial jars of ancient Peru. Admiral Mayne gives a summary of explorations in British North Borneo, and Gen. Strachey contributes his first lecture on geography before the University of Cambridge, in which he treats of the relations of geography and astronomy, and sketches the history of the construction of maps.

At the February meeting of the Berlin Geographical Society, Dr. Wiedermann, who had just returned from central Asia, gave an account of the Trans-Caspian Railway. Besides its strategical importance, in his opinion it possesses an eminent economic value. Already the country through which it passes is becoming rapidly settled and cultivated. Of the various productions, "cotton is destined to play the most important part, since the cultivation of American cotton has been commenced with the greatest success in the neighborhood of Tashkend and Samarkand; in the former place in 1887 three full crops were produced from one field. The total area of cotton plantations in Turkistan is estimated at 600 desiatines, or about 1,500 acres, and will soon render Russia independent of foreign countries as regards cotton."

Since Mr. Im Thum succeeded in gaining the summit of Mt. Roraima in Guiana, two other botanists have made the ascent. One of them, Mr. F. Dressel, saw some butterflies, nearly black, on the top, as well as a small black toad and a millipede. It had been supposed that there was no animal life upon the mountain.

Apropos of Mr. Fitzedward Hall's recent remarks in these columns on "most" in the sense of "almost," "C." writes us as follows: "This use of the word is a tradition from very far back, and whether, as a habit, confined to the ignorant of our day or not, did not originate among the ignorant. In King Alfred's Orosius we read that Cyrus had laid waste 'most all' the East (mæst ealne); and in Archbishop Wulfstan's homily mæst ælc, most everybody, occurs twice."

—The April *Harper's* contains a paper upon "Acting and Authors," by C. Coquelin, supplementary to the one which he contributed some time ago, and somewhat more special in its manner of treatment. It is noticeable for the strong ground he takes, that the actor is generally subordinate to the author, and should limit himself with much strictness to interpreting the characters and the words according to the author's conceptions. This involves as a consequence the position that some actors are especially fitted by temperament to certain authors, and, even when one is capable of taking many parts, the necessity of his keeping the types distinct so as not to "Shaksperianize" Molière, and vice versa. His general theory of art is admirably and tersely stated in his remark that "everything ought to start from *truth*, everything ought to tend towards the *ideal*"; and it exhibits the relation between the two rival schools, and the truth in each of them, very plainly. The cuts are all interesting, but those which represent Sardou at the rehearsal are particularly effective. Mr. Warner contributes a second paper on the West, which is, if anything, even better than that which we noticed last month for its breadth of view, its temperateness, and the reality of the information it affords. He deals especially with Wisconsin, and calls particular attention to the utility and practical influence of the farmers' institutes there, and to the establishment of county hospitals for the chronic insane, with their methods of freedom and labor, which he regards as a real and beneficial change in the system of State supervision. The West is also represented by an account of the city of Columbus, with a very good description of its business. The foreign-travel paper is an artist's sketch of Algiers, with many illustrations, and it is tolerably successful, though naturally much confined to the artistic point of view. Prof. Griffis's brief description of Japanese ivory carving is also embellished with interesting cuts, and the paper upon the Leavenworth military school is noticeable. There is, as usual, a preponderance of Southern fiction, Lafcadio Hearn contributing a long tale, and Joel Chandler Harris a short one.

—In the April *Atlantic* Mr. Lowell and Mr. Aldrich have poems, and the three serials make much progress. The most vivacious article is by Mrs. Elizabeth Robins Pennell. It is made up of two parts somewhat confusedly intermingled. One is a theory of art, the other consists of some observations of her own upon the London exhibitions given for the benefit of the working-people, with the hope of helping to impart to them some knowledge of cultivated pleasures and arousing in them the instinct for beauty. The theory of art is sufficiently described by saying that it is the denial of Ruskin *in toto*, and with some sharpness, and more particularly that it is an unfavorable criticism of Burne Jones and others of the idealist school. This last is enforced by the opinion on the pictures of the Romanticists spoken by the workingmen for whose benefit they were exhibited. Naturally Mrs. Pennell found that pictures that told some story were the most popular, and that the intellectual or mythical allegorizing of Burne Jones was not understood. The article is not convincing, but it is written with an interest that enlivens it, and it offers a direct view of the process of a noteworthy experiment. Mr. Cook concludes his survey of the Marriage-Contract, to which we have before called special attention, by a summary of the law in the United States. He has no good opinion of that law, and thinks that it places us in the rear of European nations, and even in some respects of savage tribes. The theory that marriage is a personal right has been carried to the extreme here, and in by far the greater part of the country the courts acknowledge the consent of the parties, without any other element whatever, to constitute the bond. He points out the defects of such a theory, with regard to the real interests of society in the institution, and he argues strongly that it constitutes a danger in view of the character of the negro, foreign, and city population over which the law, as so decided, largely rules. He seems to think that ignorance that valid marriage can be constituted in so simple a way may account for the little injury thus far suffered; but with the disappearance of the ignorance we may look for an increase of incon-

venience. The argument and the facts are well worthy of attention.

—*Scribner's* artistic article this month contains many fine cuts of Greek vases, which must prove very welcome to the many who are interested in art of this kind, but to whom such reproductions are not easily accessible. The text is by Mr. Longfellow, and is closely confined to the subject, which it unfolds with special reference to questions of style and taste. Mr. Ropes concludes the sketch of Waterloo, and gives a very definite solution of Napoleon's losing a battle which it would seem from this account belonged to him, had he taken proper care, so far as position was concerned. Gibraltar is the subject of an unusually interesting paper of travel by the Rev. Henry M. Field, and the excellent illustrations give the appearance of the great rock from many points of view with admirable truth. The most notable article in popular interest is Gen. Greely's analysis of the atmospheric conditions of the country with reference to the choice of summer resorts. He recommends, as "moderately dry and not too warm a climate," the coast and islands of Maine and the southern coast of New England between Nantucket and Stonington. Long Island and the New Jersey beaches he regards as less desirable than the Lake region. For a very dry climate, not too hot in summer, he selects the White, Green, and Adirondack Mountains, and the country between the Blue Ridge and the Kanawha Ridge, Cumberland and Clinch Mountains. For comfortable bathing, one should go south of the mouth of Long Island Sound. To get rid of the hottest weather, vacations should be taken not later than the 10th of July. Travel or residence in the Rocky Mountains and westward is discouraged in July and August. No portion of the Pacific States is recommended for summer visitors "except a narrow strip along the coast or on the salt-water bays," which the sea breezes visit. Gen. Greely gives two maps by which one can see the lines of average temperature and of humidity, both of which are interesting for their irregular curves, especially in the Blue Ridge region.

—Mr. George Saintsbury, who has recently employed himself with saying the best word for several of the minor writers of the earlier part of the century, devotes a paper in the March *Macmillan's* to Thomas Moore, in whose songs he still finds living poetry. He does not make a convincing argument; and, in fact, only appeals to the direct impression made by Moore's songs. This is, for the critic, to stand aside and leave the poems to make their own way, and doubtless Moore will affect the sensibilities of a certain class so long as he can get himself read. In the course of the review, nowever, Mr. Saintsbury makes some very true remarks about setting poems to music. Shelley, for example, though our greatest lyrist since the Elizabethans, had no ear for music, and the melody of his poetry is not that of song to be sung. The poems of Shelley have not been successfully set to music, according to Mr. Saintsbury, and even if they had been more skilfully treated, the melody of the notes would still be essentially different from that of the syllables. Burns and Scott, who also had no ear for music, are instances on the other side, because their songs are easily put into musical form. In Moore's case, however, the words and the music go together with such ease that "it never seems to have mattered to him whether he wrote the words for the air or altered the air to suit the words." The question raised is an obscure one. Shelley certainly was very sensitive to music, whether he had an ear for it, technically speaking, or not; the assertion that he was deficient is Peacock's, whose testimony is not the best on anything relating to Shelley. For Burns and Scott, we take Mr. Saintsbury's word, though it would be desirable to know just how much he means by an "ear for music." Independent of this, there does appear to be a music of poetry in itself, distinct from the music of song; and one may be a master of the former without having any but a rudimentary sense of the latter. It is not quite clear that Moore, by uniting the two, rises to any extraordinary height merely by so doing. It is an interesting fact, however, that his name should still be so much alive as to draw forth a biography from a Frenchman, M. Gustave Vallat, which is the occasion of this article.

—Dr. Garnett, in a lecture before the Shelley Society upon "Shelley and Lord Beaconsfield," has brought to public notice the curious but not surprising fact that the latter, in his novel, 'Venetia,' drew Shelley's character out of his own mouth by the easiest of methods. Speaking of the conversation between Herbert (Byron) and Cadurcis (Shelley), Dr. Garnett says: "The most striking passages—with a freedom which would have justly subjected Disraeli to the imputation of plagiarism if he had not put them into the mouth of Shelley himself—are taken out of one of the least known of his works." Much of it is derived from the 'Discourse on the Manners of the Ancients,' apparently from the fragment given by Medwin in 1833, as the whole text did not appear until three years after 'Venetia.' Besides Medwin, Disraeli may have drawn from his servant, Tita, who was formerly Byron's, and was at Lerici with Shelley, and also from Hogg through Bulwer Lytton, and possibly directly from Trelawny. Dr. Garnett points out that in the novel the situation of Cadurcis is from Byron's life, and only the character is Shelleyan. This character, as Disraeli presents it, "is drawn in conformity with the most orthodox Shelleyan tradition precisely as Mrs. Shelley and Trelawny and Hogg and Medwin have agreed to represent the poet." This shows that Disraeli must have taken pains to learn about him. But that Disraeli was strongly attracted by Shelley two years before he began to write 'Venetia,' is proved by his forgotten 'Revolutionary Epic,' which, as Dr. Garnett observes, "bears its obligations to Shelley blazoned upon its front." It is a most palpable copy in style and structure and the very quality of its words. This was in 1834. The date is worthy of notice. Dr. Garnett sees in the 'Epic' and in 'Venetia' proofs of the genuine interest inspired in Disraeli by Shelley; and respecting the verdict rendered in the novel, he says: "So clear a deliverance from a person of Lord Beaconsfield's eminence conspicuously marks a stage in the history of public opinion respecting Shelley. If far from coming up to the claims justly advanced on Shelley's behalf by the members of his own circle, or the author of 'Pauline' [1832], or the young enthusiasts who had taken him up at Cambridge [1829], it is as great an advance on the condescension of Moore as that was on the verdict of the *Quarterly Review*." The episode is an interesting one, which thus connects two such exceptional Englishmen, the most exceptional, indeed, in our century. Dr. Garnett thinks that Theodora in 'Lothair' would have been Shelley's favorite heroine; but this is speculating about a past taste.

—Prof. C. A. Buchheim, already well known to many of our pedagogic readers, has just published (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan) a volume of selections from Becker's 'Weltgeschichte' illustrating the life of Frederick the Great. Nothing could be more admirably planned, so it seems to us, than this little volume. An English introduction of twenty pages sketches the rise of the Hohenzollern dynasty. The extracts from Becker, one hundred and eleven pages, illustrate the successive periods of Frederick's life, prominence being given of course to the Seven Years' War. The notes, in fifty-six pages, explain difficulties in grammar and structure and (chiefly) in the historical and geographical statements. There is a map of the territory in contention between Austria and Prussia, and an alphabetical index of persons and place-names. Evidently the editor has had in mind students not far advanced and wishing to familiarize themselves thoroughly with German narrative prose. To such, Becker's style, clear, straightforward, free from rhetorical contortion, is perfectly adapted. The editor has done all in his power to make an intensely interesting epoch of modern history attractive and intelligible to the beginner in history and language. And for this he merits the thanks of all his English-speaking colleagues.

—Seldom have excavations on Greek soil rendered more speedy and brilliant results than have those which are now conducted at Icaria by the American School of Classical Studies at Athens, as described at length in the last number of the *Nation*. The work has been like the opening of a great chest of hidden and forgotten treasures. Within six weeks from the beginning of the work, although only half-a-dozen men were employed at first, a museum of antiquities has been formed, besides the determination of an important site. Within the last week, news has come of the discovery of the Pythion, or temple of Apollo at Icaria, with a pretty relief representing Apollo with long curls seated on the *omphalos*, holding up a handful of twigs in one hand, and a patera in the other. Behind him stands a woman, while in front is an altar with an adorant. Another relief represents Apollo playing on the lyre. Not far away, a large platform of marble has been found, a marble seat, some bases; and two walls, one of which makes a curve as if it might enclose the dancing-ground of a theatre. Several other foundations have been uncovered by the trial trenches which have been dug. The field for operations has widened indefinitely, and the thorough examination of the site is a much greater undertaking than was at first supposed. Another ruin in the same valley invites excavation and exploration. Icaria has been treated as at least half mythical; but the deme steps forward now with greater distinctness than any other rural district of Attica.

—'Mounds [*kurgani*] and Occasional Archæological Finds near the Hamlet of Smyela' is the title of a diary kept, during the space of five years, by Count Alexei Bobrinsky, and now published. Between 1879 and 1885 Count Bobrinsky investigated fifty-three mounds in the vicinity of Smyela, in the southern part of the Government of Kieff. These excavations were chiefly conducted by sinking shafts which were sometimes thirty-two feet in diameter, through the centre of the mound, from its summit to its very bottom. Everything that was met with was carefully noted, as well as its position in the mound. In most cases it proved that the lofty mounds had served as the burial place for two different tribes, separated from each other by a great period of time and a noticeable difference in culture. The first inhabitants of the place dug a grave for their dead, covered it with a wooden framework, and heaped above it a lofty, pointed hillock,

Three or four graves, generally of the same epoch, were apt to be found under one mound. In them lay people with remarkably long skulls. As a rule, there were no objects pertaining to daily life lying around them; sometimes flint arrows and knives, or lumps of pigment for tattooing, were encountered. Occasionally the bones of the mole and other small rodents were found. The succeeding race made use of the mounds, burying their dead on top of the first. The skulls of these skeletons are of a form entirely different from those of their predecessors, and in their graves objects of bronze and bits of clay vessels are met with; all of which point to a different nationality for the races. Quite another race was revealed by the examination of one of a throng of low mounds, huddled together to the number of several hundred. This people had bronze and iron implements, held intercourse with the Greeks of the seacoast colonies, and did not place the bones of moles and so forth in their graves, like the two previous tribes. Bits of colored stuffs still lay on some of the skeletons, fragments of galloons, and even brass knee-caps, such as were used by the Greeks. Count Bobrinsky makes the suggestion that these graves may have belonged to a certain tribe, of Greek extraction, whom Herodotus mentions as having lived amid the Scythians, in the interior of Russia. However, the author considers his data insufficient for the construction of any theory, and confines himself to a very careful and minute description of everything found, and its situation, with the aid of two maps and twenty-four plates.

RUSKIN'S PRÆTERITA.

Præterita: Outlines of Scenes and Thoughts, perhaps Worthy of Memory, in my Past Life. By John Ruskin, LL.D. 2 vols. 1886-1887. John Wiley & Sons.

At one point in this story Mr. Ruskin, speaking of himself when just past his majority, asks the reader, "Does he think me a lucky or an unlucky youth, I wonder? commendable on the whole and exemplary, or the reverse?" It is not easy to reply. He himself says that the real fact was "that hitherto, and for a year or two on yet, I was simply a little floppy and soppy tadpole—little more than a stomach with a tail to it, flattening and wriggling itself up the crystal ripples and in the pure sands of the springhead of youth." The autobiography, at all events, describes the tadpole stage of existence, professing to record only the formative years of the author's life; and naturally it is a history of his home, with his near relatives for its leading characters, and the things of childhood and youth for incidents. We shall endeavor to give some account of it, and leave the reader to judge whether Ruskin's education was enviable, and he himself a model boy after any conceivable pattern of perfection.

His mother was the daughter of the landlady of the old King's Head at Croydon, and after attending at a day-school where she became the best needlewoman and otherwise first pupil, being also trained to good housewifery, she went to Scotland to keep house for her uncle and aunt, and commended herself to the son of the family, her cousin, four years her junior; when he started for London seven years later, the two were engaged. Nine years of waiting followed on this, and then Mr. Ruskin, having established himself in the wine business and paid his father's debts, married her. He chose his wife, says his son, "with the same kind of serenity and decision with which afterwards he chose his clerks." Elsewhere we are told that he chose his clerks for their "incapacity," not liking to be excelled himself; but this is not to be used as a comment on his selection of a wife. The ceremony was speedily and almost secretly performed, and the two entered upon a life which continued to be very quiet.

Ruskin was the only child of this late union, and when his memory begins, his mother must have passed her fortieth year. He was destined from the cradle, in the hope of his parents, to be a bishop, and perhaps this may have had something to do with the severity of his religious education. He was taught, first and last, the Bible; his mother read it with him daily until he was fourteen, with much attention to his utterance and also to the meaning; nothing was omitted; in this way "she began with the first verse of Genesis, and went straight through, to the last verse of the Apocalypse; hard names, Numbers, Levitical law, and all; and began again at Genesis the next day." He had also much to commit to memory, and he used to write out abstracts of sermons that he heard. No playthings to speak of were allowed him; a set of blocks and an architectural bridge seem to have been all. He was whipped on all proper occasions, and so learned to be quiet and obedient and not to tumble down stairs. He was not allowed to do anything in which he might meet with an accident, and had none of the sports of boys; in fact, he never had any real association with boys. He learned his lessons and played as he could, and he had a place in the drawing-room at tea, a "cup of milk and slice of bread-and-butter in a little recess, with a table in front of it, wholly sacred to me; and in which I remained in the evenings as an idol in a niche, while my mother knitted, and my father read to her—and to me, so far as I chose to listen." His appetite was not cloyed with sweets nor his digestion ruined with desserts; he actually remembers his first taste of custard as an event. The servants were allowed to do nothing for him except what it was their duty to do. In short, he was most beautifully taken care of according to his mother's idea of what was proper.

He himself notices some few of the consequences. In the first place, he says, he had nothing to love, and so grew up without affection, his father and mother being like powers of nature to him; and he had also nothing to endure, no independent exercise of his perceptions of right and wrong or other training in any school of self-control, no education in social manners. These defects he afterwards perceived, but to what extent is uncertain. At the end of the volumes we find these significant sentences: "The thoughtful reader must have noted with some displeasure that I have scarcely, whether at college or at home, used the word 'friendship' with respect to any of my companions. The fact is, I am a little puzzled by the specialty and singularity of poetical and classical friendship. I get, distinctively, attached to places, to pictures, to dogs, cats, and girls; but I have had, heaven be thanked, many and true friends, young and old, who have been of boundless help and good to me, nor I quite helpless to them; yet for none of whom have I ever obeyed George Herbert's mandate, 'Thy friend put in thy bosom!'" His interests, generally speaking, were in impersonal things.

The household, however, is not completely described in what has been said. He was himself to be a bishop, but his father and mother were only *nouveaux riches*, and they had an English sense of that fact. They were economical, kept only female servants, and no horse, had but one acre of leasehold land for the garden, and gave no great entertainments. There were occasionally dinners to customers, with excellent sherry; there were few callers, his mother not caring to leave a card on foot at the doors of ladies who dashed up to hers in their barouches. On the other hand, the child perceived that there was a discernible distance observed towards the Croydon relatives, whom he was not often allowed to visit; and when the rare occasion came, he was never permitted to go off to play with his cousins. His father had but two ambitions, one to head the list of sherry importations, and the other that his son should be a genius, preferably in the Church, and, if not there, then among the poets. He had a romantic streak in him, and after he had fretted a little with his wife, if the orders were less than had been expected that day, he read Scott, Shakspere, 'Don Quixote,' Byron, the 'Noctes Ambrosianæ,' and the like, and he read these authors without "the least missing of the naughty words," oblivious of the "Idol in the Niche." In time it came about that the boy, now in early teens, was asked what he would like to hear, and one day he noticed glances exchanged across the table when he "instantly answered 'Juan and Haidée.'" The selection was not adopted, and apparently the youth did not know what he was asking for. Certainly there was no prudery in the literature he was used to peruse or hear, beginning with the Bible; in connection with this he defends his mother from a suggested comparison with Esther's religious aunt in 'Bleak House.' The passage is curious:

> "For, on the contrary, there was a hearty, frank, and sometimes even irrepressible laugh in my mother! never sardonic, yet with a very definitely Smollettesque turn in it! so that between themselves she and my father enjoyed their 'Humphrey Clinker' extremely, long before *I* was able to understand either the jest or gist of it. Much more, she could exult in a harmless bit of Smollettesque reality. Years and years after this time, in one of our crossings of the Simplon, just at the top, where we had stopped to look about us, Nurse Anne sat down to rest herself on the railings at the roadside, just in front of the monastery, . . . lost her balance and went backwards over the railings down the bank. My father could not help suggesting that she had done it expressly for the entertainment of the Holy Fathers; and neither he nor my mother could ever speak of the 'performance' (as they called it) afterwards without laughing for a quarter of an hour."

It is worth notice, too, that having seen Taglioni once, his mother went whenever she was asked; and that his father would join him in a Sunday walk in Wales, though both of them had "a subdued consciousness of being profane and rebellious characters, compared with my mother." His father would talk sherry on Sunday, too. Altogether, there are anecdotes enough to show that religiousness was a matter of the child's education, but was mixed with mollifying elements in the parents.

Ruskin himself was really forced upon his mind and his books for what individual life he had. He wrote verses and stories and liked to possess a few geological specimens; he sketched a good deal; and these were the beginnings of his literary and artistic life. He was never really a scholar, not even as a boy. But what he learned best of all was to have a very high opinion of himself and his doings. He measured himself with no one, and his parents had backed him against the field for a bishopric or the laureate. When he was taken to riding-school, and he kept falling off, and the thing was given up, they took his not learning to ride as being a proof of a singular genius. They were never very cordial to a certain Mr. Pringle, who was the first person to intimate, "with some decision, that there were as yet no trustworthy

indications" of their son's eclipsing Milton and Byron. The youth, since he had talents, was bound to grow up, to borrow his own words, "nothing more than a conceited and unentertainingly troublesome little monkey." But he grew up, as we all do, at last, and the time came for him to go to Oxford, where he was duly entered as a gentleman commoner, one reason being that he might fail to pass examination as a commoner, and another that he would be a wearer of velvet and silk—"Yes, good reader, the velvet and silk made a difference not to my mother only, but to me."

Such a "home-boy" at Oxford was a *rara avis*, more particularly in such a set. He was safe enough, as he shows by the catalogue of his disqualifications. He had never touched a card, and he looked on dice "as people now do on dynamite"; he couldn't ride, he didn't bet, he had no temptation to be extravagant, because there were no Turners, and he was safe from "the strange woman," partly because he was in love, and "besides never allowed to be out after half-past nine." But he fared very well, behaved very nicely, worked at his books, and sustained his few rebuffs and student lessons well enough. His mother came down to spend the three years near him, and had lodgings in High Street where he went every evening: she wished to be by if he should be ill; and his father lived alone at home, except that he joined them on Sundays, and the three went "in the old domestic way to St. Peter's for the Sunday morning service; otherwise they never appeared in public, lest my companions should laugh at me, or any one else ask malicious questions concerning vintner papa and his old-fashioned wife." One wonders a little what Ruskin learned there, as we find him the next year saying at Rome that he "was not quite sure whether Trajan lived before Christ or after," and that he "would have thanked, with a sense of relieved satisfaction, anybody who might have told me that Marcus Antoninus was a Roman philosopher contemporary with Socrates."

The peculiarity of this family which has not been touched upon was a taste for pictures. Rogers's 'Italy' had early made the boy acquainted with Turner; and pictures had been bought—one Copley Fielding, which is recorded as the first real purchase—and others in turn. It was in Ruskin's taste the period of what he calls Proutism. A second important matter, yet unnoticed, is that the three took journeys together, at first in England to make the rounds of the country customers for sherry, and then very often on the Continent. Ruskin identifies the sources of his real education as Rouen, Geneva, and Pisa; but he does not disclose the method or history of their teaching in these volumes, though he has much to say of the last two in a strain of eulogy and description to which we are well accustomed. The first sight of the Alps from Schaffhausen, when he was fourteen years old, he counts as his awakening hour, and he describes it finely, of course; but he did not then know what it meant to him. When he visited Italy, just after leaving Oxford, he was ill, but the sort of appreciation of which he was capable is easily seen, and the forming style of 'Modern Painters' is easily read, in the extracts from his diary. The one noticeable thing is a good result of his wilful conceit in his refusal to take other people's eyes and judgments for his own, and in his rejection of what, whether rightly or wrongly, he did not like. This was so marked that he says his recent purchase of a Turner in a rather unbusinesslike way, which horrified his father, "coupled with my now irrepressible impertinences to Raphael and Domenichino, began to give me in my parents' eyes something of the distant aspect of the Prodigal Son."

The kind old people had a good deal to bear with him, first and last; but he was, by means of these journeys and the use of his faculties, gradually getting out of the tadpole state, and in a year or two more had won his way with the first volume of 'Modern Painters,' and was coming into that real education of which he does not tell the story at all, though he paints a few of its Alpine and Italian scenes. The son's progress was pleasing to his father, who was so anxious that he should be famous. Ruskin would read the fine passages of his manuscript after breakfast, and he says his father generally cried a little over them, but he grew aware of a difference arising between them, and when his father "found himself required to admire flat walls, striped like the striped calico of an American flag, and oval-eyed saints like the figures on a Chinese tea cup, he grew restive. Further, all the fine writing and polite éclat of 'Modern Painters' had never reconciled him to my total resignation of the art of poetry." A page or two later there is a speaking bit of penitence, on occasion of the old man's interrupting an æsthetic revery, as they were driving past the La Spina chapel at Pisa, with a question as to what he should give the coachman; whereupon, as the son says, "I took upon me with impatience to reprove and lament over my father's hardness of heart in thinking at that moment of sublunary affairs." But, notwithstanding such selfishness and conceit on the son's part, of which this is an example, his feeling towards his parents was always filial, and the relations between them grateful and indulgent.

The chapter, or rather, if one may say so, the continued episode, of Ruskin's love affairs is given very much emphasis. He fell in love with Adèle, the daughter of his father's partner, M. Domecq, a Catholic and somewhat foolish young lady, but she laughed at him. He says it was a serious matter to him, which he remembers with a kind of shame, but one does not see that there was any real passion in it or personal love, though he was moody over it for some years of adolescence. He takes a curious pleasure in ridiculing himself in this as in other parts of his early life. "In my social behavior and mind I was a curious combination of Mr. Traddles, Mr. Toots, and Mr. Winkle. I had the real fidelity and single-mindedness of Mr. Traddles, with the conversational abilities of Mr. Toots, and the heroic ambition of Mr. Winkle—all these illuminated by imagination like Mr. Copperfield's at his first Norwood dinner." He endeavored to recommend himself by giving her his views on Transubstantiation, to dazzle her by printing his first romance, "The Bandit Leoni," in 'Friendship's Offering,' and to melt her by a long French letter describing the desolation after her absence; but Adèle laughed—that was all. It was first love in a very young form. There were others later—a face in Rome, an eligible *parti* in England, and a charming Charlotte whom he wooed by writing a review; but all this is the mere drift of the time, related to his life only by chance. Of more interest and vastly more pleasure are the half-dozen portraits of the narrative, the Scottish relatives and servants and one or two Englishmen; best of all, Acland and Osborne, admirable examples of early English manhood; but these are not integral in the life and career of Ruskin, any more than the discussions of Byron or the descriptions of the Riviera which give substance to the volumes, and must be left one side.

Altogether these passages from Ruskin's past life illustrate his defects rather than his virtues. He looks on the figure he cut in them as usually comical and ridiculous, as may be seen from the quotations we have made; and, with all allowance for his exaggeration in expression, and with due regard for the fact that a man has a better right to laugh at himself than others to laugh at him, we think Ruskin is quite correct in the view he takes. This was a foolish way to bring up a child, and foolishness was justified of her works. His isolation from other boys and their rough-and-ready doings explains, in some measure, the deficient manliness of his character, his lack of practical sagacity, and his incapacity for rational conduct in affairs. With the best motives and lofty aims, he has foiled himself because he cannot deal with men as his equals, and has succeeded only when it was possible for him to move among them as a patron. The conceit that was bred in him has never been eradicated; he calls it by other names as he grows older, but the thing remains unchanged, and there are half-a-dozen examples of it here which would be incredible in any other writer. Where his own talent is concerned he has little sense of proportion, and often none at all; and, of course, his opinions are simply of Delphic authority. The religious influences, too, largely defeated themselves; it is not agreeable to read his remarks about his early belief and his routine devotions, because their tone is really cynical. His religion became a cult of historical æstheticism in art, and a fervid obedience to that half of the moral law which is concerned with the duties of man to his neighbor. It is a pity that his autobiography should deal only with these childish things, and not illustrate at all that ethical instinct which makes him memorable. His narrative is also marred to us very much because he is conscious of the vulgarity of his origin in a way hardly consistent with true dignity. He often speaks rather patronizingly of his parents, and this is a fault both of taste and of justice. Such reflections as these are bound to arise in the mind, and it is impossible to offset their weight; but the volumes are written like friendly confidences, and, in the case of a friend, one would not judge, but rather obey the maxim written more than once in these pages: *Guarda e passa.*

ROOSEVELT'S BENTON.

Benton. By Theodore Roosevelt. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

THE announcement that the next biography in the "Statesmen" series would be by Theodore Roosevelt reminded us that we had failed to notice his Life of Benton, which was published more than a year ago. For this omission an apology is due to the author; but we beg him to believe that his book, if not reviewed in type, has been viewed and reviewed more than once in the study. Thomas Hart Benton is worth studying both as a type and individual. Mr. Roosevelt has most correctly shown that he is a representative of the West in its early generation as distinguished at once from the East and the South; that it is a pure blunder to suppose, because he was a Missourian, descended from Virginians, that therefore he and his like are to be ranked as essentially belonging to the South as opposed to the North; or as upholders of slavery as opposed to equality. The men who subdued and held the Mississippi Valley in the first quarter of this century were rapidly consolidating a community of their own, which looked to such men as Benton as its leaders, and which surveyed both the south-

western and the northeastern maritime States as equally open to its alliance or antagonism. The mutual compliments of Hayne and Benton in the famous debate of 1830 can be interpreted on no other principle. Mr. Roosevelt is particularly accurate in dealing with the Western, or, as we may properly call it, in contrast with our later West, the Southwestern character, as affected by the slavery question. He shows that, though Benton and those whom he represented were slaveholders, the institution occupied an entirely different place in their lives from what it did in those of the Coast cotton-lords. Mr. Roosevelt's eighth chapter is particularly instructive on this topic.

In his lively and energetic development of the Western character, the author seems to us at times carried away so as to overlook its defects. There is something dangerously like Carlyle's eulogy on old Frederick William in the encomiums he bestows on the hard, dogged, fighting farmers that considered the sum and substance of national duty to be swarming out the Indians and Mexicans, and "revindicating," as a Frenchman might say, the Mississippi Valley—forcibly if they could, peaceably if they must—for the sons of the settlers on the Upper Cumberland and the French Broad. There is a stain of blood and iron, muscular Christianity *minus* the Christian part, in the author's philosophy of civilization, as it appears from parts of some of his chapters, which look as if he was "spoiling for a fight." If Mr. Roosevelt shall be an active American statesman thirty years hence, we trust he will recast more than one sentence in his chapter on the "Boundary Troubles with England," when a longer life shall have shown him the boundless evils entailed by war.

In his account of the strife of parties during the Administrations of Jackson, Van Buren, and Tyler, the author has aimed to combine a reasonable regard for the demands, motives, and passions of the times, with the coolness of a philosophic historian who surveys the whole after the event, when the actors each saw only a part. He has undoubtedly succeeded well in this effort; he shows that he really appreciates the intense interest attaching to the Congressional and popular contests of this period, so little appreciated by common students of American history, who seem to know little or nothing of any great debates between that on Foote's resolution and that on the compromise of 1850. His account contains many very acute and sensible verdicts on the great men of that time, from among which we would especially refer to a judgment upon Mr. Calhoun on pages 165–168. It is too long to injure by quotation; but we advise all who have adopted the prevalent views of statesmen of 1830–1850 to ponder, in the light of all we now know, this entire passage, and especially its closing sentences: "Doubtless in private life, or as regards any financial matters, Calhoun's conduct was always blameless; but it may well be that he has received far more credit for purity of motive in his public conduct than his action fairly entitled him to."

We are not certain that Mr. Roosevelt does not like to find such verdicts a little too well. After reading over very carefully his account of American politics during Benton's "thirty years in the United States Senate," to transfer the title of a book to a life, it seems to us that with a little practice he might rival Macaulay's description of Hallam, and be the "hanging judge, the Page or Buller," of American history. His black cap is always on. There is some radical defect of heart or head or both in every one of the characters of that remarkable period as he handles them. He can hardly make out that Mr. Benton was the wisest of all of them, or the most unprejudiced, or the least infected with party violence—and indeed it is fair to say that his regard for his hero never degenerates into worship or Boswellism; but he continues to leave on one's mind the general impression that Benton had more single-hearted patriotism than any of his great competitors. We must express our conviction that this deduction is essentially unjust to several of them.

The fact is, that Benton was one of those men who mistook getting very angry for being deeply convinced. He had the peculiar narrowness of mind which belongs to the citizen of a big community as opposed to a great nation. At the time of the battle of Salamis, Athens was very small and the Egyptians very numerous. At the time of Peter the Great, Holland was very small and the Russians very numerous. But as far as real breadth and depth and height of humanity was concerned, Athens and Holland were centuries ahead of Egypt and Russia. So in Benton's time; the idea of the manifest destiny and boundless expansion of the pioneers of the West was a limited and barren idea in comparison, not merely with the wishes, but with the limitations that belong to the statesman of the East. It may be that New England failed to comprehend the future greatness of Oregon; but Mr. Choate's speech on the boundary dispute has, to our mind, far more of the real greatness of nationality than all the 54° 40′ hurrahs, which appear to strike a responsive chord in Mr. Roosevelt's heart. Missouri was a very great State, Delaware a very little one; but we cannot help thinking the speeches of Senator Clayton, with all his undoubted faults, would be a better institute of politics than those of Senator Benton, with all his virtues. It can hardly be that all the assertions of nationality made by all the wings of the Democratic party from 1807 to 1847 did as much to bar the right of search, once for all, as Mr. Webster's unanswered and unanswerable despatch to Lord Aberdeen. Undoubtedly the opposition to General Jackson let party get the better of patriotism sometimes, as all parties will. But that on the whole they maintained a higher tone of national and international morality than his friends did, is our conviction more than it seems to be Mr. Roosevelt's.

The conclusion of Mr. Benton's life, with the injustice of his own State to him, is well told. We regret that Mr. Roosevelt could give no more space to the private life of so individual a personage. Indeed, he seems towards the end of his volume to be under pressure to finish a book which was perhaps too diffuse in its early parts. The impression he leaves on his readers of his subject is on the whole favorable. An honesty of purpose which was persistent and sincere, though often found allied through party with very different qualities in other men; an energy not always according to reason and humanity, but untiring and undaunted; a culture often uncouth, diffuse, and untimely, yet apparently the growth of a real love of learning and improvement; a patriotism narrow, prejudiced, local, yet steadily growing wider and loftier; a pugnacity, more appropriate to an earlier period of the world's history, which said, "I do well to be angry," mixed with a real kindliness of feeling where the old pioneer temper of suspicion was overcome—these combinations make a character that one cannot help noticing, cannot help censuring, yet which has on the whole strong titles to our respect, though perhaps not quite as high as that which our author accords.

Mr. Roosevelt has not failed to notice Benton's queer fondness for a certain kind of inflated eloquence and undigested learning. He is quite right in connecting this taste with Jefferson's name; but the whole race of Virginia statesmen was more or less addicted to it. A delicious instance of how Benton managed to use his hobby of free salt as seasoning for his *macédoine* of classics, will be found on page 93.

We cannot always commend the style of this biography as we could wish. There is a decidedly journalistic flavor about it. "Voiced," "stay for good," "dwarfed all other issues," remind us much of our esteemed contemporaries. There is also a marked flavor of the "boundless paroarer" when describing the inhabitants of that region. But such defects are more than compensated by the number of very shrewd remarks, in very racy and at the same time perfectly classical English, upon a variety of subjects as to which too many people hold conventional views expressed in conventional phrase. We would specially commend the remarks on Randolph's eloquence (p. 62); on the tariff (p. 67); on Harrison's nomination (p. 232); on Southern sympathy with Kossuth (p. 275); and on Jefferson (p. 276).

RECENT NOVELS.

Mrs. Pennicot's Lodger, and Other Stories. By Lady Sophia Palmer. Macmillan & Co.

Roy's Repentance. By Adeline Sergeant. Henry Holt & Co.

Harmonia: A Chronicle. By the author of 'Estelle Russell.' Macmillan & Co.

Looking Backward. By Edward Bellamy. Boston: Ticknor & Co.

The Doctor of Deane. By Mary Towle Palmer. Boston: D. Lothrop Co.

Lady Sophia Palmer's book of stories is certainly above the average in originality, imaginative quality, and variety of subjects. Of the six sketches, one is made on Italian ground, one on French, one on Judaean; the remaining three, though all English, range from London to Hinde Head, the dialects from a Sussex drover's to that of a London lodging-house keeper. It would be captious, perhaps, to assert that these features give the book the aspect of an itinerary, since the graceful dedication states that the stories were written mainly to preserve differences of custom and speech. This would seem a superfluous task, for English peasantry of all time are likely to say "they was," and Italians to exclaim "Madonna mia"; and deeper than this the geographic distinctions hardly go. A better reason for the existence of the book is that the stories are fresh, compact, vivid, and tender, and written, excepting an occasional obscure sentence, in the facile style which is second nature to our English sisters, and with a directness not always theirs. If the tales cannot be ranked in the first class, they take a highly honorable place in the second.

That this same English facility of pen may be a fatal possession is every day attested by a fresh flood of novels relating to the ill-used and irresistible governess. Unworthy and poor relations of 'Jane Eyre,' they inherit from their immortal progenitor a few outward features with none of her bone and sinew. We should suppose that the most all-devouring reader of fiction must by this time be sated with the adventures of this persecuted yet all-conquering young person, and that the manufactory for the production of novels for her benefit might be closed—for there must be one, as there is said to be for Verboeckhovens. In 'Roy's Repentance' the wandering Jewess appears under the name of Laurence Erle. She is of distinguished parentage, even of noble on

the maternal side. Her father is, unhappily, only a rich merchant; but we are mortal. She does not know that she is handsome. This ignorance is the birthright of her race, and they part with it only on overhearing comment from their pupils' elder brothers. Miss Erle has the further advantage of hearing herself called a cameo, across the garden wall, by a chance passer-by, while she holds a position in a school. That he, in order to spare her feelings, with true tact, so soon as he perceives he is heard, professes to have been speaking of the gargoyle, does not deceive the reader, and still leaves the governess in possession of the charm of unconsciousness—a felicitous device. Of course there is no place for cameos in a boarding-school, and this cameo, after the usual interlude in London, at the usual neat lodgings, kept by the usual old family retainer, becomes a governess in a family which, as usual, proves to be that of her mural admirer. Her charges are the historic three—the good one, the bad one, the indifferent one. The elder brothers are at once her slaves, and she sets about reforming the inebriate habits of the one and repelling the love-making of the other. The old invalid gentleman up stairs also finds her the staff of his life. The surrounding women, it is needless to say, are embodiments of envy and malice. In this school of novels the unconsciously beautiful heroine is always the monopolist of sense, virtue, and charm. Small wonder that, from the family lawyer to the family butler, all the masculine characters burn incense to her. But one figure is still wanting—the hero—who in due time, with full equipment of disillusionized heart and cynic brain, is ushered in with thunder and lightning in the nick of time to save the governess from death by a splitting fir tree. In five minutes she is telling him, "I have no pleasure in my life. My years are like a blank, dull waste," and he is saying, "You will not think so by and by, when the sun is shining and you are conscious of the young, vigorous life," etc.

The most salient feature of 'Harmonia' is its length, but, after enduring for a season, one learns to pity, and in a mild degree embrace, even as a sojourner in some dull village passes from apathy to observation, and thence to interest in the prosy annals of the place. 'Harmonia' disarms criticism by styling itself a chronicle; wisely, for there is no plot, no construction, no climax, but day upon day of little doings. The persons are chiefly English settlers of to-day in a wholly unreconstructed Southern State of America, who are trying to build a town, farm the land, and make their fortunes. The juxtaposition of English and the native blacks makes a contrast in races effective and new. The few white Americans who appear are mainly "poor trash," or swindling land-agents, or shirking clergymen. The exceptions are one or two American women who, spite of the inevitable English appointments for American women of hobbies and divorces, are meant to be, and are, attractive characters. In other words, it is an English view of life on American soil; the livers being English, under the not unpicturesque phase of a new settlement in a region comparatively old. It is observable that this gives the English a capital chance to have the best of it, and we must own to sharing the wicked American land-agent's regret that the foreign settlers should buy up the land, obtain influence, and yet despise the privileges of citizenship. The wicked land-agent's revenge even Americans must deplore, but it is well to allude to it, that those intending to read the book may perceive that it is not wholly without the scent of battle. There is burglary, there is kidnapping, there are snakes, but not to any uncomfortable extent. Naturally arise the discussions of a thousand topics —personal, social, and political—which are treated with honesty and spirit. The negro portraits are especially lifelike, though not from most agreeable originals. The English colony, as hinted, absorbs most of the merit and the spoils. Among its numbers are some very real persons, and the chronicle of their very real doings, told with humor and zest, will have an attraction for those who like pictures of life and manners rather than form and dramatic quality—pictures, let it be added, nearly coequal in extent with the original occurrences.

Forecasting the future by projecting one's self into the next century has been a favorite feat since literature was in its cradle, and bids fair to be so till its grave. Mr. Bellamy, however, has succeeded in investing the well-worn theme with a new interest, not only by certain original machinery, but by his evident enthusiasm for his subject. "Looking Backward" is a well-made book, but it is more—a glowing prophecy and a gospel of peace. He who reads it expecting merely to be entertained must, we should think, find himself unexpectedly haunted by visions of a golden age wherein all the world unites to do the world's work like members of one family, where labor and a living are provided for each man, where toil and leisure alternate in happy proportions, where want and therefore greed and jealousy are unknown, where the pleasures of this world are free to all, to cheer but not enslave. The miracle is wrought by "the national organization of labor under one direction." He who would ask if this be sound political economy, let him ask if Donatello's ears were really furry. To hold up to contemplation a world "blessed with plenty, purified by justice, and sweetened by brotherly kindness" is one of the good offices of romance. Thanks to Mr. Bellamy's ingenious device, we can see it with our own nineteenth-century eyes, and enjoy besides the mysteries he prepares. Thanks to the larger interests of the book, we can put it down in a pleasing tingle of optimism. Mr. George might object that the author begs the land question, that his schemes ought theoretically to have restored the state of society of ancient Peru instead of bringing about the millennium; but Mr. George himself would rejoice in a realized ideal of socialism such as this, and would even forgive the presence of his favorite bugbear, "white parasols and elephants mad with pride."

If the village of Deane had been properly drained, the 'Doctor of Deane' would never have been written. As it is a book worth the writing and the reading, that would have been a pity, and so one is fain to forgive, while condemning, one case of low fever, one narrow escape from drowning followed by fever, one case of hypochondria, one of consumption, one of nervous prostration attended with insanity, and one of typhoid fever, afflicting the principals of the story, besides fevers in sufficient quantities to supply the chorus of villagers. However, when the hero is a young physician, and the heroines have each a vocation for visiting the poor sick, one must expect the text to be more or less like the materia medica. Having lifted voice against the spread of contagion by malady-ridden novels, we gladly turn to the merits of this bright and well-written little book. Within its modest limits it holds an uncommonly distinct and agreeable group of portraits. Uncommon, too, is the perceptive quality which has taken note of innumerable subtleties of thought and feeling under the conditions of daily life, and set them down with a faithfulness that is in touch with nature, yet that never becomes odious by over-analyzing. We are not perfectly sure that every feminine reader will agree with the author in writing down modesty as Dr. West's most impressive trait, but we are sure that there will be found in the book a happy alternation of the thoughts that sparkle and those that softly shine.

Elements of Scientific and Practical Agriculture. By George Gemmell McKay. Baltimore: The Baltimore Publishing Co.

First Lessons in Agriculture. By F. A. Gulley, M.S., Professor of Agriculture in Agricultural College of Mississippi. Starkville: Agricultural College.

THESE two small treatises on agriculture come to us from two Southern States. The first is intended to be used as a text-book in the public schools. Whether the systematic study of agriculture, through the medium of a suitable text-book, might with advantage be introduced into the common schools of the rural districts of Maryland or the other States, is certainly a question worthy of consideration; but we are quite certain that in case of an affirmative answer, the "suitable text-book" would have to be a far different book from Mr. McKay's. It is very evident that he has had very little experience in making text-books or any other kind of books, and, whatever may have been his merits as an "Examiner of Public Schools, Alleghany County," we should hesitate about certifying to his accomplishments as a teacher. In the first place, there is one great blemish affecting every page of his book, giving it a mottled appearance, and annoying and confusing the reader. Mr. McKay does not use italics, but in their place a full-faced type of somewhat larger size than the rest of the text, thus making the words printed in that type extremely prominent. This means of calling attention to certain words in a sentence, he has employed with the most unsparing liberality; but in a large proportion of the cases it is impossible to understand why the particular words he has thus honored were selected in preference to half-a-dozen other words of equal importance in the same sentence. If any one will read aloud to a friend one of the thickly speckled pages of this book, putting a special emphasis on the words printed in full-faced type, he will certainly run the risk of being interrupted with the question, Why do you read in such an absurd way?

The author treats at great length in several chapters on the influence of water and air in disintegrating the primitive rocks and turning them into what he calls "soil," for to him every form of earth that is not rock is soil. In doing this he personifies oxygen and carbonic acid, representing them as two workmen laboring upon the rocks. He also gives us a long account of a visit to the Mt. Savage fire-brick works, and speaks of the kindness of Mr. Findlay, the foreman of mines, who took him a long way under ground, etc., etc., all of which would be much more in place in a letter to a newspaper than in a text-book for schools. Of course the book contains much that in any case would fittingly have a place in a text-book; but its whole plan, structure, and style would have to be altered—much omitted, much explained, and much inserted—before it would be fitted for the pupils of a rural public school.

"The derivation and meaning of a few words, which may not be familiar to all, have been given at the end of the book for the convenience of those who may not have a diction-

ary at hand." On what principle this short vocabulary has been constructed, it is impossible to say. Most of the words it contains are neither unusual, nor technical, nor agricultural, while many words belonging to one or the other of those classes, and which occur in the text, are not inserted in it. Thus, on the first page of the vocabulary, we find the words: accumulated, alienated, alleviate, alliance, animated, artificial, avail, with their ordinary dictionary definitions, while, to mention a single instance, the word "granules," used in a technical manner, occurs on page 19, but is not contained in the vocabulary.

Mr. McKay has evidently read a good deal about geology and agricultural chemistry, and has inserted a large amount of high science in his book, much of it entirely beyond the capacity of the pupils of public schools, and all of it in a crude, undigested state that renders it of little value to anybody. It is somewhat singular that the book, though intended to be used as a text-book, and therefore presumably to secure a somewhat extended circulation, contains no indication of being copyrighted.

The second book on our list comes from Mississippi. It was prepared in pursuance of a request of the Board of Trustees and of the President of the College. It is a 12mo of only 118 pages, printed in rather large type. It is surprising how much clear and useful information the author has been able to condense into this narrow compass. Whatever restrictions may have been really imposed upon him by narrow limits, he has yet had the skill, so agreeable to the reader, to seem always to have room enough to say all he wanted to and in the way that suited him. Of course, the treatment, as a whole, and of particular subjects, is particularly adapted to the extreme South; but the book may be read with pleasure and profit by any one interested in agriculture in any latitude. As an example of Prof. Gulley's skill, we would mention his treatment of the subject of fertilizers. The different kinds, their chemical composition, the special advantages and best manner of using each sort, and their market value, are all treated in a manner apparently full and complete. From some passages we infer that Prof. Gulley has for some years been manager of the farm connected with the Agricultural College, that he has availed himself of his opportunities for experiment, and that he has a keen eye not only for scientific, but also for pecuniary results. Although he does not expressly mention the subject, yet it is easy to see that he does not regard the exhaustion of the cotton lands of the South as either necessary or imminent. With the spread of intelligence, and the improvement in the methods of cultivation, there is no reason why the production of cotton should not be increased and indefinitely prolonged.

A short glossary of agricultural terms is appended to the work.

Science Sketches. By David Starr Jordan. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. 1888. 8vo, 276 pp.

THIS volume is made up of a number of unconnected sketches and addresses on such varied subjects as the natural history of fishes, the biography of naturalists, an ascent of the Matterhorn, and the evolution of the college curriculum in America, with an appendix giving a bibliography of the author's contributions to scientific literature. Three of the articles are printed for the first time, and the others, which have appeared in various periodicals, have been more or less revised.

The papers make no pretence to literary quality, and are of various degrees of merit. Naturally, those relating to Prof. Jordan's favorite animals, the fishes, are the most interesting and possess the most value. That on the salmon family easily stands first. Naturalists will be grateful for the kindly review of the life and work of the veteran naturalist of Cuba, Felipe Poey, and the sketch of the less lovable, more erratic, and ever enthusiastic Rafinesque. The account of the ascent of the Matterhorn is well told, and will attract the attention of readers adventurously inclined. The paper on the evolution of the college curriculum adds little to what has been said by others, and suffers from a discursiveness which somewhat obscures its aim. The bibliography of Prof. Jordan's writings will have a high value for ichthyological students, and gives the little book a permanent value which would not have been insured by the articles that constitute its text.

Memoirs of an Arabian Princess. An Autobiography. By Emily Ruete, *née* Princess of Oman and Zanzibar. D. Appleton & Co.

THIS book derives not a little of its charm from its faults. Its style is artlessness itself, which we would by no means hold a defect except as it leads the writer into the prettiest self-contradictions and inconsistencies. Yet the very inconsistencies reveal a true consistency and truthfulness in the book, since they stamp it as the unaffected narrative of a life divided into two strangely opposite halves —one part led in the secluded home of the Sultan of Zanzibar, the other as a German wife, mother, and widow. The ex-Princess writes throughout as one whose intellect had become convinced of the immense superiority of European civilization to that of the Arabs, yet whose heart clung fondly to the customs of the land of her childhood. Hence come her defences of the Mohammedan practices of polygamy, of slavery, of the seclusion of women, in all of which we get a better idea of her loyal affection for her home and kindred than of her ability intelligently to discuss such important social questions. The book professes to be written primarily for her children, and its body of simple reminiscences bears out this profession admirably. Upon a thread of personal experience she has strung a series of highly interesting accounts of the social and religious customs of the Arab nobility. Add her own remarkable adventures, told in a delightfully because unconsciously egotistic manner, and the whole makes a book which ought to attract many readers. The grosser literary blemishes are due, we suppose, to the translator, the 'Memoirs' having been originally written in German.

The Enemies of Books. By William Blades. Revised and enlarged by the author. A. C. Armstrong & Son. 1888.

THIS latest issue of "The Book Lovers' Library" is a very entertaining little volume, in which the destroyers of books, elemental, human, or vermicular, are very properly made the object of anathema. Fire and water have had their share, but they have been merely no respecters of persons, and Livy was to them no more than the Parthenon or Baiæ. Worms must have their food, beetles and rats and flies and servants and children may all plead some excuse of nature for their havoc, and against such lifeless things as gas and heat, mould and moss and ivy, it would be foolish to be intemperate; but the great destroyers of books seem rather to have been bigotry, ignorance, and neglect, and the sins of the last are the deepest in dye. Many of the stories told here seem incredible, but some of them are only too familiar; and so far as the old books are concerned, the manuscripts and "the fifteeners," it is to be suspected that it is rather the enormous rise in their money value than any respect for learning which has put a stop to the carelessness which was their lot up to the last quarter of a century. Clergymen now will not cut off margins to use for note paper, nor librarians consign Caxtons to the grate, or leave them to rot in the rain; but it appears that collectors of woodcuts or engravings, title-pages and colophons, maps and portraits, still tear old books to pieces, and even cut the illuminated initials out of manuscripts, to add to their museums. Many curious anecdotes, nevertheless, are told by Mr. Blades of ignorance and negligence in recent years, and those interested in books as such will find pleasant reading here, together with some valuable suggestions about the care of books. This library has not given to "book lovers" a volume which belongs to it by better right.

The United States of Yesterday and of To-morrow. By William Barrows, D.D. Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1888.

THIS book is pitched in a somewhat old-fashioned key. It has the twang of the Fourth of July oration of the days before the war. The length of our coast-line, the size of our rivers, the extent of our territory, the numbers of our hogs and of our citizens, are the facts upon which this writer expatiates, and with which he endeavors, by means of all sorts of comparisons, to overwhelm the imagination of his readers. Those who like to be told just how many times England could be put into the United States, and how many States of the size of Massachusetts could be carved out of Alaska, will find here an abundance of the nutriment which they affect, and will probably like it all the better for the turgidity of style which seems inseparable from writing of this kind. But stupefaction before mere magnitude is not a desirable mental attitude. The size of our country is impressive; the increase of our wealth is fabulous; the growth of our population is amazing; but if a writer have mastered these facts in all their details and have not simplicity of speech, it profiteth him nothing. If Dr. Barrows would cease to strain after effect, and just tell us what he knows—and his knowledge is really extensive—he would produce books of permanent interest and value.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Ainger, A. Letters of Charles Lamb. 2 vols. A. C. Armstrong & Son. $3.
Bangs, J. K. Katharine: a Travesty. New York: Privately Printed.
Benner's Prophecies of Future Ups and Downs in Prices. 4th ed. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co.
Berkowitz, Rabbi H. Judaism and the Social Question. John B. Alden. 50 cents.
Bristol, Dr. E. L. M. A Story of the Sands, and Other Poems. Brentanos. $1.
Carter, Captain R. K. Divine Healing. New ed. John B. Alden. 50 cents.
Culver, H. H. Epitome of Anatomy, Physiology, and Hygiene. Boston: Ginn & Co. 25 cents.
Doumic, René. Eléments d'histoire littéraire: Littérature française. Paris: Delaplane; Boston: Schoenhof.
Evans, Margaret. Letters of Richard Radcliffe and John James, of Queen's College, Oxford, 1755–83. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Faliex, E. Œuvres choisies de Diderot. Paris: A. Lemerre; Boston: Schoenhof.
Forbush, W. B. Poems of a Boy. Hanover, N. H.: Privately Printed.
Foster, J. Ellen. The Crime against Ireland. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. 60 cents.
Greenough, Prof. J. B. Satires and Epistles of Horace. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.35.
Hare, A. J. C. Walks in Paris. George Routledge & Sons. $3.
Haussonville, Comte Othenin d'. Prosper Mérimée—Hugh Elliot. Paris: Calmann Lévy; Boston: Schoenhof.
Herbert, M. Poems of "Frank Forester" (Henry William Herbert). John Wiley & Sons.
James, H. E. M. The Long White Mountain; or, A Journey in Manchuria. Longmans, Green & Co. $6.
King, T. Haschisch: A Novel. Brentanos. 25 cents.

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The Causes of the French Revolution.

By R. W. Dabney, Professor in Indiana University. 16mo, $1.25.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 5, 1888.

The Week.

A DUPLICATE of Senator Chace's International Copyright Bill has been introduced into the House by Col. W. C. P. Breckinridge, and referred to the Judiciary Committee, and a hearing before that Committee was in certain respects very much more satisfactory than that accorded by the Senate Committee. All but one of the members of the Judiciary Committee were present; all gave what appeared to be intelligent attention to the statements submitted; and all, or nearly all, expressed, at the end of the hearing, their cordial approval of the measure. There seems to be no question but that it will be favorably reported to the House, and probably by a unanimous vote. Speaker Carlisle has expressed his interest in doing whatever may be practicable from the Speaker's chair to secure favorable attention for the measure when it comes up, and it is the expectation of Col. Breckinridge and others that it will probably prove possible to secure the hour's consideration necessary some time within the next few weeks. The measure has now so many friends among the leaders of both sides of the House (with the Democrats, for instance, Breckinridge, Cox, Patrick Collins, etc., and with the Republicans, Kelley, Reed, Hitt, and others), that the motion to give consideration to it is likely to be favorably received at any time when the House may not be absorbed in the appropriations or tariff business. Mr. Randall has already expressed general approval of the measure, and is expected to allow whatever time is needed for it, to be borrowed, if necessary, from "appropriations."

An obvious comment on Senator Plumb's amendment to the Bond-Purchase Bill is that there is no way to put his new-fangled non-legal-tender notes in circulation, and that "issuing" them means, therefore, putting them to bed and tucking them up in the Treasury. We observe that this point was made against the amendment by Senator Hiscock, and that Mr. Plumb answered by asking Mr. Hiscock what he should think of the plan of applying them to the payment of the national debt. Mr. Hiscock did not have the right answer at his tongue's end, viz., that the plan of paying the bonds in greenbacks was fought out just twenty years ago, in the campaign of 1868, although the issue was different then, since we had not resumed specie payments. At present the process would be as follows: The Government buys a bond of $1,000, paying say $1,250 gold. This causes the retirement of $900 of national-bank notes. The Government then "issues" $900 of non-legal-tender notes, and in order to get these notes in circulation buys $900 worth more of bonds, which would be a bond for $720, or at that rate. The holder of the notes, probably not liking the looks of them, as they are not legal tender, would go to the Sub-Treasury and draw the gold on them. If he did not, the bank in which he deposited them would. Then the Government would have them back again, and would repeat the operation, buying another $720 bond, parting with $900 more of gold, and getting the notes back in due course, and continuing the process as long as any gold was left. Would it not be a saving in shoe leather to pay out the gold for the bonds directly?

Senator Edmunds hit Senator Sherman a hard rap in the debate on the Blair proposition. Mr. Sherman, after recanting the position taken in his Nashville speech of last year, that he would "not reproach any man for the part he took in that fight," fell back upon his old ground, and has since maintained it, that "rebels" ought to be "reproached," and that, as he said in his Springfield speech, "every nation to which these gentlemen [ministers, consuls, etc., who had served in the Confederate Army] are accredited, may fairly conclude that it was the rebel cause that triumphed, and not the Union cause." But now comes Senator Edmunds and talks in this strain: "Nobody objects to Confederate soldiers or Confederate citizens sitting in this chamber," or being accredited to foreign countries; "they stand just like every other citizen, no better and no worse"; "there is oblivion on that" (the rebellion), "and without regard to their previous history in that respect they are common and equal citizens, with equal rights with anybody else." If John Sherman or any other bloody-shirt orator after this complains because "rebels" are appointed to office, it would seem as though the Democrats could not do better than to engage George F. Edmunds to denounce as it deserves such unpatriotic talk.

The vigorous speech in favor of tariff reform delivered in the House on Thursday by Mr. Nelson, Republican Congressman from Minnesota, is a noteworthy sign of the times. It shows that the Republican party cannot be held to the absurd policy of mere opposition to all tariff legislation, which Eastern protectionists of the Kelley school advocate. Mr. Nelson knows what he is talking about when he declares that the people want reform, for he was reëlected by the almost unanimous vote of his district because of his advocacy of reform, while at the same time he saw a colleague in another Minnesota district, who had declared for a high tariff, lose by over 5,000 votes the district which he had carried two years before by nearly 4,500 votes.

The Providence *Journal* takes notice of a terrible threat made by Mr. Butterworth of Ohio, at a recent tariff meeting in that city, "that if Rhode Island dared to touch the wool on the sheep's back, the woolgrowers would turn around and make this State a howling wilderness." Of course, Mr. Butterworth did not mean that if the duty on wool were repealed, the wool-growers would invade Rhode Island with torches and tomahawks and burn the factories and put the inhabitants to the sword. He meant that they would repeal the duty on woollen goods, and he really believes that that would be the same thing as making the State a howling wilderness. Could there be a more naïve expression and true definition of the protectionist creed than this? Wool is only one of some thousands of articles in the tariff the whole of which, according to the tariff gospel, go to make up the aggregate and sum total of the national prosperity. Yet, if by any mischance wool should be put on the free list, these good patriots would turn the whole country into a howling wilderness if they could. The Providence *Journal* thinks, however, that Rhode Island exists by the grace of God and not by the forbearance of Western shepherds. It mentions the fact that "the Republican candidate for Governor was constrained to withdraw from manufacturing by the unsatisfactory condition of the business under the present tariff," and evidently believes that Rhode Island might as well perish by having too little tariff as by having too much.

It was stated in the *Evening Post* last week on good authority that the cost of the late strike on the Reading Railroad was about $1,500,000. It would be more correct to say that this was the cost of recovering the property from the Knights of Labor. No other outlay since the reorganization of the company has been half so judicious as this. Indeed, it may be said that all the other disbursements would have been valueless without this. If there had been included in the plan of reorganization an item like this:

For regaining control of the road.....$1,500,000

there would have been a great hubbub in the newspapers, and perhaps in the circles of high finance; but such an item would have been the very groundwork and indispensable condition of the whole scheme, as the event has since proved, for when the employees refused to move a carload of flour that came out of the "scab" warehouse, the Knights of Labor virtually laid claim to the Reading Railroad by "calling out" all the employees in order to support the hands who had boycotted the flour. This was a condition precedent to the reorganization. It was the underlying mortgage, the prior lien, of the whole series, and it had to be paid off. It is fortunate that it was no larger in amount than $1,500,000.

The spreading of the railroad strike at Chicago, Milwaukee, Kansas City, and Indianapolis is the natural consequence of the timorous behavior of the railway officials. Instead of planting themselves on the law, and declaring that they would obey and ful-

fil the law though the heavens should fall, they said virtually that they would not obey it until compelled to by the sheriff. When the enginemen took the grotesque position that the moving of "Q." cars was a violation of neutrality (when, in fact, the non-moving of them was an express violation of a statute of the United States), the connecting roads gave a tacit assent to this doctrine. One of them, the Rock Island, gave its assent in writing. They thus gave the leaders of the strike encouragement to suppose that they could do anything. They supplied a firebrand to burn down their own houses. They are responsible for all the mischief that has followed the Burlington strike. The only way to end the trouble is to resolve now that they will obey the law and make everybody in their employ obey it. To this complexion they must come at last, and the sooner they come to it, the sooner will they see daylight through the present gloom.

If a man of whom the public knew nothing except that his name was Peck were to write a book and call it 'Peck on Labor,' he would find it pretty hard to get a publisher to take any risk in bringing it out. In fact, he would almost certainly have to pay the cost of manufacture and advertising himself. Well, we have a man named Peck, of whom the pub lic really knows nothing except that he is Peck, and has been selected by Gov. Hill for the office of "Commissioner of Labor Statistics"; and he has produced a book of which the proper title would be 'Peck on Labor,' but he does not pay the cost of printing and publishing it himself. He abuses his office of Commissioner by issuing it in the form of a "report," and making the taxpayers foot the bills. His proper business as Commissioner is to collect statistics, but, forgetful of this, he stuffs his book full of Peck views on labor and capital, and the general condition and needs of human society in general. His figures, it is true, frequently refute his arguments, but this is a difficulty which makes little impression on the Peck mind. He would probably say that the arguments can stand it, if the figures can. It is very mean of Peck to put so much of himself into a public document. He ought to make his mark as a "thinker" and economist in a series of books entitled 'Peck's Works,' before asking us all to bring out his essays at our expense. Of his last book we will only say that it is not any sillier than the one he published last year. It speaks well for him that he still keeps what little sense he ever had.

Attention has been drawn lately to a bill before the Legislature, and favorably reported, to revolutionize the prison system of New York. Whether this bill is in the interest of Labor or of the lunatic asylums, we do not know. It may partake of the nature of both. On the side of Labor it provides that no prisoner shall be compelled to work more than eight hours a day. "The remainder of the time," it says, "shall be devoted to such repose, exercise, study, mental and moral improvement as may be designated and required by the superintendent, warden, keeper, or other officer or officers having the control and direction of such convicts, and with a view to their reformation; and if for any reason a convict be not employed during such time, he shall be compelled to take needful exercise, in the yard or corridors of his place of imprisonment, or in such other place as may be designated, for at least two hours a day." It provides, also, that no motive power or machinery of any description shall be placed or used in any prison, jail, or reformatory in the State for the purpose of increasing the revenue or products thereof. It proposes to introduce the Georgia system of outside-gang convict labor, by employing the prisoners in agriculture or in draining and reclaiming swamp lands. Permission is granted also to employ convicts in building or repairing their own prisons and in manufacturing articles needed in prisons. This latter provision has not received proper attention, for it must be evident that if prisoners are allowed to make their own clothes, they will deprive tailors of employment; and if they are allowed to build and repair prisons and jails, they will compete with stone-cutters, masons, plasterers, etc. And this provision is quite needless, too, for if they are to be taken out in chain-gangs and set to work cultivating land, or digging ditches, there is certainly land enough owned by the State to keep them all employed, especially if they do not work more than eight hours a day.

Other provisions of this interesting measure are that no person convicted of felony shall hereafter be confined in a county penitentiary (there are six county penitentiaries in the State in which felons are confined), but all shall be sent to the State prisons, and that every person convicted of a misdemeanor punishable by imprisonment shall be imprisoned only in a jail or penitentiary within the county where the offence was committed. The effect of this would be to empty the six county penitentiaries, and to require the State to build new prisons furnishing an equal amount of room, and to require the remaining forty-four counties to enlarge their jails to meet the full requirements of their own prisoners of every grade below that of felony. The just and appropriate comment of the Prison Association upon this clause of the bill is, that "when the county jails are universally denounced as hot-beds of crime and a disgrace to our civilization; when the demand for their utter extinction and the substitution in their place of something better is loudly made by all intelligent men who have given the slightest investigation to their evils, the proposal to actually enlarge their sphere and importance shows an audacious disregard of the best sentiment of the community." Of the measure as a whole, they say it will "destroy the penitentiaries, will impose great and sudden expense upon many counties and upon the State, and inflict permanent injury on the cause of prison reform in the State of New York."

The full text of the composite Ballot Reform Bill which has been drawn by the Judiciary Committee of the Assembly is a very different measure from what the Chairman's outline of it led us to expect. It does not provide for separate tickets for each political party, but groups under the party name the candidates of each party for each office, and prints all the names of the candidates of all parties for the same office upon one ballot. This is unobjectionable, as it can in no way lead to party espionage at the polls. Neither does the bill provide for each party to have a ballot clerk at the polls, but simply names two ballot clerks at each polling-place to be appointed as election inspectors are now. This is the simplest and best way. There is also a provision for individual nominations, but it needs amending in a slight particular, and then will be entirely feasible and satisfactory. As it stands, it seems to imply that petitions for nominations must be signed singly, rather than in duplicate, for only a single certificate of nomination is mentioned. This can easily be remedied by inserting after the words "certificate of nomination" the words "which may consist of one or more writings." This phraseology has been adopted by the framers of the proposed Massachusetts act, and is of great importance. The provisions for the official marking of ballots and for secrecy in voting are all excellent, and the bill as a whole is a most desirable measure. We sincerely hope that the Legislature, acting in the same public-spirited and non-partisan manner as the Judiciary Committee have done, will pass it without delay.

The State-rights issue reappears in a novel form in Iowa. A law of that State assesses taxes upon the property of the Pullman Palace Car Company in Iowa. The company for three years has fought against this law within the State by such devices as enjoining every county treasurer. This year they have appealed to the Federal courts, and secured an injunction from Judge Brewer of the United States Circuit Court at St. Louis, requiring the Governor of Iowa and his Council to appear before the court in St. Louis and show cause why they should not be perpetually enjoined from assessing the company's property for taxation. The Governor and Council have decided to ignore the order of the Federal court and levy the tax, and the question now is what the Judge will do about it. Meanwhile, the Republicans of Iowa are beginning to develop a great admiration for State rights, and the Burlington *Hawkeye*, a good party organ, thinks that "this is as good a time as any to revive popular demand for a just limitation of Federal control of local affairs."

Texas is having a unique experience. For months past a surplus has been piling up in the State Treasury, which already reaches about $2,000,000, and as the Legislature only meets regularly once in two years, the Gov-

ernor is forced to call an extra session to dispose of the existing surplus and readjust taxation so as to prevent the development of another. Texas, it is well to remember, is a State which was awarded $4,000,000 out of the United States Treasury by the "Bill to Promote Mendicancy," on the ground that it was too poor to educate its children alone, and must have help from Washington.

It is becoming more evident every day that some kind of a Training School for Republican Editors will have to be founded to meet the growing demand for organs that can be depended upon. There is scarcely a State in the North in which a want of this kind is not felt. Both the spirit and the education of the time appear to be in a "combine" against making editors of the sort needed. The wicked colleges are all teaching that protection, unlimited and unrevisable, is not a sacred thing. The tendency of the youth of the period, under the influence of intellectual leaders, both inside and outside of the colleges, is to drift towards tariff reform, towards liberal ideas in politics, and to take such a cheerful view of even party lines as not to be either charmed or frightened by a party name. As a natural result of this condition of things, Mugwumpism is cropping out in the newspapers everywhere. It is hard to keep that profession from catching something of the general infection. When the air is full of Mugwumpism, even an editor cannot help inhaling some of it. The trouble with it seems to be that when a man gets some of it into his system, he never fully recovers from it. He is in danger of "kicking" at the very moment when the party most needs his help. The only remedy which we can think of is a training school with so thorough a high-protection, straight-party course of study that it will turn out a select band of editors, warranted to stand by the party till the crack of doom.

Our esteemed contemporary the *Mail and Express* has introduced a new feature in journalism, which cannot be too highly commended. The wonder is that nobody has thought of it before. It begins the editorial page every day with a text of Scripture, as thus:

IN THE BEGINNING GOD CREATED THE HEAVEN AND THE EARTH.

One of our esteemed contemporaries prints Premier Mills's name Roger P. The *Tribune* should mind its P's and Q's more carefully.

AND GOD CREATED MAN IN HIS OWN IMAGE, IN THE IMAGE OF GOD CREATED HE HIM.

The Boulanger case did not take very long in trial. Ten minutes is a short time in which to present the defence, and the judges do not seem to have taken much longer to reach a decision.

This is a decided improvement on the *Herald's* practice of scattering through its editorial and news columns, in a heterogeneous way, quotations from Byron and other profane poets. A great deal of good may be done to a heedless, hurrying, and sin-ruined world by presenting to newspaper readers suddenly short passages from Holy Writ, which they might not otherwise ever see; and we know, in regard to the texts chosen by the *Mail and Express*, that the wayfaring man, though a fool, need not err therein. So much cannot be said for the miserable scraps from Byron's "Corsair" served up to us by the *Herald*.

The difficulty the Sophomore Class at Columbia College is said to experience in giving up the custom of burying, or "triumphing over," Legendre, is a curious illustration of the hold of traditions, even on the youthful mind. Hostility to a text-book or to a subject of study, finding expression in public demonstrations of joy at getting rid of it, is so distinctly a childish or schoolboy feeling that one would naturally expect that a young man on entering a university would be rather ashamed of it, as of a love of marbles, or peg-tops, or hoops. But it has survived at Columbia to this day, in spite of the growth of the College in numbers and the rise of the standard of age. This year it was even proposed to get up a steamboat excursion, and have "the burial" at sea, with the accompaniment of "free beer"; and the College paper, the *Spectator*, resented sharply an attempt on the part of some parents and professors to substitute for this celebration the annual bestowal of a prize for excellence in Legendre. According to the latest accounts, the steamboat excursion and "free beer" had been given up, and it was proposed to substitute a torch-light procession through the streets. We wonder whether the youths who are to take part in it, who are presumably from eighteen to nineteen years old, and have in most cases the advantage of coming from homes of more or less cultivation, have ever considered what must be the effect on the rest of the community, and especially of the youths who cannot go to college, of seeing a whole sophomore class parading publicly by way of expressing their detestation of study. These unspeakable sillinesses suggest the question whether it is not unfortunate that undergraduates continue still to be known in this country as "college boys."

As we remarked the other day, there appears to be little doubt that the Tories in England have for the moment "dished the Radicals." They are putting through or promising large measures of legislation on Liberal lines. In other words, they are dealing with the leading questions of the time much as Gladstone might be expected to deal with them, barring the Irish question. Goschen's conversion of the 3 per cents is one of those strokes of finance to which nobody has been supposed equal for the last twenty-five years but Gladstone. The County Government Bill, too, is very much such a one as the Liberals would have drafted, and there seems to be every sign that it will pass much in its present shape. All this is simply a repetition of the policy of the Tories ever since Peel's day. When they get into power, which they never do except by a sort of accident, they try to keep it by adopting the Liberal policy. In 1874 Disraeli made the mistake of supposing that the country was disgusted with Liberalism, and that he might go back to the old Tory ideas; the result was the brilliant foreign or "Elizabethan" policy, as Lord Salisbury called it, which came to such a disastrous end in 1880. That Lord Salisbury has learned wisdom by that venture is, however, plainly shown by his extremely cautious foreign policy to-day. It is, in all its main features, thoroughly Gladstonian. The question is now rising to many lips in England whether, if the Ministry succeed with the Local Government Bill, they will not attempt to solve the home-rule problem also on the Gladstonian lines, and thus be able to go to the country in 1892 with a yell of triumph. There is certainly nothing improbable in the supposition. They are ready to swallow anything that is plainly necessary to keep office, on the theory that it matters little what is done, provided it be done by the right sort of men.

Gen. Boulanger, having been placed on the retired list, has begun to run for the Chamber, and has issued an address. His programme is nearly as extensive as McGlynn's. His election is to be "a protest" against "the impotence into which the Government and Parliament have fallen," and a proclamation of the "necessity of upholding the national dignity and the integrity of French territory." If the Government and Parliament have really fallen into a state of impotence, and the national dignity and the integrity of the territory are really in danger, it will of course require almost superhuman exertions on the part of one man to set things to rights—a consideration which apparently has not occured to the General. So, also, it does not appear to have occurred to Dr. McGlynn that if the unintermitting efforts of the entire human race, from the dawn of history down to our own time, to abolish poverty have failed utterly, the task must be one to which no one man, or even society, would be equal. In fact, the mere contemplation of the load which both Boulanger and McGlynn now carry is enough to give the ablest and most industrious of us a genuine heartache.

The defeat and resignation of the French Ministry on so serious a proposal as the revision of the Constitution, made by a Boulangerite deputy, coming so close on the Grévy trouble, is another proof of the depth of the demoralization into which French politics has fallen. The division of all the parties in the Chamber into minute fractions not only explains how these ministerial crises are brought about, but perhaps, also, why they do not do more mischief. The "groups" unite readily enough to overthrow cabinets, but they cannot unite on any constructive policy, and thus the Republic, as the thing that is, remains intact. Boulanger's campaign, which assails the very form of the Government, will indicate pretty clearly whether the country districts are yet infected with the Parisian folly. A dissolution of the Chambers is doubtless not far off.

THE ADMINISTRATION AND INDIANA.

MR. W. D. FOULKE, the President of the Indiana Civil-Service Association, went before Mr. Hale's Committee in Washington last week, and informed it that he made extensive investigations into the condition of the civil service in that State in 1885-6, and sent the result to the New York *Nation*, but that "that distinguished organ of Mugwumpery, for reasons unknown to him, had never published the facts." Well, we will now inform Mr. Foulke that the reason we did not publish "the facts" was, that we had not complete confidence in the collector. We knew nothing of Mr. Foulke's capacity as an investigator, and doubted his disinterestedness.

What the *Nation* thinks about the course of the Administration, either in Maryland or Indiana, has never been concealed. The President's mistakes in both States have been very serious. They have been based on the idea, which we believe is President Cleveland's own, that the civil service ought to be reformed on a sort of local-option plan—that is, that in States in which the reform sentiment was strong, the spoilsmen should be resisted, but that in States in which the reform sentiment was weak, they should be allowed to have their way. The result has been, both in Maryland and Indiana, a most shameful demoralization of the public service, which the President has witnessed with a calm born of the belief that only in this way could his party be educated up to the point of supporting reform everywhere. He has confined himself to the execution and careful extension of the existing Civil-Service Law, to the retention until the expiration of their term of the great body of Republican officers who were not covered by the law, and to reducing, considerably below what has been customary, the number of dismissals among those who held at will.

That this is not what he promised when elected, and that it is not what Mugwumps and other reformers expected when they supported him, we fully admit. Moreover, that it has been, as a mere matter of party policy, a very great blunder, we have not the smallest doubt. We believe that the loss of Indiana to the Democrats next fall has been made very probable by the scandals and abuses in the Government service which the Administration has permitted or connived at. We believe, moreover, that the hold of the Democratic party on the Government will never be made secure, except through the adoption of the civil-service-reform policy, without ifs, or buts, or exceptions. It is not a matter on which any President can long stand up before the American people crying "Good Lord" in one State and "Good Devil" in another, promoting purity in one place and giving rascals full swing in another fifty miles away. The thing is absurd on its face. "Horse sense" is enough to kill such a policy, even if love of righteousness did not do it.

A public journal has, however, two duties towards its readers. To aid them in forming opinions about the events of the day is one; to advise them what to do in politics under any given set of circumstances is another. We see clearly enough wherein President Cleveland has fallen short of the promise of his prime in the matter of civil-service reform, but we do not yet see clearly how the matter is to be remedied. It would be difficult to say what ought to be done, even if a reform of the civil service were all that was needed at this juncture to make the American people prosperous and happy, and if either of the great political parties were heart and soul in the work. But we all know that we have before us another question fully as important as the reform of the civil service, namely, the reform of the tariff, and one of more pressing interest to the bulk of the people. We know that our present surplus is a fountain of corruption, to which for depth or volume the spoils system can hardly be compared. We know, too, that little as the Democratic party cares for civil-service reform, the Republican party cares still less, because it makes no pretence of producing a President who will in that field do even half what President Cleveland has done. We know that the criticisms of all the Republican leaders and newspapers during the past three years on the President's shortcomings have been charges not of malfeasance, but of hypocrisy. They attack him for having failed to reform the civil service, but admit, with the utmost brass, that had he given the spoilsmen full swing, they would have had nothing to complain of.

We know, too, that practical politics consists in every country, since the fall of Adam, in the choice not between perfection and imperfection, but between two degrees of imperfection. President Cleveland is not all that we could wish him to be, and every sensible man will keep scanning the horizon during the next seven months for the appearance of something better. When anything appears, we promise to let our readers know. When we see a candidate who bids fair to be more of a reformer in all directions than President Cleveland, and a party which seems to be more devoted to all the great ends of Government than the Democratic party, we shall announce the fact, without fear or favor. We confess we discern no sign at present of anything half as good as President Cleveland just as he stands, with all his imperfections on his head.

The government of a great country, we must remind some of our readers, is not child's play. You cannot throw an instrument aside, and then go home and go to bed. Whenever in the great game of politics you reject one man, you must then and there choose another, and you cannot choose without comparison.

POWDERLY'S DESPAIR.

MR. POWDERLY has issued a very despondent address to the members of his order of Knights of Labor, the sum and substance of which is that the policy of promoting strikes among laborers which they have pursued during the past two or three years, has been a terrible mistake, and has produced nothing but misery; and that they must now, if they want to be happy and prosperous, go back to the original purposes of the organization, and use its funds in educational lectures and discussions. In fact, "a vigorous policy of educational work" is what he now wants, and is what, he maintains, he has always wanted. He says "from the 5th of September, 1879, he has written and talked against and opposed strikes." It would, we think, be very easy to dispose of these statements by means of the deadly parallel, but we are not interested in exposing Mr. Powderly's inconsistency. Whatever he may have said at other times, he is now talking like a sensible man, and yet his manifesto is a pitiful confession of weakness and incapacity, to come from one who was dreaming two years ago of organizing a society of manual laborers which should instruct capitalists in the management of capital, lawyers in the practice of the law, and statesmen in the conduct of the Government.

No matter what he may have ever said or written against strikes, he is indirectly responsible for their multiplicity during the last few years, in that he led his followers to suppose that he had created a new instrument of extraordinary power, which would bring all people who did not work with their hands to their knees before manual laborers, and finally give manual laborers the control of the industry of the country, and even of the Government. He created, too, and laboriously diffused the impression that manual laborers are a class apart from the rest of the community, with interests different from and opposed to those of people who do not work with their hands, or have saved money, or made it in trade, or commerce, or manufactures. In other words, he has been the apostle of a subtle or disguised sort of anarchy, many times more mischievous and dangerous than the variety preached by John Most. When he had created this impression, his dupes naturally went to work to try the new machine, to "show their power" to the capitalists and the Government, and "put Labor on top." It has taken five or six years to work out his experiment, and it has been a terribly costly one. It has caused untold suffering among the working classes, has directly wasted hundreds of thousands of dollars of their money, and, indirectly, millions of the capital on which they have to rely for employment. If Mr. Powderly be a man of any moral elevation, the sight of his seven years' work must fill him with poignant remorse. He does something to expiate his offence, however, by publishing the confession of discomfiture which appeared in Thursday's papers.

A good many people will probably now ask us what, since Powderly's plan is a failure, is to be done to prevent this continual strife between labor and capital, and prevent these incessant and ruinous strikes. We recommend those who ask this question in good faith to sit down and read the history of the great strikes of the past seven years before they call on us for an answer. They will find that every one of them was

due in great part to the ignorance and excitability of the workingmen, and the readiness with which they are governed by determined and unscrupulous agitators. In hardly one do we discover a solid business grievance at the bottom of the trouble. In not one do we find the strikers proposing any remedy which would not virtually take property out of the hands of the owners, and destroy the discipline under which large bodies of men engaged in a common enterprise must live in order to accomplish anything useful.

The demands made on the corporations, too, by outside critics, in the matter of conciliating Labor and making it contented, seem not much more reasonable than those of the Knights. Even Prof. Hadley—a most competent observer—called on the railroad companies the other night, at the Commonwealth Club, to put at their head, for this purpose, "leaders of men" instead of "leaders of dollars"; as if either leaders of men or leaders of dollars could be had by advertising, as if they were not both among the scarcest products of the globe, as if the railroads did not all do everything in their power to get hold of men of the highest administrative capacity, and as if their failure to do so in some cases were not one of the commonest experiences of all human organizations. Lamentations over the shortcomings of railroad presidents and mining presidents are simply part of the eternal wail of humanity over the badness of generals, the short-sightedness of statesmen, the wrong-headedness of judges, and dishonesty of bank cashiers. One of the few uses of the Knights of Labor has been the illustration the history of the order affords of the difficulty of filling responsible places with the right sort of men in the present condition of human nature. Those members of the order who are dissatisfied with their General Master - Workman, their General Worthy Foremen, and their Outside Esquires, now "know how it is themselves" in the matter of discovering great men and setting them to work for the public benefit.

The truth is, that at the bottom of our labor troubles are simply the ignorance and irresponsibility and want of business training of the laboring class, and for this there is no remedy but time and patience and education. Even Powderly begins to see this, and confesses it. If any one asks us why we have so many railroad strikes, we answer by asking why there are so many revolutions in Guatemala. If the men who want to take the Reading or C., B. & Q. Railroad out of the hands of the present management were in a majority among us, we should have a political revolution, or an attempt at one, after every election. We must be patient with them, and bear as well as we can the loss their folly and blindness inflict on the community; but let us have done with quackery.

AN OBJECT LESSON IN TAXATION.

Among current tariff discussions we note a revival of the argument that it is folly to remove duties on imports, as the benefit will accrue to the foreign producer and not to the American consumer; and the repeal of the duty on coffee, and the subsequent events, are advanced as evidence that the argument is good. Senator Edmunds, in his *Harper's Magazine* article, lays stress upon this example, and others go so far as to say that no sooner was the import duty repealed by the United States than Brazil imposed an equivalent export duty. A slight examination of facts will show that neither assertion has any real basis.

Before 1862 coffee was imported into the United States free, but the war tariff imposed a heavy duty. The Brazilian planter believed himself ruined, prices fell suddenly, and predictions were made freely that the planter would have the bulk of his crop thrown upon his hands, and must dispose of it at less than cost. These fears proved groundless. Owing to heavy purchases of the United States for supplying its troops with coffee, the consumption did not materially decline, and the market recovered its normal condition. In 1867, when the finances of Brazil were thrown into disorder by the war with Paraguay, and every available source of income was utilized, an export duty was levied upon *all* exports, coffee being the principal one. The rate of duty was fixed at 9 per cent. on the custom-house valuation; and in addition to this imperial tax, the province in which the coffee was produced collected another tax varying from 4 to 7 per cent., the rate differing among the provinces. It is easily seen that fiscal necessity was the basis of these taxes. Brazil had no direct taxes; it still has no direct tax on land, though cabinet after cabinet has recommended such a tax, not only for revenue purposes, but to make unprofitable the holding immense tracts of land in an uncultivated condition. The whole prosperity and economy of the nation was based upon coffee; and today it is coffee that supports the provinces, the railroads, the empire, and the great mass of the population. The point to be emphasized, however, is, that Brazil imposed an export duty on coffee long before the United States seriously considered a reduction of the import duty.

These facts were well known in Congress when, in 1871, the duty was reduced from 5 to 3 cents per pound. Mr. Partridge, then Minister to Brazil, had reported: "It is safe to say that there is very little (in my opinion, no) hope of inducing them (Brazil) to reduce the export duties" on coffee and rubber; and he sent an elaborate table of prices for two years, showing that the export duty amounted to about 13 per cent. on the value of the coffee. In 1873, the duty on coffee in this country was abolished, but, under pressure of the financial crisis of that year, it was proposed to restore it to enable the Treasury to meet the requirements upon it. In the same year, the Brazilian Treasury showed a small surplus in the estimates, and an attempt was made to reduce the imperial export duty from 9 to 7 per cent., a move that was defeated by the Legislature's voting to increase its own salaries. Is there any evidence that Brazil sought to secure advantage through the action of the United States?

But, it is said, the planters at once raised their prices, and so the American consumer derived no advantage from the reduction of duty—as though a seller who does not possess a monopoly, can raise the price of his goods arbitrarily. It is true that prices did rise, and that they did rise by about the amount of duty; but it is a great mistake to assert that the rise was an immediate result of the repeal. The table of prices prepared by Mr. Partridge shows that the rise had begun in 1871, and that the average price in December, 1871, was quite as high as it was in the latter part of 1872. Coffee (Rio) that was worth 9 cents in January, 1871, had risen to 13½ cents in December, to 14 1-3 cents in January, 1872, and to 14.7 cents in December, 1872. In 1869 the import value of coffee was 9.8 cents, under a duty of 5 cents per pound; in 1872 10.9 cents, when the duty was 3 cents; and in 1873 14.4 cents, when the import was free. Of course the planters benefited by the rise, but through no action of their own. The fact that prices could be maintained in the face of such a reduction in duty only shows that the demand kept up with the supply; that the real equilibrium of the markets had not been altered. This is shown by the fact that Ceylon coffee, of which little is consumed in this country, also began to rise in 1870, and reached its highest point in 1874, at the time when Rio in New York had risen to 19.4 cents per pound—a rise so great that the duty removed becomes too insignificant a factor, and short crops and speculation must explain it. Rio on the London market passed through nearly the same fluctuations as in New York, yet there was no change of duties to affect the price.

It must be remembered that in the same market there can be but one price for one commodity, and it would argue an absurdity to suppose that a French or English merchant could purchase coffee in Brazil at a price lower or higher than an American. Had the United States been the only market for Brazilian coffee, and had the relation of demand to supply remained the same, the removal of the duty would in the end have modified the price, and certainly in favor of the consumer. But both of these conditions were absent, and although imports increased rapidly (with a few fluctuations), they were not able to overpass the demand. Further, it was not until 1882 that the import value of coffee in New York fell to what it had been previous to 1872. To suppose that Brazil planters had been able to manipulate the market for so many years in their interest and at the expense of the consumer, is to disregard the most common maxims of trade.

Under these circumstances, it is absurd to attribute the condition of the market to a mere shuffling of duties, whether duties on imports or on exports. In 1882 Brazil reduced the export duty from 9 to 7 per cent., but the provincial duty remained unchanged. The prices were 12.5 cents in 1881, 10 cents in 1882, 8 cents in 1883, 7 cents in 1886, and 10.7 cents in 1887. Is the influence of the duty apparent? That the re-

moval of the import duty by Congress was an advantage to the American consumer, may be shown by the fact that he would otherwise have been compelled to pay the market price of the coffee and a duty besides.

SILVER TOMFOOLERY IN THE SENATE.

NOTHING more discouraging or more unexpected has turned up in the struggle to get rid of the Treasury surplus than the apparent determination of the Senate to fasten upon the Bond Purchase Bill measures for currency inflation and for juggling with silver. Senator Plumb's amendment introduces a new kind of money into the multifarious currency now existing, viz., Treasury notes which are not legal tender except to and from the Government and from one national bank to another. As an oddity in finance, however, this is surpassed by a scheme which Senator Stewart of Nevada has offered as a new amendment, and which proposes to make Government warehouse receipts for silver bullion legal tender, and to require the Government to issue such receipts to all depositors of silver bullion at the current market value of silver; the value to be announced by the Secretary of the Treasury twice each month, by computing the average price of silver during the fifteen days next preceding the announcement.

We remark, in the first place, that the present silver certificates are not legal tender. Consequently, the proposed warehouse receipts are not only different from anything else in our existing currency, or any other that the world ever saw, but they are to be invested with a higher character than the certificates now in circulation. The warehouse certificates are to be redeemed by the Government in gold or silver coin, at the option of the Secretary of the Treasury. This makes the Government the buyer of all the outstanding warehouse certificates whenever the price of silver falls below the price at which they were issued. If, for example, a million dollars' worth of silver is deposited when the price is 46d. per ounce, the holders will keep them as long as the market price is at or above 46d. But whenever the price falls below that figure they will be sent in for redemption. In other words, the Government will, in the language of the Street, issue "puts" on silver to all the world—not sell these "puts," but give them away for nothing; a very convenient form of speculation, and one which ought in fairness to be extended to the owners of all other kinds of portable property. In order that the Treasury may always be in funds to "redeem" these warehouse receipts, it is provided that the Government may coin the silver taken on storage in sufficient quantities to meet the demand for redemption. This simple device transfers the load upon the public in their character as traders and wage-workers. Without this proviso they would carry the load in their character as taxpayers. Mr. Stewart's plan is a roundabout method of insuring the price of silver to all owners and producers thereof in the four quarters of the globe, the United States being the insurer and getting no premium for the risk.

On the 8th of April, 1886, Mr. Bland got a test vote in the House on his bill for free coinage, and was beaten by a majority of 37. Whether he and his followers will accept the Stewart measure, if it ever reaches the House, is doubtful, since it involves an abandonment of the "dollar of the fathers" and the ratio of 16 to 1. It recognizes the market value of silver as the coining rate, the ratio to gold being now about 21 to 1. The real object of the measure is to "steady the market" for silver at the expense of the people of the United States. It must, therefore, be condemned as fraudulent.

Next in the list comes Senator Beck's amendment, which proposes to retire the present gold and silver certificates as fast as they are returned to the Treasury, and to issue hereafter "coin certificates," on the deposit of either gold or silver coin in the Treasury; also to require the Secretary to issue forthwith "coin certificates" for all the surplus gold and silver in the Treasury in excess of the $100,000,000 gold which constitutes the greenback-redemption fund. These coin certificates are to be redeemable in either gold or silver, at the option of the Secretary They are to be paid out for all Government obligations not made specifically payable in other kinds of money, but are not made legal tender. It is easy to see what Mr. Beck's whimsy is. He fancies that a law of this kind will abolish the distinction between gold and silver. But it will do nothing of the kind. The holders of gold certificates will keep them. There are $96,000,000 outstanding. As no more can be issued after Mr. Beck's bill passes, they will command a slight premium, or at least a preference sufficient to induce people to pay other kinds of money at the custom-house. The new "coin certificates" will all be silver certificates under a change of name. The issuing of coin certificates in place of all the coin in the Treasury in excess of $100,000,000 gold will not make the Government any richer. It will be poorer by the cost of engraving and printing the certificates. Putting this money into a new form will not get it out of the Treasury. The surplus will be just as aggravating as before, because more money will be coming in than goes out. We fail to see any point in Mr. Beck's measure, except as a shock to common sense (which is quite needless in his case), and a further scare to the business community, with consequent depression to trade and industry, of which there is more than enough already.

THE MINORITY REPORT.

THE report of the minority of the Ways and Means Committee assumes that the trouble about the surplus in the Treasury is altogether artificial, that it is of the President's making altogether, and that it might now be easily averted by applying the idle money to the "payment" of the public debt. "If," they say, "'the absolute peril' to the business of the country described by the President in his message last December as resulting from an existing and increasing surplus was imminent and well-founded, how easily he could have averted it by the purchase of outstanding bonds with the surplus money in the Treasury—a power which he possessed clear and undoubted under the act of March 3, 1881. To have thus used the surplus would have been direct and business-like, just what a prudent business man would have done with his idle money—called in his creditors and applied it to his debts. . . . If disaster results from the failure of the President to use the surplus now in the Treasury, as the law authorizes him to use it, in *payment* of our existing debts, and if the majority in the House, which alone can originate a bill to reduce the revenue, fails to send to the Senate a bill of that character, the responsibility will rest with them. The minority are powerless."

It is scarcely necessary to say to any well-informed person that this is a deliberate misrepresentation. Everybody knows that the bonded debt cannot be "paid" until it matures, and that the purchase of the bonds depends altogether upon the willingness of the holders to sell. The suggestion that the Government ought to do as private individuals would, *i. e.*, call its creditors together and apply its surplus to the liquidation of its debts, would be applicable to the receiver of a bankrupt estate who was able to pay something less than 100 cents on the dollar. It is not customary for a solvent man of business to call his creditors together at all. He simply pays his debts as they fall due by sending his checks to the holders of his paper. But did anybody ever hear of a merchant calling a mass meeting of his creditors and saying to them: "I wish to pay 125 cents on the dollar of my debts; will you be so kind as to appoint a committee to apportion the money ratably among yourselves, so that nobody may get less than 25 per cent. bonus on his claims"?

A report which carries in it such a manifest falsehood as this, is open to suspicion at every point. Consequently, we cannot be surprised to read a paragraph like the following:

> "If the majority desire to insure the handing over of our steel-rail market to our English rivals, the proposed duty of $11 will accomplish this purpose, unless the workingmen who are employed in producing the raw materials and finished products of our steel-rail works are willing to accept still lower wages than they are now receiving, and the railroad companies which transport the raw materials are willing to greatly reduce their freight rates. Have the majority any assurance that the workingmen and the railroad companies are willing to accept these conditions? Neither were heard before the Committee."

What are the facts here? Simply these, that American steel-rail mills are now making contracts at $31.50 per ton, without any change in the tariff; that the English price for rails is $20.50 on the furnace bank, and that if the duty were reduced to $11 per ton, not a rail could be imported, because the freight charge would still amount to an absolute prohibition. Add $11 to $20.50 and we have exactly the price at which steel rails are now turned out by the thousands of tons in western Pennsylvania.

But, says this precious minority report, "the supply of steel rails to the Pacific Coast is now in the hands of foreigners, because of the cheap transportation by water from foreign ports, the existing duty of $17 not being sufficient to enable our manufacturers to compete for that trade." This paragraph is the key to the whole report. It embodies the idea that the buyers of steel rails have no rights—that the consumer must in all cases be sacrificed to the producer. The issue is thus clearly presented. It runs through the report from beginning to end. No article is so necessary to the comfort of the people, nothing so indispensable to daily life, whether to the poor or to the rich, but that the buyers must pay tribute to somebody, and as much tribute as the producer considers an adequate profit to his business. It may be tin plate, which is hardly produced in this country at all, and of which we must have $16,000,000 worth every year, paying a bonus of nearly 34 per cent. on it, or it may be common lime for house building, which has been produced here since the days of the Pilgrims—all must pay a tariff premium to somebody. It must be paid not for revenue, but upon principle—the principle that the consumer has no rights. Nothing could be more explicit than the assertion and definition of this principle. It is in direct contravention of the report of the Republican Tariff Commission of 1883. It is a doctrine that will rend the party in twain, if not this year, surely within a very few years. As we write these words, the Minneapolis *Journal* of March 31 reaches us with a most solemn warning to the Republicans in Congress not to commit themselves to such doctrines, if they desire to save their party from defeat. Says the *Journal*:

"If the Republican leaders of the House were conscious of the real intensity of the feeling among Western Republicans in favor of the Republicans in Congress formulating a liberal tariff-reform measure, and placing the party on record in favor of an honest and intelligent reduction on the necessaries of life, they would not fail to submit some such proposition in Congress. They certainly cannot realize the true state of feeling among Western Republicans, or they would see the serious danger in pursuing the present policy.

"There is no excuse for it. There is no reason why the Republican representatives should not have drawn up and presented to the House, long ago, a measure which should stand as a clear and definite statement of the Republican position with respect to tariff reform. The failure to do so is the most serious aspect of the political situation. It is producing a feeling of restlessness everywhere among Western Republicans that threatens party disintegration. This is not stating the case too strongly."

The feeling described by this Minneapolis paper is not confined to Minnesota. The Western States are honeycombed by it. It is not confined to the West; even New England is torn by it. Tariff-reform clubs are springing up in Massachusetts and Rhode Island which cut across party lines with the utmost impartiality. The public mind will nowhere accept the dogma that the rights of the consumer are to be sacrificed to the producer, at the option of the latter and to the extent that he desires. This is the gospel of robbery. Any party that proclaims it will be annihilated sooner or later.

RECENT AMERICAN LEGISLATION.

No one who reviews the laws passed in the States and Territories of the United States during the past two years, can fail to be struck with the increased conservatism that marks the action of all the legislative assemblies; save only when such conservatism would stand in the way of some interest, real or supposed, of the laboring class, or would check that movement which is said to embody the rights of women. The most reactionary by far of these conservative measures is a stringent statute against the holding of land by aliens. This is so notable and so little realized yet by foreigners, going, as it does in some Northwestern States, beyond the severity of the common law to unjust extremes, that it invites examination in some detail. It invalidates in some cases even the title to real estate already acquired, and the title of home corporations whose stock may yet be chiefly held by American citizens. It may even be stated broadly that *it is now unsafe for a foreigner to attempt to hold land in the West.* Five States—Illinois, Wisconsin, Minnesota, Colorado, and Nebraska—have passed such acts; while the new Florida Constitution and the Territories of Idaho and Arizona have adopted more liberal provisions, both of which latter, however, are now in conflict with U. S. S., 1887, c. 340. Under that statute it is in effect provided that alien persons or corporations may not acquire or hold land, except by inheritance or in the collection of debts, and that domestic corporations of which one-fifth of the stock is held by aliens, may not acquire or hold land at all in any of the Territories or in the District of Columbia. The same law in effect obtains in Minnesota, and in Wisconsin, except as to the provision against domestic corporations, and in Colorado; but the alien has three years in which to sell lands acquired by descent or for debt, and the statute applies to agricultural, arid, or range lands only. The law of Illinois is much more detailed, and stricter, in that it includes even land now already acquired, the alien owner of which has, however, his lifetime in which to sell the same, though only three years is given after foreclosure of a mortgage taken thereon, or, after his death, to his heirs; while in Nebraska, no non-resident alien can acquire or hold land either by purchase or descent; and if an alien now holding land shall die, the land escheats, and his heirs are to be paid only the value thereof, to be fixed by the judge, treasurer, and clerk of the county, the expenses of which appraisement, by way of adding insult to injury, the heirs are made to pay.

The next subject in which a reactionary tendency is shown is that of divorce. Except that in New Mexico new divorce laws have been passed, leaving South Carolina the only State in which there is no divorce, there are few States or Territories in which new causes of divorce have been enacted, and, in many, causes previously existing have been abolished. Thus, in North Carolina, a divorce is granted upon conviction for crime. In Oregon and Idaho the intoxication habit need be continued only one year to be cause for divorce; and failure by the husband to support the wife only one year in Idaho and six months in Arizona; and so desertion need last only one year in Oregon and six months in Arizona. But impotence is no longer a cause for divorce in Idaho and Arizona, nor intoxication on the part of the wife, in Arizona; adultery is a cause, in Arizona, only when the party is taken *in flagrante delicto.* In Oregon a divorce for crime is denied unless prosecuted within one year of the conviction; and in Arizona the "omnibus" clause has been repealed. In Rhode Island and Arizona either party may be a witness in divorce proceedings, and in Maine and Arizona either party divorced has now liberty to marry again at any time; but in Michigan the court may decree against remarriage during a term not exceeding two years. In New Hampshire alimony may now be decreed to the husband. In Arizona divorce from bed and board has been abolished.

Turning now to marriage, we find that it is no longer declared, in Arizona, to be a mere civil contract; but in Idaho, witnesses are no longer necessary. And in Arizona "all persons who have heretofore lived together as husband and wife and shall continue so to live for one year after July 1, 1887," are declared legally married. In Idaho, as in California, neither party is bound to a promise of marriage made in ignorance of the other's want of chastity. The age of consent is made, in New York and Arizona, eighteen in the male and sixteen in the female; and in Illinois and Arizona marriages between first cousins have been forbidden. In Arizona marriages between a white and a negro or mulatto, and in North Carolina marriages between an Indian and a negro, have been made void. In Idaho and Maine either party may marry again without being subject to an indictment for bigamy if the other has been absent and is believed to be dead; though in Maine such party must have been absent seven years.

When we come to the rights of married women, we meet the radical tendency. In Rhode Island and Oregon the woman's suffrage amendment was defeated; but in Massachusetts the office of overseer of the poor, and in Alabama that of notary public, may be held by women. Ohio, Idaho, Minnesota, Dakota, and Arizona have enacted laws changing the entire status of married women. Thus in Ohio and Idaho the California code is now followed, while in Minnesota and Dakota it has been enacted that "A married woman shall retain the same legal existence and personality after marriage as before, and shall receive the same protection of all her rights as a woman which her husband does as a man," and may sue or be sued; but this does not apply to voting or holding office. In Alabama and Ohio neither husband nor wife is liable for the acts of the other, as such. Pennsylvania and Alabama have also enacted new "married women's acts" as to their property and powers; and in these States, as well as Connecticut, Ohio, Nevada, and Arizona, the husband acquires no rights in the property of the wife. In all these, and also in Nebraska, New Mexico, and South Carolina, property acquired by the wife after marriage is her separate property. In Pennsylvania and in Idaho, married women may make wills as if sole; in New York conveyances or liens between husband and wife are made valid, and so, in Ohio and Alabama, as to all contracts between them. In Ohio and Arizona married women may make deeds without the husband's joinder, as if sole.

As bearing on the labor question, we find a great many States reënacting or enlarging their mechanics' lien laws. A most remarkable statute, unprecedented in common-law jurisprudence, has been enacted in Minnesota, that all labor performed by contract upon a building shall be a first lien thereon; and that *the fact that the person performing the labor was not enjoined from so doing is made conclusive evidence of the contract.* A legal holiday, called "Labor Day," has been created in Massachusetts, New York, New Jersey, Colorado, and Oregon. And many States have

made provision for arbitration, for weekly payment of operatives, payment in money and not in goods, etc., etc.

Florida is the only State which has recently adopted a new constitution, though it has been vainly attempted in Kentucky and Delaware. The notable points of the Florida Constitution are that it leaves out the civil-rights provisions, provides that negroes and whites shall not be taught in the same schools, and forbids their intermarriage, provides for married women's separate property, provides that members of Congress must have been five years resident in the State and ten in the United States, abolishes the office of Lieutenant-Governor, makes the judiciary elective and shortens the judges' tenure of office, in effect prohibits State debts, limits the amount of land granted settlers to eighty acres, allows local option in the liquor traffic, and gives the Legislature full power to regulate the duties and charges of common carriers, but prohibits their accepting free passes. Amendments must now be ratified by three-fifths of the elected members of each house; and amendments to the national Constitution may not be ratified by any assembly elected before they were submitted. In Rhode Island also there is a prohibition amendment; and it is pending in several other States.

The law of real estate seems to have reached a condition of permanent stability. Massachusetts, indeed, has enacted a noteworthy statute, that all conditions or restrictions in the grant of land shall be construed to be limited, except in the case of charities, to the term of thirty years only. In Connecticut foreclosure by sale is now allowed in the case of real-estate mortgages. New York, Connecticut, Rhode Island, and Illinois have prohibited the acquirement of easements for lines of telegraph or telephone; and in New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Vermont, and Connecticut an unnecessary fence six feet or more in height, erected maliciously or so as to obstruct the view of adjacent owners or deprive them of light and air, is actionable as a nuisance. The use of seals in conveyances has been abolished in Colorado, Idaho, and Arizona; and so, in New Hampshire, wills need no longer be sealed.

The laws of descent of property have been more changed. Thus, New Mexico has abandoned the old Spanish law and followed the Indiana statute, while Arizona has copied that of Texas. A notable tendency has been shown to abolish the estates of courtesy and dower (in New Mexico, Arizona, and Connecticut), or to make the estates of husband or wife upon the other's decease identical (in Ohio). Idaho prohibits the devise of more than one-third of the estate to charitable purposes, as in California.

In commercial law the new legislation has been very varied in subject, but not large in amount. The usual statutes prohibiting the fraudulent issue of warehouse receipts or bills of lading, and making them prima-facie evidence in the hands of the holder, and negotiable or transferrable by endorsement, on which a bill has lately been introduced into Congress, have been repealed in New York and adopted in the States of Virginia, South Carolina, Mississippi, and Arkansas. In Minnesota crop mortgages given before seed sown for more than a year ahead have been made invalid, but in Dakota liens on crops for seed advanced are authorized. In Wisconsin birds, beasts, and dogs have been made property and subject to larceny. In Pennsylvania and Idaho one who sells goods by sample is now held by statute to a warranty that the goods are equal to the sample; but in New York a partner is no longer liable civilly to any person injured for fraud in limited partnerships. Bankers are given a general lien, in Idaho, upon all property in their hands for balances due from the owner. In Michigan and Texas buying or selling of "futures" is made a misdemeanor, and in Michigan contracts or checks given for such "futures" are void. The legal rate of interest has been reduced to 6 per cent. in Michigan and to 7 per cent. in Nevada and Arizona; and compounding of interest is forbidden in Idaho. Stringent usury laws have been enacted in Mississippi, Idaho, and Arkansas; and in Alabama a banker is guilty of a misdemeanor who discounts at a higher rate than 8 per cent. In Minnesota any provision increasing the rate of interest after maturity, or after the note is made, works a forfeiture of all interest. In Pennsylvania the mortgagee is forbidden to contract for the payment of taxes besides interest; and in many Middle, Western, and Southwestern States new tax-codes have been passed which may work to the great and unjust injury of non-resident mortgagees. In fact the tax laws, together with lax foreclosure statutes, are what chiefly render Western mortgages unsafe, and not any general want of value in the Western real estate itself. But this subject is too large to be more than mentioned here.

It is pleasing to find that, despite our protective tariff, the nation is beginning to find that forests may be of more value than lumber. Bounties or exemption from taxation for the growth of trees have in the last two years been established in Connecticut, Pennsylvania, and Utah; and Maine, Connecticut, New Jersey, Rhode Island, Illinois, Pennsylvania, Kentucky, Tennessee, Nevada, and Idaho have established "arbor days," wherein those who do not go to base-ball matches may plant trees. And the extreme Western States continue laudably to provide irrigation laws.

Of general political interest there is not much. Ohio has discontinued its October elections, and Nevada has disfranchised Mormons. The anti-Mongolian laws in California, Oregon, and Nevada are continued. Notable election laws have been adopted in a few States and are pending in several more, but with these the readers of the *Nation* are already familiar. Connecticut, Pennsylvania, and Maine have had to adopt "standard" time, though the town of Eastport still riotously rejects this docking of a precious hour of its daylight.

In concluding, we may be glad to note that the codification madness appears to be checked. Only Idaho and Montana—Territories subject intellectually to California—have adopted a few further sections of the code now threatening New York. And no State has further presumed to "repeal the common law."

A COUNCIL OF WOMEN.

BALTIMORE, April 3, 1888.

WHEN the Empress Victoria of Germany, replying to addresses presented by a number of educational and charitable associations of which she is a patroness, availed of the occasion to declare her conception of a princess's duty, she epitomized the general opinion of their responsibility which is held by educated, thoughtful women the world over; certainly she strangely reëchoed the estimate and measure of that responsibility as stated and reiterated by numberless women at the International Council of Women which has been in session in Washington during the past week. The meagre telegraphic report quotes the Empress as saying that her "foremost and most sacred duty will be the care of her suffering husband; at the same time she is reminded that she has *other* social duties. The moral and intellectual education of women, the sanitary condition of the laboring classes, and the improvement of the facilities by which women may earn a livelihood, will constantly be before her—holding that the noblest vocation of a princess is an untiring activity in the work of ameliorating the condition of the classes."

If, in the above sentence, we replace the word *princess* by the more extended and significant word *woman*, the most cynical will have to confess that, from the royal lady on the throne of the youngest (and yet the oldest) European empire, to the thoughtful workingwoman who "represents" hundreds of female members of farmers' granges and labor organizations, earnest, conscientious women, if fairly judged by their own utterances and actions, hold but one ideal towards which to strive, no matter how diverse their stations, their training, their efforts, and their "views." This fact it is which gives value to the utterances of a first International Council of Women.

As one whose sympathies did not go out cordially to this feminine conclave, when it was still a "programme" merely, a report of the impression received and sympathy aroused by its work may not be unwelcome to readers of the *Nation*.

Whatever difference of opinion may exist between men and women, or between women and women, in regard to the political enfranchisement of women, it is impossible for thoughtful members of either sex, or any class, not to be interested in or curious in regard to the proceedings and tone of this "Council." Although called, organized, and I believe paid for, by the National Woman Suffrage Association of the United States, to celebrate the fortieth anniversary of the first Woman's Rights Convention, its special object was to bring together delegates from educational and philanthropic associations the world over, who should report to their fellow-workers in varied spheres their several aims, successes, and hopes. It was further expected that out of this preliminary conference would grow permanent national councils of women for the United States and other countries, and that from these national organizations would eventually be formed a permanent International Council, representing all women working in any *organized* movements for the elevation of the moral and the amelioration of the physical condition of mankind.

The active managers and many of the speakers were advocates of the extension of the franchise to women, but the programme of subjects covered the wide and human field of energy and reform included under the general divisions of Education, Philanthropies, Temperance, Industries, Professions, Organization, Legal Conditions, Social Purity, and Political Conditions. This list offered topics of interest sure to appeal to whole classes of women who, if not antagonistic, are certainly indifferent to the political privilege of the ballot. Indeed, with rare modesty—or wise self-restraint—the originators of the Conference named their own special hobby as the subject for the last day, and allowed every other existing or struggling cause to state its work done and explain its value before presenting what they claim as the open sesame to effective accomplishment of any and all moral, social, and political purification.

Without going into details, which have been, or will be, fully given by the daily press and by the organs of special causes and organizations, let us see if there are not lessons which a

wise outside public may learn—lessons which, if taken to heart, may be not unimportant results of this unique assemblage.

To make what follows clear to the uninitiated, it may be well to refer to the origin and composition of the first Woman's Rights Convention, of which this International Council of forty years later has arisen as a claimed and recognized sequence. Among the rejected women delegates to the World's Anti-Slavery Convention, held in London in 1840, were two Americans, Lucretia Mott and Elizabeth Cady Stanton, who then and there determined on their return to America to call a "Woman's Rights Convention." It was not until eight years later that these two, with Martha C. Wright and Mary Ann McClintock, issued, without signature, however, the circular announcing that "a convention to discuss the social, civil, and religious condition and rights of women will be held in the Wesleyan Chapel, at Seneca Falls, N. Y., on Wednesday and Thursday, July 19 and 20 current, commencing at ten o'clock A. M. During the first day the meeting will be exclusively for women, who are earnestly invited to attend. The public generally are invited to be present on the second day, when Lucretia Mott of Philadelphia and other ladies and gentlemen will address the Convention."

Gathered in a small interior town of New York State, this Convention was attended by a comparative handful of what the public called enthusiasts and fanatics. James Mott presided; his wife, Lucretia, stated the object of the meeting to be to consider the degraded condition of women, and the need of efforts for her education and elevation. The suffrage resolution was hotly opposed, and only carried by a small majority, on the plea that it seemed the key to all other reforms. The story of many successive Women's Rights Conventions must be disinterred from heaps of newspaper witticisms and sarcasm, with occasional notices of such *facts* as the grants to women of citizenship in two Territories, municipal suffrage in one State, and school suffrage in one-half of the States of the Union. The significant fruits of this persistent demand for the suffrage, however, are not those advances which have been made towards possession of the franchise, but the correspondingly much greater gains for women in all other attempts for the attainment of industrial and legal justice and equality.

Assembled in the capital of the nation, received by the President and his wife on the same terms as any other organized body of citizens, the Council just adjourned was composed of women from every part of our own country, from Great Britain, India, France, Finland, Denmark, Norway, and Sweden. The delegates represented thirty-nine partially organized associations, whose very titles emphasize the growth in public opinion, social freedom, and moral tone which has taken place in the past quarter of a century; professional, educational, or philanthropic work not so organized being presented by individual members willing to report on their particular "occupation." Ridicule must call a halt before the names of such women as Miss Frances Willard of the Women's Christian Temperance Union, the Pundita Ramabai, Mme. Bogelot, Director of the reform work of Prison of St.-Lazare, Paris, Miss Clara Barton of the Red Cross Society, Mrs. Sarah Cooper, President of the Golden Gate Kindergarten Association, San Francisco, or Miss Alice Fletcher, Special Indian Agent of the United States Government. Their work is independent of and superior to the suffrage agitation—which assertion brings us naturally to some reflections that can be merely outlined. If the facts justify them, any reader can amplify them as his or her sympathies dictate.

One cannot read the speeches of these women, and have felt the power of their earnestness, for two sessions daily, for one week, without feeling, in the *Nation's* own words, "that the talk, voluminous though it be, will do good, help to correct mistakes, and make some dark things clear." We think that both the facts and the theories presented throw enough light on "dark things" to justify—

(1.) The belief—that the political enfranchisement of women is not coming in this generation, at least.

(2.) The trust—that when it does come, women will be fairly well prepared to use it intelligently, and as a mercifully merciless lever whereby to further moral and social development, but without any serious rivalry with men for offices and political rewards.

(3.) The warning—to those men and women who are active or passive anti-woman-suffragists, that, in proportion as they wish to postpone the political enfranchisement of women, should they endeavor to bring about—the men by legislation, and both by public countenance and financial support—those reforms the accomplishment of which is the sincere and avowed goal of the suffragists themselves.

Give woman equal rights and opportunities in the universities, professions, and trades—protect her as child, wife, and mother, from the greed and lust of men—avail of her intelligence and sympathy in dealing with the deep problems which poverty and progress thrust on us for settlement—get rid of the idea (treating it as a survival, after all, of a legitimate but lower stage of development) of the "superiority" or "inferiority" of either sex—their "differences" will not be affected by opinion or legislation, and the right of suffrage will become either a dead issue or a natural sequence; in neither case much to be dreaded.

The social philosopher is privileged to draw some comforting convictions from this peaceful array of women, which, in spite of its sponsoring organization, testified, even by its most radical and righteous denunciations of existing conditions—

That the best energy of the best type of women finds its natural and congenial sphere in domestic, educational, philanthropic work, and will continue to do so;

That the great majority of those women who have devoted their lives to agitating the question of female suffrage have done so only because they believed the ballot was the short cut to justice and equality before the law for themselves and their children (for other women and *their* children), especially when this is needed for that saddest of all protection, legal defence for outraged womanhood, and against brutality towards innocent, helpless childhood;

That the Christian definition of "neighbor" is entering into the heart of women in a marvellous way at the present time—that a deep and earnest sense of duty and responsibility from women to each other and to the whole world around them is tending to infuse them as a class, and so fuse them into a mass to leaven the world;

That there is growing a feeling of universal kinship, a human fellowship in aspirations, an international bond of sympathies, the increase of a sentiment much higher and more generous than purely personal or local aims and rights—for while being the greater, it still includes the less.

Therefore we read without fear or foreboding that, before adjourning, an American National Council of Women was formed, and that with true national instinct they adopted a constitution, of which the following preamble states their "aims":

"We women of the United States, sincerely believing that the best good of our homes and nation will be advanced by our greater unity of thought, sympathy, and purpose, and that an organized movement of women will best conserve the highest good of the family and the State, do hereby band ourselves together in a confederation of workers committed to the overthrow of all forms of ignorance and injustice, and to the application of the Golden Rule to society, custom, and law."

The work cut out for women would be appalling did we not believe with James Russell Lowell that

"New occasions teach new duties; Time makes ancient good uncouth;
They must upward be and onward who would keep abreast of truth."

C. B.

THE CORSICANS OF TO-DAY.

PARIS, March 21, 1888.

PROSPER MÉRIMÉE wrote his best book, 'Colomba,' on his return from the Island of Corsica. When all his other works are forgotten, 'Colomba' will probably still be read. It was a sort of revelation. France hardly knew well the island which gave birth to Napoleon. 'Colomba' had and still has all the charm of a journey in a *terra incognita*. The historian of the Papacy, Gregorovius, has given an excellent account of Corsica, but, like Mérimée, he has been more seduced by the virtues of the Corsican race than shocked by its defects. Gregorovius is a man of imagination and of strong sympathies; he has treated the Corsicans in the same spirit as Lucretia Borgia.

I have before me a volume of letters on Corsica which were sent to a French paper by M. Paul Bourde, a travelling correspondent, who has the great merits of the modern school of writers. He is a sort of photographer, and does not pretend to any other merit than exactitude. It is rather curious to see that the same method rules now in all the fine arts. The motto of the modern painter is "to paint what he sees"; nature is really the only master. Our naturalists and impressionists wish to rob her of all she contains; they seem not to choose their subjects—they are, so to speak, chosen by them. No sculptor would dare, in our time, to model from his memory or his imagination; he must have before him a living object. The increasing importance of the press, the boundless curiosity of the public, has engendered a new class of journalists, who are also naturalists; they seem to hold no opinions, no doctrines; they go about the world and note everything. Their powers of vision are acute, their powers of judgment are but small; but they do not pretend to judge—the universe seems to them like a vast theatre crossed by fleeting forms; they are amused by the show and they wish to amuse us.

M. Paul Bourde is a little better than an "amuseur"; there is a little philosophy hidden in his descriptions. He has seen many countries and many men, he has described in graphic letters Cochin China, and Tonkin, and I know not what other countries. He was lately sent to Corsica, which had become the scene of curious disorders, and he formed his opinion on the spot as to the cause of these disorders. He is courageous and truthful, and, writing in a republican paper, he dares to say that if he has republished his letters, it is because "Corsica presents, in its acute form—that is to say, in the finest conditions for study—the example of an evil of which we are beginning to feel the first symptoms on the Continent. It is the interference of the Deputies in the ad-

ministration." He dares to say that, on the Continent, "the evil is checked by our moral habits. The electoral interests offend the scruples of conscience. Nevertheless, the progress of the evil is shown by the difficulty with which certain taxes are collected, by the impunity assured to certain frauds, by the multiplication of nominations made through complacency. In Corsica, thanks to the conscience of the clan, the laws are but a name. One-half of the citizens evade them with the help of their representatives, and they become mere instruments of vexation against the other half. There is no law, no justice: the administrators are inert for fear of endangering their position; the administered are persuaded, by daily experience, that nothing is done except by favor."

Would you see, by an example, how far the Corsicans are imbued with the idea that everything is done by favor? A young man had a wooden leg; he could, of course, not become a soldier. When the time came for him, however, to appear before the Council of Revision which decides on exemptions from military service, he did not think himself safe till he had procured letters of recommendation to all the members of this Council, and carried these letters to them. M. Bourde thinks that we, who live on the Continent, are a little better, in this respect, than the Corsicans. How does he explain the fact that M. Wilson, the son-in-law of President Grévy, kept carefully 22,000 bundles of letters, coming from 22,000 different persons, who had applied to him for various favors? It is M. Wilson himself who reported this number, and he did not seem to understand the importance of this extraordinary revelation.

M. Bourde is severe on the Corsicans; he is severe, also, on the French. He thinks that we have not done enough for the island, that we have left it too much to itself, a prey to brigandage and the vendetta; that we might have improved a brave and energetic people, worthy of a better fortune.

If you start at six o'clock in the evening from Nice, you arrive at six o'clock in the morning at Bastia. A few hours separate two worlds; is it France, is it Italy? "You know, at once, by people's manners, that you are not in Italy; and, whatever you may have thought hitherto, you find yourself in presence of a new character. If you ask a passer-by for an address, he takes you politely to the very door; and if you make the gesture for putting your hand in your pocket so as to pay him for his complacency, however poor he may be, he will leave you with an angry air. The Corsicans are very proud—a sentiment unknown in Italy, where the lower classes beg with effrontery." M. Bourde tells us little about the race, in the ethnological sense. In Bastia and in the seaports, where the influence of Pisa and of Genoa was most felt, people have black hair; in the interior of the island he found many red-haired. The original type was probably red. He went from place to place, travelling leisurely, and trying to penetrate the Corsican soul. The social organization reminded him of the Roman patriciate. Fifteen or twenty families have their clients, and dispose of all the influence, as they dispose of all the votes, in the elections. Such a family has a few hundred votes, another has two or three thousand. For centuries there was no central power; the island belonged to independent and rival classes. Even now, a Corsican prides himself on the number of his cousins; the larger the family, the stronger it is. The French rule has not destroyed this feeling, "because," says M. Bourde, "it has not destroyed the needs which created it. We have not been able to inspire confidence enough in the equity of our functionaries, nor in the justice of our tribunals. The Corsicans have not renounced defending themselves; they remain associated in order to protect themselves, and also to help each other in order to obtain favors or to avoid the obligations of our society. A Corsican who does not belong to a clan seems, in the eyes of his compatriots, a despicable object; he is a barren branch of the tree."

Let us enter into the house and the family of one of these chieftains of a clan. His house is large and adorned in the Italian style: no comfort, no carpets, no rich furniture; immense rooms in which you can hold meetings; great archives, where all the family papers are carefully kept; a voluminous correspondence of Paoli, letters of various Bonapartes before their elevation. How is this great family influence maintained? By the voluntary sacrifices of all the brothers to one. "You see my house," said one of these heads of a family to M. Bourde. "We were four brothers; only one married. We thus avoided the division of our lands and the breaking up of our influence. One of my brothers takes care of the property. I, who am the eldest, have the political direction. I give my life and I may say my fortune to my clients, and my clients give me their votes; this is our secret." In old times these clients would have made war for their chieftains, in our day they have only to vote. When the tax-gatherer torments a peasant for his taxes, the taxee goes to his chief, who advances the money. The *padrone* is the director of the conscience: he distributes money, influence, pleasures; he governs in his little world, and spends as much ingenuity and diplomacy as a statesman. Is it to be wondered at that, with such a state of things, agriculture is still as it was described by Virgil? It is very much as it is in Sicily. If the great proprietors wished to make any changes, they would have to derange and to hurt all sorts of vested interests, and they would compromise their political influence.

Here is an example of the importance of a clan. In the month of August, 1886, a special jury was appointed for the condemnation of the lands over which was to be built a railroad from Casamorza to Fium'orbo:

"This jury had been chosen in the Council General by a majority presided over by M. de Casabianca, the chief of the clan which is now the most powerful; then a selection was made by a tribunal presided over by the father of M. de Casabianca; and the deliberations took place before M. de Casabianca, a lawyer chosen by the company. It was truly a clannish jury, and it judged according to the conscience of the clan: what is good for friends is legitimate. M. Benedetti was deprived of a vineyard of 16 ares 96 centiares, and Mlle. Virgitti of a vineyard of nearly the same extent—18 ares 90 centiares. M. Benedetti is an enemy of the clan. The jury allowed him 2,000 francs, which was, however, a perfectly reasonable price. But Mlle. Virgitti is a relative; she obtained 13,000 francs. MM. Astima were also relatives; they were paid 35,000 francs for 1 hectare 36 ares 70 centiares of the wild land (*maquis*). Still another relative got 45,000 francs for 90 ares 51 centiares of maquis land."

On the Continent such partiality would have been deemed monstrous, in Corsica it was simply looked upon as a proof of the power of the Casabiancas.

Every year the same spirit is shown in the councils of revision which decide on exemptions from the military service. The Corsicans have the same taste as the Italians for small Government offices, little as these offices may be paid. An official becomes what the Italians call a *mezzo-galantuomo;* he looks down upon the tillers of the soil. They have instinctively a great aversion to agriculture. Every year 15,000 Italian laborers, who all go under the name of Lucchese, though they do not all come from Lucca, cross to Bastia in the autumn, and go all over the island, where they do the heaviest agricultural work. The Corsicans do the easiest work. They gather the olives and the chestnuts. "The peasant families which can lay by anything are rare exceptions; people live from hand to mouth. Every village has a fine square where the inhabitants spend the best part of their lives in talking politics—that is to say, the rivalries of their clans. Most villages are divided into two camps, two parties. One of my friends who was for some time in Corsica in the capacity of a *garde général* of the forests, told me that one Sunday he saw in a village church all the men with guns in their hands. The two camps occupied the two opposite sides; at the moment of the elevation of the Host, as all the men had to kneel, he heard the click of all the guns (which were loaded), lest the kneeling posture might become an occasion for firing."

M. Bourde has reckoned the cost to France of this singular island. He concludes that since the beginning of the century Corsica has cost France one milliard of francs. The fiscal laws are constantly evaded; the public works are all paid for out of the national treasury. For all that, France is not ready to abandon Corsica, feeling that the race which inhabits it is capable of progress. The Corsican soldiers are among the best in the French Army; and, besides, did not Corsica give us Napoleon? As his life is an indissoluble part of our history, his birthplace has become an indissoluble part of our country.

Correspondence.

SOUTHERN HOMICIDE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It may have been mentioned in your columns, but, as I have not noticed the statement of the fact, I will call attention to it, that a pamphlet (written, I was told, by a late Governor of South Carolina, but published without the author's name being embodied), bearing the following title-page, was issued by Parry, Cooke & Co., Charleston, S. C., 1878: 'The Code of Honor; its Rationale and Uses, by the tests of Common Sense and Good Morals, with the effects of its Preventive Remedies.' At the close are given "Rules for the Government of Principals and Seconds in Personal Difficulties."

I was told about the pamphlet by a gentleman of the *ancien régime* of the Sea Islands, who married the only child of a once wealthy planter of the same region. He also told me that on his wedding day he received, as a present from his father in-law, a case of duelling pistols with a copy of this pamphlet on the Code.

The author sets forth as a fact that civilization has come through wars, and that "the great natural right of self-preservation is as full in individuals as in public bodies"; and asserts that

"when the cause is just, and the course of the duel is governed by humanity in vindication of justice, or for a rational defence of honor, it stands upon the principles of nature and the principles of Christianity, precisely as public war. And now the leading and most rancorous enemies to the Code of Honor are the materialistic Puritan sceptics of this country. Under the name and cloak of Christians they dethrone the Godhead of Christ, ignore the atonement, and dispense with faith. . . . In the arrogance of intense self-sufficiency they trample

under foot, as they choose, both the Bible and the Constitution. And they have no respect for the immemorial usages of persons of gentle manners and good breeding. . . . Their individual feelings are little vulnerable, and character and rights, being both venial and venal, require no risky defence. . . . So long as radical levelling does not reduce all to the semi-savage state of the social hog—so long as the gentleman is not eliminated from existence—until the advent of the millennium, the Code of Honor will be used."

As to anti-duelling laws, which abridge the rights of juries to investigate the facts and the animus of homicides resulting from duels, he says:

"They have been transplanted from the pernicious hotbed of Puritan scepticism, whose arrogant and intermeddling 'higher law,' humanitarian aggression has caused the slaughter of thousands of American citizens, and whose levelling materialism has taken profitable shape in systematic plundering of their victims under form of law. For fifty years all this class have raged against the Code of Honor. . . . They have shown their mortal hatred of the Code of Honor and their fear of the responsibility it enforces."

That "the Bible" and "the principles of Christianity" should be brought forward to support the conservation of slavery, war, and the duel, is not surprising, seeing that a canon of the Anglican Church said, when some people hurrahed for Gladstone, "You might as well hurrah for the devil as for Gladstone," and that, as it is said, a Conservative party cry in England was "Beer and the Bible." But there is a new South which would not sympathize with the English canon in perpetuating the union of Church and State, which strives to suppress intoxicants, and which frowns on the duel.—Yours, H. J. S.

MONTREUX, SWITZERLAND, March 13, 1888.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the *Nation* of March 22, Mr. James Wood Pogue, writing from Nashville, Tennessee, under the above heading, says: "As I am distinctly a Southerner and personally acquainted with several gentlemen who have recently figured in desperate 'affairs of honor, it may be pardoned if I submit a concise opinion on the subject."

Now, if the phrase "affair of honor" means anything, it means a regularly arranged duel. But, from the illustration employed by Mr. Pogue, it is plain that he is talking, not of duels, which are about as completely out of date in the South as in the North, but of street-fights, which rarely have about them even that semblance of "honor," or fairness, which was supposed to be the recommendation of the duel. I do not know where Mr. Pogue has made the acquaintance of the "gentlemen who have recently figured in desperate affairs of honor," as there has been neither duel nor street-fight between gentlemen in Nashville within nine or ten years. The case of Gen. Zolicoffer, which he uses as a text, belongs to ancient history, having occurred between thirty and forty years ago. Moreover, his account of it is wholly inaccurate, and there was no such display of "chivalry" as he supposes.

The writer is a native of Tennessee, who knows that Mr. Pogue's loose expressions will convey to Northern readers a most unjust impression as to the peaceful conduct and regard for law of the community in which he lives—and who believes that in these particulars it will bear comparison with almost any community, North or South. He therefore begs space for this correction. B.

SPRING HILL, TENN., March 25, 1888.

PRACTICAL POLITICS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: An article in the *New Princeton Review* with the above heading furnishes a pretext for another blow at the nail which cannot get itself driven. The sum of that article is that our platforms are mere generalities, to which the parties pay no attention, while they ought to be so definite as to be the standard of parties, and committees of the Legislature should see that they are put in practice; that our representatives are wholly impersonal to their constituents, who vote for mere names, without knowing anything about them, what they have done, or what they will do, and that every representative ought to give a public account of himself, either orally at district meetings or through the press; and, lastly, that our representative bodies are too large, that debate in Congress or the State Legislatures is impossible, while the conventions "are mere panicky hordes, the prey of intrigues and surprises, in which discussion is impossible, and whose decisions cannot be forecast." The remedy in this last particular is not quite so clearly set forth.

The root of all the difficulties thus pointed out seems to me to lie in the want of personality in our politics, and of this again in the exclusion of the executive branch from all share in the public guidance of legislation. If the Cabinet officers had seats and voices in Congress—and the same is just as true of State officers in the Legislatures, and city officers in the councils—whatever else might be the effect, it could not fail to work a change in these respects. In the first place, there would be no need of a platform. Supposing the parties to retain distinguishing names, even as unmeaning as Republicans and Democrats, they would soon find that their way to success would depend upon following leaders, and leaving to those leaders to formulate policies. The conflict of debate would soon take care that those leaders were strong men, probably the strongest of the party. The leaders, watching the current of opinion in, and still more outside of, Congress, would put prominent questions into shape, and, having the guidance of business in the houses, would see that they were taken up in order and in good season to be debated publicly, instead of disappearing in the inextricable confusion of thousands of bills in separate and secret committees.

If this was the effect upon business, it would be quite as great upon the representatives. The reason why these are unknown ciphers to their constituents is, that their work is so indefinite, so purposeless, and so secret. Members of Congress disappear at once in committees. Not one in ten of them knows how or why anything is done, and those who do know are by no means anxious to tell. How can a member make report of such things to his constituents? He might as well try to explain the changes of figures in a kaleidoscope. But if measures were taken up in order, in full Congress, under the guidance of leaders, the speeches and the votes of the member would establish his political position, while he would have a plenty to talk about to his constituents in explaining to them what would have already excited their interest in the papers.

Not less would be the effect on the representative bodies. Whereas now, in Congress, the only way to prevent everybody from talking is to allow nobody to talk, then, in the interest of their own success, parties would be compelled to put forward their strongest speakers. The English Parliament is twice as numerous as our House of Representatives, yet there is no difficulty in conducting sustained debate, though they have had to resort to the "closure," or our "previous question," to get business done. As for conventions, their function could hardly fail to be considerably diminished. As it is now, the force of public opinion is so strong as to compel them, in a wonderful degree, to limit their nominations to men of at least respectable character, though, politically speaking, the entire absence of personality leaves the matter to be settled by chance or intrigue. If the people were sufficiently acquainted with their public men to have and to manifest decided preferences, the convention would have its work so far cut out as not to be in much danger of going astray. G. B.

BOSTON, March 31, 1888.

COLLEGE ADMISSION BY CERTIFICATES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Two examples have recently come to my knowledge which seem to have a bearing on the subject of "Admission by Certificates," written upon in your last issue.

The first illustrates the difficulty of enforcing a uniform standard of excellence, even when all students have been tested by the same examination papers. An instructor in Harvard lately took a position in another institution of high rank. One of his first duties was to examine some written exercises. Only those students who obtained 50 per cent. passed. He marked these papers after the Harvard standard, and found, in round figures, that one-third had passed, and a second third, having obtained between 40 and 50 per cent., were conditioned. Distrustful of the result, he consulted a colleague, and learned that he had expected too great accuracy, and that, marked after the customary standard, two-thirds should have been wholly successful. How much more are the obstacles in the way of a uniform standard multiplied when the number of privileged schools is increased, and especially when each sets its own tests of the student's proficiency.

The second incident was as follows: A young lady wishing to study solid geometry in connection with the "Study at Home Society," wrote that she had passed the entrance examinations of one of the three colleges mentioned, and was consequently excused from the review of plane geometry, which, according to custom, would have been required of her. Her work proved below the usual standard. Inquiries were made, and it was learned that she had passed the college examinations of an "approved" private school, privileged to send its students "on certificates" to that college. Is it fair to infer that these colleges are becoming responsible for a false standard of scholarship in girls' preparatory schools?

An extension of the plan initiated by Harvard and adopted by Vassar, of holding local examinations, would have all the advantages of the certificate system and none of its faults. By this well-known method, the questions are prepared and the answers examined by the college officials. A beneficial relation is established with the preparatory schools, and the student is saved the expense of a long journey. The authority of the faculty is delegated to one of its members, or, perhaps, to a graduate, only so far as to insure the fairness of the examination. The entire responsibility for the admission or rejection of a candidate lies with that person who, presumably, has the highest interests of the college most at heart, its President.

"Long experience has already taught male colleges the necessity, if they would be true to

their ideal, of insisting upon thorough preparation for their work. We do not see how female colleges can be exempt from this necessity, if they are to give young women similar advantages. Women, they say, jump to conclusions, but can they jump over grammars, spelling-books, arithmetics, and geometries, and begin, on an equal footing with our less-gifted sex, the study of the higher branches of literature and science?" (L. Clarke Seelye, Inaugural Address, pp. 13-14.)

Very respectfully, H.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., March 30, 1888.

A VINDICATION OF DR. VON HOLST.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The letters of "N. Z." in your issue of March 15 (p. 216), and of "G. B." in your last number (p. 258), have suggested the question whether those writers and some other writers have fairly criticised Prof. von Holst. The article to which "N. Z." refers lies before me in the earlier form of an address before the University of Freiburg. On page 16 is found the following passage: "Staat und Volk sind aber nicht von einander zu trennende Begriffe, und die Senatoren haben daher, obwohl sie nicht von dem Volke, sondern von den Legislaturen gewählt werden, in dem Empfinden der Gesammtbevölkerung weit mehr als die Gesammtheit der Repraesentanten den Charakter von Vertretern des Volkes." Will "N. Z." or any other thoughtful man deny that the people of a State as a whole recognize the Senators as their representatives rather than the Congressional delegation of the State, taken as a whole? If a great petition were forwarded from a State coming from every quarter of it, would it probably be presented by the delegation or by a Senator? Again, my own experience and belief is, that people who know who are the Mayor of their city and the Governor of their State can also mention both their Senators, and are quite unable to give the names of all their Congressmen. On the veto power and the initiative of legislation, Prof. von Holst may have laid himself open to attack; but foreign writers have no monopoly of heterodox opinions on those or any other points of constitutional law. It is one thing to disagree with a critic of our institutions, and another to say that his different opinion proves his want of acquaintance with his subject.

The charge made by "N. Z." is one of ignorance; "G. B." adds a charge of partisanship. "Dr. von Holst," says he, "is no friend of republican or parliamentary government, as shown not merely in his writings, but by the fact . . . that, after living some time in the country, he has preferred to . . . make his home in Germany." Several such criticisms have at various times come to my notice, and not one has ever been proved either from the writings or the life of the eminent German writer. A very intelligent young scholar remarked to me recently that the 'Constitutional History' seemed based on a comparison of twelve or fifteen of the best general works. I was able to assure him, from personal knowledge, that it was based on a study of many hundreds of volumes, including whole sets of *Congressional Globes*. On the other hand, I have more than once heard the criticism that he placed too much dependence on untrustworthy writers; the only specific instances furnished were John Quincy Adams's memoirs, which did not appear till the earlier part of the work was finished; and Giddings's works, against which Von Holst himself repeatedly warns his readers. If he understands our institutions imperfectly, it is because a long residence here and repeated visits, made for the purpose of investigation, are not sufficient; and any scholar who reads carefully his new 'Constitutional Law' must admit that it seems permeated with a critical and friendly understanding of the spirit of our institutions, and that the errors in it are extremely few.

The essential unfairness of assertions that Prof. von Holst is unfriendly to our institutions lies in the fact that in Germany he stands as their defender. The 'Constitutional History' began in a study of the workings of universal suffrage, upon which he entered at the instance of some Bremen gentlemen, who wished information when the German Confederation was founded. The first volume, and indeed the whole history, has been written for the enlightenment of the German public. With Friedrich Kapp, the lamented correspondent of the *Nation*, Von Holst has persistently called the attention of his countrymen to the greatness and the success of the American Union; he has constantly attempted to correct misapprehensions and misjudgments in regard to our Government.

One American writer has gone so far as to hint that a Prussian travelling stipend has bought his pen to use it in detraction of the United States—perhaps of free institutions; and "G. B." finds something portentous in his return to his native country. Germans themselves know that as a writer, a public speaker, and a legislator (he has been a member of the upper house of the Baden Legislature), he has set his face against the tendencies to absolutism in Germany. There is plenty of biting criticism of individual Americans in his works, and often specific national characteristics are excoriated; but I have found in them a thoughtful appreciation of American character and of republican government. The American university which twice called him to its chair of history, seems to have had no doubts on that score, and those persons who have worked in his library and talked with him about American history, will agree that they have found a very keen admiration for the American Republic. I commend to "N. Z." and to "G. B." these closing words of Von Holst's 'Constitutional Law': "No people of ancient or modern times has shown a greater capacity for founding a state." A. B. H.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., March 31, 1888.

DARED AND *DURST*.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A reviewer, in your issue of the 16th ultimo, combines quotation and implied criticism, in the words "no colonial barrister *dared* (*sic*) defend the accused," etc. As he can hardly prefer, instead of *dared*, *durst*, a form rapidly going out of use, it must be supposed that, in his opinion, good English imperatively requires "*dared to* defend."* The following passages will serve at once to throw light on the approximate age of expressions like *dared defend*, and to suggest whether they are liable to censure. As regards the earliest of them, it is observable that we find "She *dar'd to* brook Neptunus' haughty pride," in the page next to that in which it occurs.

"Who *dar'd*, for Edward's sake, *cut* through the seas." Robert Greene (died 1592), *Dramatic Works* (ed. 1831), Vol. I., p. 159.

"They *dared* not *doe* as others did." Jeremiah Burroughs, *Sions Joy* (1641), p. 26.

"Yet *dar'd* she not *discover* to him the true cause of them." William Browne, Trans. of *Polexander* (1647), Vol. I., p. 229.

"No man *dared* afterwards, for the sake of a reward, *expose* himself to the fury of the people." Dr. Johnson (1743), *Debates in Parliament* (ed. 1787), Vol. II., p. 441.

"Libanius and the rest . . . *dared* not so much as *mutter* the least suspicion of this nature." Bp. Warburton, *Julian* (1750), in *Works* (ed. 1811), Vol. VIII., p. 228.

"Yet none *dared vent* their indignation." Goldsmith, *History of England* (1771), Vol. II., p. 337.

"My advice, however salutary and necessary, as it seemed to me, was such as I *dared* not *have given* [*correctly*, should not have dared give] to a poet of less diffidence than he." William Cowper, *Letter to Mrs. Bodham*, Nov. 21, 1790.

"Though I *dared warrant* for the pleasantness of the journey on the whole," etc. Coleridge (1809), *The Friend* (ed. 1818), Vol. I., p. 23.

"They *dared* not openly *inculcate* the old faith." Southey, *Life of Wesley* (1820), Vol. I., p. 316.

"Cowper said, forty or fifty years ago, that he *dared* not *name* John Bunyan in his verse, for fear of moving a sneer." Lord Macaulay, *Essay on Bunyan* (1831), concluding paragraph.

"I *dared* not *hazard* the opinion," etc. W. S. Landor, *Pericles and Aspasia* (1836), CXXXV.

"She *dared* not *commit*," etc.; "I *dared* not *tell* why." Cardinal Newman, *Apologia pro Vita Sua* (1864), pp. 196, 288.

From the pages of Coleridge, Southey, Cardinal Newman, and other authorities of the first rank, not to speak of writers of inferior note, I might, if it were necessary, add largely to these quotations.

According to Dr. Latham, as cited by Dr. Worcester: "We can [*sic*] perhaps say, 'I *dared venture* on the expedition.'"

Dr. Johnson, and also Archdeacon Todd and Dr. Latham, as editors of his Dictionary, do not recognize the preterit *dared*; nor does the lexicographer Dr. Richardson. Dr. Webster's editors insert it; but Dr. Webster himself knew nothing of it, and the Dictionary of Dr. Worcester, for all the improvements that it has undergone since his death, has still to record its existence.

As to Grammars, that of Dr. Richard Morris (ed. 1873), and that of Dr. William Smith and Mr. T. D. Hall, which enjoys great vogue in England, are, like a host of their predecessors, unacquainted with it. Mr. C. P. Mason, in the twenty-fifth edition of his very popular *English Grammar* (1881), imparts the information, respecting *dare*, that "The past tense now in use is 'I durst.'"

Can it be, then, that Shakespeare and Milton, with countless other writers of the last three centuries, have been deemed insufficient to sanction *dared* as the equivalent of the obsolescent preterit *durst*? Certainly not; the truth being simply, that, from want of critical familiarity with our literature, the above-named professed guides to our language, Dr. Webster's editors excepted, were unaware of its reputable employment.

Durst, as a past participle, escaped Dr. Webster; but his editors supplied it, and yet struck it out in their edition of 1880. One would like to know why. In my *Modern English* (1873), p. 229, I ask: "Among what barbarians is 'I have not *durst* do it' good English?" Though this question may still be put, I now know, though, fifteen years ago, I was ignorant, that *durst* was a participle in former times, and preceded *dared*. I find it used by Alexander Barclay (1508), Dr. Samuel Collins (1617), Henry Earl of Monmouth (1650), Sir Richard Baker (1654), and Samuel Pepys (1665). It is unrecognized by Dr. Richard Morris and the other grammarians that I have spoken of, and by dictionary-wrights generally.

Referring to Tarlton's *Newes out of Purgatorie* (about 1590), Mr. T. L. Kington Oliphant says, with his ordinary misplaced positiveness: "The verb *dare* now first forms a Past Partici-

* The *sic* was intended for the sentiment, not the syntax; the fact being that the author of the book under review had himself put "dared" in italics. But we are nothing loath to have elicited Dr. Hall's exposition of an interesting grammatical point.—ED. NATION.

ple; *having dared to look.*" *The New English* (1886), Vol. II., p. 13. Though he has reported at length on the language of Alexander Barclay, he has failed to observe, in his best-known work, the passage: "They sholde nat haue *durst* the peoples vyce to blame." *The Ship of Fools* (ed. 1874), Vol. I., p. 207.

At variance with recent usage, phrases like "I *durst to* do it" were long current. Citations in proof of this assertion must, however, be forborne. They have been taken from thirteen authors, beginning with Dr. Nicholas Harpsfield (about 1555), and ending with De Foe (1717).—Your obedient servant, F. H.

MARLESFORD, ENGLAND, March 11, 1888.

P. S.—"Chrysostomus *dared* say that our lady was now and then taken with a little vainglory." Tyndale, *Answer to Sir Thomas More's Dialogue* (ed. 1850), p. 207. The editor of this reprint, the Rev. Henry Walter, B.D., F.R.S., had access to a copy, preserved at Cambridge, of what he thinks is "not unlikely to have been [*sic*] the first edition" of the work: "the type is foreign, but is not Hans Luft's." But neither in that edition, nor in Day's somewhat modernized reproduction of it (1573), on a collation of which two the text of the *Answer*, where just quoted, is professedly based, is there Mr. Walter's "dared." Another old copy of the *Answer*, belonging to the British Museum, was, on the faith of the printed Catalogue, probably the production of a London press, and was issued in the year 1530. That copy, as my obliging friend Dr. Charles Gross informs me, has, instead of what is given above: "Chrisostimus *dare* saye, that our lady was now & then taken wyth a litle vayne glorie." This, in every the minutest particular, is the reading in the Cambridge copy, as the Rev. Professor Skeat, who kindly consulted it at my request, enables me to state. And not only in his *Answer*, but in his translation of I. *Cor.*, VI., 1, Tyndale has *dare* as the third person singular. That Mr. Oliphant, accepting as trustworthy the aforesaid sophisticated sentence, credits him with the use of *dared*, is a serious error. See his *New English*, Vol. I., p. 430.

AN AMERICAN SCHOLAR.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Is not the wording of your note in the *Nation* on March 15 on Dr. Seligman's 'Two Chapters on the Mediæval Guilds of England' unfortunate in giving the impression that Dr. Gross, upon whose thesis Seligman's work is so largely based, is a German? Of course the initiated know that he is a good American. But are we already so rich in rising scholars that we ought to neglect to claim one whose work does such honor to our young scholarship?

Yours respectfully,

ARTHUR G. CANFIELD.

UNIVERSITY OF KANSAS, LAWRENCE, March 28.

Notes.

TWO of the ten volumes of the 'Library of American Literature, from the Earliest Settlement to the Present Time,' compiled and edited by Edmund Clarence Stedman and Ellen Mackay Hutchinson, and published by subscription by Charles L. Webster & Co., are now ready, and the rest are expected to follow monthly. The work is illustrated with steel engravings and woodcuts.

The third and last volume of Mr. Henry C. Lea's 'History of the Inquisition' will be published directly by Harper & Bros., along with 'France and the Navy of the Confederate States: an International Episode,' by Mr. John Bigelow; and 'A Brother to Dragons, and Other Old-Time Tales,' by Amélie Rives.

A welcome announcement is the first volume (of two) of the 'Life and Letters of George P. Marsh,' by Mrs. Caroline C. Marsh, to be published by the Scribners. They have also nearly ready the second and final volume of Thomas Stevens's 'Around the World on a Bicycle'; 'Befo' de War,' poems by A. C. Gordon and Thomas Nelson Page; 'The Spell of Ashtaroth,' by Osborne Duffield; and a volume of sermons, 'Eternal Atonement,' by the late Dr. Roswell Hitchcock.

Those who possess Prof. Geo. P. Fisher's 'History of the Christian Church' will desire to procure for insertion in the appendix to that work a thin pamphlet (paged 670*a*–670*aa*) of 'Notes on the Literature of Church History' (Scribners).

Henry Holt & Co. issue shortly 'A Castle in the Air,' by Gen. Hugh Ewing.

'Woffington: A Tribute to the Actress and the Woman,' by Augustin Daly, will be a sumptuous volume in two styles, with sixteen full-page illustrations, sold in a limited edition by J. W. Bouton, 1152 Broadway.

Worthington Co. announce 'Yankee Girls in Zululand,' by Louise V. Sheldon, with numerous illustrations.

Thomas Whittaker has in press 'The Mental Characteristics of the Lord Jesus Christ,' by the Rev. H. N. Bernard; and 'The Gospels of Yesterday,' by Robert A. Watson.

The tracts known in Boston as 'The Old South Leaflets,' accompaniments of the annual historical lectures given at the Old South Meeting-house, have been found to meet a need, and are to be succeeded by a general series for the use of schools, colleges, clubs, and classes. These "will be largely reproductions of important original political and historical papers," with helpful notes. D. C. Heath & Co. will be the publishers.

The house of Hoepli, in Milan, has in hand for the present year not only the royal edition of the 'Divine Comedy,' with the inedited commentary of Stefano Talice, as we have already mentioned, but also the continuation of the 'Corpus Scriptorum Ecclesiasticorum Latinorum' at the minimum rate of three volumes annually; the 'Annali d'Italia dal 1861 ai nostri giorni,' edited by the director of the Royal Library at Brera in continuation of the 'Annali' of Muratori and Coppi; the second volume of 'La Storia degli Israeliti,' from the election of Saul to the fall of Jerusalem, by David Castelli; the second and third volumes of Cesare Luigi Gasca's 'Del Codice Ferroviario'; and 'L'Arte Italiana,' a collection of 150 plates, after mostly inedited works by classical Italian artists, edited by Prof. A. Melani.

Roberts Bros., Boston, send us, in a very handsome edition, a translation of Renan's 'History of the People of Israel till the Time of King David.' The type is large and clear, and the University Press may be trusted for the accuracy of the proof-reading.

We receive from Scribner & Welford the seventh edition of Dean Alford's 'The Queen's English,' in the neat form of "Bohn's Select Library." To be mentioned with it is the "Boudoir Edition" of 'Don't' (Appletons), so far as the chapter on speech is concerned; as well as the second edition of Robert Luce's 'Writing for the Press' (Boston: *Writer* Publishing Co.), and 'Slips of Tongue and Pen,' by J. H. Long (Appletons). All these authors attempt more or less to make the English language what they think it ought to be, logically, analogically, and to suit their personal preferences. Mr. Long thus deals with settled usage (p. 33): 'Nobody's else book' is said to be [by whom?] preferable to 'Nobody else's book.' Custom has, however, firmly established the latter form. But it is better [why?] to employ some other expression, *e. g.*, 'The book of no one else,' 'No other person's book.'"

Sir Joshua Reynolds's 'Seven Discourses on Art,' Fox's 'History of the Early Part of the Reign of James II.,' another instalment of Pepys's 'Diary' (1667-68), and 'London in 1731,' by Don Manoel Gonzales, are the newest issues in "Cassell's National Library."

Belford, Clarke & Co. have put together in a convenient volume, with an index, the United States tariff and free list of the Act of March 3, 1883; the Hawaiian Reciprocity Treaty; and parts of the Navigation and Oleomargarine Acts.

The disease consumption, however viewed, is always of public interest. As Dr. Bowditch determined for Massachusetts, and Dr. Buchanan for parts of England, the comparative degree of wetness in the soil was a fair measure of the proportion of consumption among the residents thereon. Dr. Pepper of Philadelphia attempted an investigation of the distribution of the same disease for the State of Pennsylvania, and presented his data and certain conclusions to the Climatological Association as a contribution to the climatological study of the disease. His inquiries were sent to 650 of the 5,000 physicians distributed through sixty-seven counties, and replies were received from 120 correspondents in forty-seven counties. The general deductions from the answers are that the localities having high mortality from consumption are those of little elevation and large annual rainfall, and that the hemlock regions, which correspond quite closely with the favorable climatic regions, have the greatest immunity. A very small proportion of the respondents recognize the influence of special local causes for this disease, such as the greater dampness of one house than another. The hereditary nature of the disease is almost unanimously admitted, while its infectious quality is receiving more general recognition. In race the negroes seem the most liable, and Jews the most exempt, but there are many other factors than those of nationality to be taken into account. Dr. Pepper regards his paper "as the first crude and imperfect result of an investigation which he hopes to be able to continue to a much greater degree of completeness." The address is accompanied with elaborate maps, charts, and tables, and is published very satisfactorily by the Appletons.

The editor of the Tauchnitz collection, in his choice of American books, has always followed the English taste, and he rarely reprints an American book until after it has approved itself in London. Hence he has only now decided to include in the series Gen. Wallace's 'Ben Hur.' But Mr. Marion Crawford's books appear in Leipzig almost as soon as they are issued in New York and London; the latest to figure on Baron Tauchnitz's catalogue being 'Paul Patoff' and 'Marzio's Crucifix.' We may note, also, that French translations of 'Marzio's Crucifix' and (oddly enough) of 'An American Politician' have been published in Paris.

Of the making of books about the stage there is no end in Paris; and not a few of these are annuals. The latest of these series is one of the prettiest, 'Paris sur Scène,' by M. Guy de Saint-Môr (Paris: Piaget; New York: F. W. Christern). It contains a gossiping account of the chief plays acted in Paris in the season 1886-7, adorned with abundant illustra-

tions—ingenious and amusing little process cuts not unlike those in M. Daudet's 'Tartarin.' Some of the thumb-nail sketches of actors are singularly successful in attaining a likeness—for example, that of M. Coquelin *cadet*. The chief comment made by a New York playgoer who may turn these pleasant pages, will be to the effect that very few of the plays which are produced in Paris are ever reproduced in New York.

The 'Soixante Ans de Souvenirs' of M. Ernest Legouvé has been republished in four 18mo volumes (Paris: Hetzel; Boston: Schoenhof), each of the large octavos of the original edition making two volumes of that now issued. These literary and theatrical recollections of the veteran author, who came in contact, in one way or another, with so many of the most interesting personages of the present century, are brought down only to 1876. The years after that date, and even, as the author tells us, those preceding it, which contain more personal and intimate details, form the framework for other recollections already begun, but not with any intention of present publication. As this clever and charming writer is never indiscreet, and especially never ill-natured in his revelations, those who care to penetrate into the literary life of France will regret that he should have thought it necessary to delay giving anything to the world upon a subject that has already done so much honor to his literary generosity.

Alphonse Lemerre, the publisher of poets, has been for some time issuing in weekly numbers an 'Anthologie des poètes français du XIXe. siècle,' of which the second volume (1818-1841) is just completed. If those who share the very general belief outside of France that there is no contemporary French poetry, should turn over the leaves of these two substantial volumes, they would be surprised at the number of poets represented there, and at the poetic and artistic value of their work; and perhaps they might also be convinced that much real and very charming poetry has been written in France by poets still almost young, as well as by those belonging to the great poetic generation now passing away.

The collection of documents concerning Jacques Cartier gathered by F. Joüon des Longrais, and lately published at Paris under the title 'Jacques Cartier: Documents nouveaux,' affords material for more definite information relative to the career of the explorer than has hitherto been current. The date of his birth is shown to be 1491 instead of 1494, and his death, about which there was no information, is found to have occurred September 1, 1557. Two letters by Jacques Nouel de Saint-Malo concerning the Canadian discoveries are reproduced, and confirm the generally accepted idea, that the Bretons, particularly the "Malouins," were fishing for cod off the coast of Newfoundland in the early part of the sixteenth century.

L. Kreichauf, Elmira, N. Y., will issue in the latter part of this month the first number of his *Quarterly Bibliography of American and English Literature*, covering the first three months of 1888.

The *Publishers' Weekly* for January 21 is a "Copyright Number," containing documents of much historic importance relating to the present movement for international copyright in this country, including authors and publishers. These are followed by publishers' lists of American copyright books, with an authors' index; but here only approximate completeness is arrived at.

An interesting *aperçu* of a MS. orderly book of Sullivan's campaign against the Six Nations in 1779 is given in the Cornell University *Library Bulletin* for January. At the end of the *Bulletin*, Mr. F. H. Hodder furnishes useful references on municipal government in the United States.

In the *Pennsylvania Magazine of History and Biography* for January, Dr. C. J. Stillé develops at some length, but without adding much to it, Bancroft's summary mention of the Comte de Broglie's ambition and proposal to be made stadtholder of the American colonies during their struggle for independence. He supplements Kapp's revelations in his 'Life of Kalb' with documents drawn from a recent publication to the French Government, 'Participation de la France à l'établissement des États-Unis d'Amérique.' An etched portrait of Michael Hillegas, the first Treasurer of the United States, is prefixed to this number of the *Magazine*. His name is even less known to the present generation than is the Comte de Broglie's mad scheme.

The *Botanical Gazette*, published at Crawfordsville, Ind., has its tribute to pay to the late Asa Gray in its March issue.

Prof. George H. Cook's annual report for the Geological Survey of New Jersey tells of the virtual completion of the great Atlas of that State, the pioneer of its kind. The forestry of the northern sheets is still to be indicated. A cadastral and economic survey is the next desideratum. The mapping of the State has cost about one and one-twelfth cents per acre. A relief map of New Jersey on a scale of five miles to an inch has been made by the Survey, to exhibit drainage and sources of water supply. A general map of the entire State on the same scale accompanies this report.

The calendar of the University of Michigan for 1887–'88, just issued, brings gratifying evidence of the steady growth of that institution. With the exception of that of medicine and surgery, every department shows an increase of attendance compared with last year, and the total number of students, 1,667, is larger by nearly one hundred than ever before in the history of the University. As has been usual in recent years, about one-half of the students are residents of Michigan. Seventy-two names are credited to Canada and other countries outside of the United States. There are 62,398 volumes in the libraries, besides pamphlets and maps. The list of members of faculties and other officers contains ninety-nine names, but since the opening of the year two professors have been taken away by death—Dr. A. B. Palmer, who for more than thirty years was prominent in the medical faculty, and Dr. B. W. Cheever, professor of metallurgy. The chair of pedagogy, made vacant in February by the resignation of Professor W. H. Payne, has been filled by the appointment of ex-President B. A. Hinsdale of Hiram College.

There is a noticeable development of summer schools at Harvard, those advertised for the coming season covering Botany, Chemistry, French, German, Geology, History, Physics, Physical Training, and Topography. Notice of intention to join must be given by June 15. The Secretary of the University will furnish particulars.

—There are passages in Shakspere where commentators find either no sense, or a sense at war with the context. Yet in some of these passages, by changing a single word, we secure significance, and one in keeping with the surroundings. But judicious critics less and less venture on conjectural emendations, however plausible. If, however, the sense-making word an emendator would like to introduce is discovered to have been actually employed, in some work near Shakspere's era, as a typographical correction of a word which had been misprinted identically with the non-significant word in Shakspere, the critic who should correct the great dramatist as one of his contemporaries was in fact corrected, would not fear the charge of tampering with the text. Speculators on Shaksperian corruptions are thankful for every new hope, even the faintest, of textual correction. Resolved to do his utmost for them, Mr. Halliwell-Phillipps has just printed in their behalf a 'Dictionary of Misprints.' This work, which is a list of more than two thousand words that he finds misprinted in books issued in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, is a mere instalment of what he hopes to expand into something more voluminous. Each wrong word in the alphabetical array is followed in the same line by the right word as Mr. Phillipps has extracted it from tables of errata. The comments of the compiler suggest to verbal critics the application of his vocabulary of errors to the elucidation of truth. In the passage, "O, then we bring forth weeds, when our quick minds lie still," the word "minds" is a conjectural emendation of Warburton's which Grant White says that "he adopts with hesitation." The word "winds" stood instead of it in all early editions. Other emendators have proposed "wints," meaning "two furrows ploughed by the horses going to and fro to the end of a field and back again." Were White alive, he would adduce the Dictionary of Phillipps as thickening other proofs that do demonstrate thinly, for in that work we find "wind" as an actual misprint for mind in an ancient author. Thus Warburton's conjecture has authority. Seldom has refuse been turned to so good use as by this Dictionary. We are reminded of the French company who bought for a song the exhausted silver mines at Laurion, and, thanks to modern processes of smelting and reducing, turned out from the refuse slag more precious metal than the old Athenian miners had been able to extract from virgin ores. Well said *Autolycus:* "Every lane's end, every shop, church, session, hanging, yields a careful man work."

—The Cambridge University Press has just issued Mr. Charles M. Doughty's 'Travels in Arabia Deserta,' from 1876 to 1878, a book which has been ten years in preparation, and in which the author has had the assistance of such scholars as Renan, Sachau, Wright, and others. Mr. Doughty had prepared himself for his journey by a long residence at Damascus, and a wandering in Petræa in 1875. He never for a moment concealed his English nationality or his Christian faith, preferring, with a curious stubbornness, to die rather than allow it to be supposed for a moment that he belonged to the Mohammedan religion. Perhaps, after all, his concealing nothing and his always speaking the truth were his greatest safeguards. He started from Damascus with the pilgrims to Mecca, then lived entirely among the Bedouins, passed a long time in captivity near Medina, and several times narrowly escaped death. He discovered and copied many interesting inscriptions, compiled a vocabulary of the Nejd dialect, made many additions to our knowledge of the geography and geology of Arabia, and has rendered far more precise our notions of the Arabs in pre-Islamic times. His book, which is in two thick octavo volumes, with maps and illustrations, is written in a style which at first seems barbarous and affected, but which is soon seen to be a personal peculiarity of the traveller, coming partly from his hermit life in the East. His studies of English apparently stopped with the Elizabethan period and the

authorized version of the Bible, but they have given him a style eminently suited to his subject-matter. The book can be opened anywhere and read without weariness—a worthy companion to the 'Arabian Nights.'

—Concerning the merits of Cook's translation of Sievers's 'Anglo-Saxon Grammar,' *first* edition, we have already spoken. Prof. Cook, an indefatigable laborer in this domain, follows closely in the footsteps of his master. He has just favored us with a translation of the *second* edition of Sievers (Boston: Ginn & Co.). The initiated know that the translation is emphatically a labor of love, of devotion to sound scholarship, costing the translator no small sacrifice. The least that we can do in turn is to hasten to say that the work is well done and well worth the doing. By its aid our teachers and students of Anglo-Saxon will be fully abreast of the times, so far as that may be said of any progressive branch of science. We believe that Sievers's Grammar in its present shape (German and English) will remain now the universal handbook for many years to come. Increasing knowledge may add a point here, modify a statement there; but the general principles and rules will remain intact. At only one point do we detect the possibility of a general change—namely, Bugge's recent attempt (*Beiträge* xii, 399–430; xiii, 167–187, 311–339) to apply Verner's rule to initial consonants. Yet Bugge's views, even if accepted, would only modify our conceptions of certain stems and etymologies; they would scarcely enter, as *eclipsis* does in Keltic philology, into the domain of formal grammar. Moreover, Bugge's investigation has not yet got out of the region of grammatical speculation. Usually a translator contents himself with reproducing his original; but Prof. Cook is one who leaves his original better than he finds it. His indexes are much superior to those of the German text. We regret that his paragraphing could not be made to correspond in every case to the German, and that he has felt obliged to condense certain minor details. We should have preferred Sievers pure and simple. But doubtless these departures from the original were occasioned by practical and personal considerations which we are bound to respect. It must have been the early printing of the title-page which has left Sievers still Professor in Tübingen, instead of installing him in Zacher's chair at Halle. We congratulate the translator upon accomplishing a most useful but toilsome task; we hope that his public will not prove ungrateful. Now that his hands are free, we look with eagerness for his more original work upon the Northumbrian gospels.

—In a recent number of the *Revue Bleue* the critic, M. Jules Lemaitre, gives a very entertaining account of the new school of French poets, the symbolists, decadents, and impressionists. These gentlemen, discontented with the monotony and conventionalism of French verse, attempt to put into their rhymes a little more color and music, and aim only at producing in the mind of the reader a vague impression. They seek for the musical value of the words, taking their sense into account only to a certain extent. In order to make this easier, M. René Ghil has published a pamphlet, entitled 'Traité du Verbe.' In a style that it is difficult to understand, no matter which way you turn it, he explains what is meant by symbolism. We find from this that of the vowels, taking them, of course, in their French pronunciation, A is black, E white, I blue, O red, U yellow. Black is the organ, and expresses doubt, monotony, and foolishness; white is the harp or serenity; blue, the violin, passion and prayer; red, the trumpet (this is a very old symbol, as is seen in the well-known story of the blind man), glory and triumph; yellow, the flute, simplicity and smiles. One can readily understand the desire for greater variety in French verse, which Lemaitre himself says has always too much resembled fine prose, and in which to seize the rhythm it is necessary to pronounce vowels and syllables which in prose are silent. These young men, too, have perhaps noticed that indifferent verse seems much finer in a language which one only half knows; or at least where one does not perceive the exact shade of meaning of all the words, from which only a vague impression is received. We used to wonder, by the way, whether this were not one reason for the greater enthusiasm displayed by young persons in learning German, where they soon are taught by ballads and short poems, than in studying French, which is chiefly pursued in prose. The trouble about the impressionists is that they give so little heed to the sense of the words they use, or employ them in meanings so out of the common, that where these verses are not obscure they cannot be understood at all. Here is a specimen from M. Paul Verlaine:

"En ta dentelle où n'est notoire
Mon doux évanouissement,
Taisons pour l'âtre sans histoire
Tel vœu de lèvres résumant.

"Toute ombre hors d'un territoire
Se teinte itérativement
À la lueur exhalatoire
Des pétales de remuement."

—Voltaire gave us a receipt for finding whether French verses were good or bad—"put them in prose." Here are some more of M. Verlaine's verses in prose:

"The moon was spatting its tints of zinc in obtuse angles; whiffs of smoke shaped like fives were coming out thick and black from the high pointed roofs.

"The sky was gray. The north wind was weeping like a bassoon. Far away a tomcat, shivering and discreet, was miauling in a manner strange and shrill.

"I was walking along, dreaming of the divine Plato and of Phidias, of Salamis and Marathon, beneath the winking eye of the blue gas-jets."

That is all of it. But we agree with M. Lemaitre in not knowing what it means, and cannot see the symbolism even of the vowels and consonants. Here, however, is another which sounds as well as most modern poetry, and, when properly read and reread, does somehow leave a vague impression, but too vague to state:

"Le souvenir avec le crépuscule
Rougeoie et tremble à l'ardent horizon
De l'espérance en flamme qui recule
Et s'agrandit ainsi qu'une cloison
Mystérieuse, où mainte floraison—
Dahlia, lis, tulipe et renoncule—
S'élance autour d'un treillis et circule
Parmi la maladive exhalaison
De parfums lourds et chauds, dont le poison—
Dahlia, lis, tulipe et renoncule—
Noyant mes sens, mon âme et ma raison,
Mêle dans une immense pâmoison
Le souvenir avec le crépuscule."

Such is the art of the poet that the lines produce the same impression, when read from bottom to top as from top to bottom.

—A careful and interesting biographical record is Antonio Zardo's recent work, 'Il Petrarca e i Carraresi' (Milan: Hoepli), treating of the intimate relations existing between the poet and the Paduan princes, Jacopo (the second) and Francesco (styled the Old) di Carrara. The book is, on the whole, the fullest narrative of Petrarch's closing years, which were spent in the dominions of these princes at Padua and Arquà, and were years of peace and honor. The various contemporary accounts of his death are printed *in extenso* and closely criticised, and the volume closes with an appendix of documents, some of them new. Professor Arturo Graf, of the University of Turin, has occupied himself, on the other hand, with a period subsequent to Petrarch's death, of which he has produced a vivid picture in his 'Petrarchismo ed Antipetrarchismo nel Cinquecento,' reprinted from the pages of the *Nuova Antologia*. He does full justice to the myriad of rhymesters whose dull and heavy productions bade fair, at one time, to drag the unexcelled lyrics of their master and model with them into oblivion. One of the men who did something to prevent such a catastrophe was the famous author of the 'Secchia rapita,' to whom a young writer, Orazio Bacci, has devoted his essay on 'Le *Considerazioni sopra le Rime del Petrarca* di Alessandro Tassoni,' in which is told, with much painstaking research, the story of a singular literary quarrel of the early years of the seventeenth century. This combat, carried on with the usual verbose acrimony of those days, grew out of Tassoni's commentary on Petrarch, the two principal belligerents being Tassoni himself and a somewhat pedantic Paduan student, Giosefo degli Aromatari. The work has, as an appendix, a good bibliography of the letters of Tassoni, edited and inedited. Its author is at present preparing an edition of the 'Epistolæ sine Titulo' of Petrarch, which, by reason of the author's violent invective against the Papal curia, were not included in Fracassetti's great collection of Petrarch's letters. A still later Petrarch publication is a pretty brochure by Giuseppe Agnelli, 'De le tre Canzoni sorelle di Francesco Petrarca' (Bologna, 1887); it contains the Marsand text of the three famous odes, with a comment chiefly remarkable because it cites the opinions of noted critics from Varchi to De Sanctis. It is perhaps not improper to end this hasty résumé of recent additions to Petrarch literature with a reference to Mr. J. A. Symonds's sketch of the poet in the 'Encyclopædia Britannica,' though it be now more than two years old. It was written before the astonishing "finds" of the past year, and even before Professor Bartoli's happy discovery of the real "dedicatee" of the magnificent canzone, *Spirto gentil*, but it is, nevertheless, the only readable or accurate biography of Petrarch published in the English language. Its brevity is its only fault.

—'L'Ornement Slave et Oriental, d'après les Manuscrits,' is the title of one of the most superb volumes of the past year, having more than 120 plates, and letterpress in Russian and French. The author of this artistic collection, Vladimir Vasilievitch Stasoff, at first held the common view, that Russian ornament had been borrowed in early times from MSS. of Byzantine, Bulgarian, and Servian origin. A more profound study of MSS. in the last category existing in the Imperial Public Library at St. Petersburg and elsewhere showed that direct borrowing was not sufficient to account for all the ornamental forms present in Russian MSS. He found it necessary to enlarge his scope of investigation and to admit many other nations hitherto neglected. This volume is the result of the author's studies for the last twenty-five years, and the specimens of ornament have been taken from MSS. in all the great European libraries, as well as from those preserved in Russia and in the countries cited. Rare MSS. were sent for study from Kieff, Bucharest, the Ecclesiastical Academy of Kazan, etc.; and a Galician MS. from Poltava. Among the illustrations are some taken from the magnificent copy of the Koran purchased by General Kaufmann from the mollahs of a Mosque in Samarcand, and which is now in the Imperial Public Library. In Mr. Stasoff's collection great care has been taken to reproduce

color and outline with absolute accuracy, and every design is accompanied by a reference. The Public Library in Boston has been marked for a copy of this splendid work (which was published by permission of the late Emperor, Alexander II., chiefly from the imperial exchequer) as a present from the author.

IN GOOD OLD COLONY TIMES.

The Colonial Laws of Massachusetts. Reprinted from the edition of 1672, with the supplements through 1686. Published by order of the City Council of Boston, under the supervision of William H. Whitmore, Record Commissioner. Boston. 1887. Pp. 395.

THE publication in 1672 was the third published revision of the colony laws, and was entitled 'The General Laws and Liberties of the Massachusetts Colony.' The next previous Revision was published in 1660, and the earliest of all in 1648; but of this last it is not known that any copies are extant. The production of the volume before us is most creditable to Mr. Whitmore, as well as to the city of Boston, by whose judicious and liberal appropriation the expense has been defrayed. The method employed was a photographic facsimile, corrected (as is necessary in such cases) by the most scrupulous and literal proof-reading.

This Revision is divided into subjects, or heads of laws, arranged alphabetically, so that it is easy to ascertain the statute law of the time on any subject considered in the Revision. Moreover, an abundant index (not only the original of 1672, but one for the present compilation) enables us to ascertain and refer readily to all that is in the book. As the legislation of the different years is generally in distinct paragraphs, with the date of enactment affixed, we can trace much of the earliest Revision, and some legislation prior to 1641. Under the title "College," for example, we have in the first paragraph the provisions made in the years 1636, 1640, and 1642 concerning Harvard College, and in the remaining paragraphs the contribution to that institution in 1659.

It has been suggested that the legislation of the colony was based upon the laws of Moses, and that its laws were merely transcripts of those laws. While this is measurably true of the very small portion embraced under the title "Capital Laws," it is altogether incorrect as to the rest of the Revision of 1672. In the title in question sixteen crimes punishable with death are enumerated in separate paragraphs, with a reference in the case of fourteen to certain books of the Old Testament, and generally to the chapter and verse, indicating that the respective crimes were punished with death by the Jews. Again, under the title "Indians," the first paragraph is as follows: "For settling the Indians' title to lands in this Jurisdiction, it is declared and ordered by this Court and authority thereof, that what lands any of the Indians in this Jurisdiction have possessed and improved, by subduing the same, they have just right unto, according to that in Gen. 1, 28, and chap. 9, 1, and Psal. 115, 16." With the exception of these two titles, a careful examination has not discovered in the whole of the Revision of 1672 any reference to any book of the Old Testament.

Nor in the other laws is there reference in terms to the laws of any other country. Though they are full of the principles and provisions of the English common law, there is but a single reference to any English authority. We find this under the title "Ships, Ship-Carpenters," the first paragraph of which (probably a law of 1641) authorizes the appointment of "some able man to survey the work [of shipbuilding] and workmen from time to time, *as is usual in England*," etc. On the other hand, for intrinsic evidence that the colony laws were prepared by those who were acquainted with the laws of England, take the title "Lands, Free Lands":

> "It is also ordered, and by this Court declared, [viz., in 1641], that all our lands and heritages shall be free from all fines and licenses, upon alienations, and from all heriots, wardships, liveries, primer-seisins, year, day and waste, escheats and forfeitures upon the death of parents, or ancestors, natural, unnatural, casual, or judicial, and that for ever."

This shows most clearly how heavily to their knowledge the burden of feudal exactions in the mother country had oppressed the owners of lands, and the determination of the colonists to have none of them here; and the specific enumeration of the matters prohibited indicates an acquaintance with the laws relating to the conveyance and descent of lands, and the oppressive appendages of the feudal tenure. So the punishment provided for scolds—that they be "gagged, or set in a ducking-stool, and dipt over head and ears three times in some convenient place of fresh or salt water, as the court or magistrate may judge meet"—is substantially of the same nature as was imposed by the common law of England in like cases. Other instances might be adduced.

In 1647, in order clearly to determine the meaning of a clause in the "Common Liberties" of 1641—to wit: "Every inhabitant who is an householder, shall have free fishing and fowling in any great ponds, bays, coves, and rivers, so far as the sea ebbs and flows within the precincts of the town where they dwell," etc.—it was enacted that the proprietor of the land adjoining such waters shall have propriety to low-water mark, where the sea does not ebb more than a hundred rods. This Colony ordinance is the foundation of the rule of law now established by usage in New England, contrary to the rule of the English common law which limits the ownership to the line of high-water mark; the King owning the land over which the sea ebbs and flows.

The infliction of bodily punishments for offences appears to have been left, within certain limits, largely to the discretion of the magistrates. Under the title, "Punishment, Torture," it is declared that none are allowed that are inhuman, barbarous, or cruel. Yet the language of the law would seem to leave the way open for the infliction of such punishments. The provisions are, that

> "no man shall be beaten with above forty stripes for one fact at one time, nor shall any man be punished with whipping except he have not otherwise to answer the law, unless his crime be very shameful, and his course of life, vicious and profligate; and no man shall be forced by torture to confess any crime against himself or any other, unless it be in some capital case where he is first fully convicted by clear and sufficient evidence to be guilty, after which, if the case be of that nature, that it is very apparent there be other conspirators or confederates with him, then he may be tortured, yet not with such tortures as are barbarous and inhuman."

We can gather from these statutes striking illustrations of the great difficulty, if not impossibility, of extinguishing, or entirely suppressing, the instincts, impulses, affections, and passions of a neighborhood or people by legislation. Take, for example, the laws and regulations for the observance of the Lord's day. One would suppose that if, in any community, such regulations would be scrupulously and willingly obeyed, it would be in this colony, where at first only church members could be freemen, and only freemen could vote. Yet, in 1653, a law was passed (which appears in the Revision of 1672, title "Sabbath") punishing the violations of such regulations first with admonition and then with fine, and persistent violations with fine or stripes, in the preamble to which law were set forth the objectionable practices it was desired to prevent. Five years later, in 1658, the practices evidently continuing and perhaps increasing, an additional statute was passed, contemplating fine or corporal punishment, with the following preamble:

> "Whereas, by too sad experience, it is observed, the sun being set, both every Saturday and on the Lord's day, young people and others take liberty to walk and sport themselves in the streets or fields, in the several towns of this Jurisdiction, to the dishonor of God and the disturbance of others in their religious exercises, and too frequently repair to public houses of entertainment, and there sit drinking, all which tends not only to the hindering of due preparation for the Sabbath, but as much as in them lyeth renders the Ordinances of God unprofitable, and threatens the rooting out of the power of Godliness and procuring the wrath and judgment of God upon us and our posterity; For prevention whereof it is ordered," etc.

In the autumn of 1675 a remarkable statute was passed—in some respects the most remarkable in the volume—entitled "Provoking Evils." It is an act of profound humiliation and confession of the sins of the people, a sincere repentance therefor, and a declaration of the evils which have justly provoked the anger of the Almighty. It shows the terror of the colonists, and illustrates, in a somewhat exaggerated way, their methods in like cases. The preamble, too long to quote here, is followed by twelve sections setting forth and punishing the "provoking evils" which are to be avoided in future: (1) a neglect of discipline in the churches, especially respecting children; (2) the wearing of long hair or of periwigs by some men, and immodest hairdressing by women; (3) pride in apparel; (4) the open meeting of Quakers, with their damnable heresies and abominable idolatries; (5) a profane turning of the back on the pulpit before the close of service; (6) boyish disorderliness in church; (7) "common swearing and cursing"; (8) excessive drinking; (9) a woful breach of the Fifth Commandment; (10) idleness "(which is a sin of Sodom)"; (11) "oppression in the midst of us, not only by such shopkeepers and merchants who set excessive prices on their goods, but also by mechanics and day laborers who are daily guilty of that evil"; (12) a loose and sinful custom of riding from town to town, with tavern frequenting by both sexes under pretence of attending lectures. The judgment that people of sound orthodoxy to-day would pass upon the foregoing, illustrates one of the differences between public opinion in 1675 and in 1888.

We close with the remark that the whole volume contains matters of great interest to those who take pleasure in studying the building up of the colonies in New England, and especially the Massachusetts Colony. It is hardly a stretch of the imagination to think that by means of this facsimile—resembling even in the appearance of the paper the edition read by the men of 1672—we catch more readily their spirit and that of the Colony, and understand more intelligibly their laws. For this we renew our thanks to the city of Boston, and to the Senior Record Commissioner, whose services on behalf of local history and antiquities are ever gratuitously at the disposal of his townsmen.

THE ACROPOLIS OF ATHENS.

Die Akropolis von Athen, nach den Berichten der Alten und den neuesten Erforschungen. Von Adolf Boetticher. Mit 132 Textfiguren und 36 Tafeln. 8vo, pp. 295. Berlin: J. Springer; New York: Westermann. 1888.

If we make use of a trite publisher's phrase in saying that "this book supplies a long-felt want," it is because in the present case the words are literally true. It is thirty-four years since the first and best edition of Beulé's 'L'Acropole d'Athènes' was published, and although successive excavations have put that further and further behind the times, it has still remained the best handbook of the Acropolis ever written. The second edition, which appeared eight years later, contained merely the substance of the first in more condensed and popular form, and was therefore of less value to scholars. Indeed, incredible as it seems, in view of the attractiveness of the subject, Beulé is the only modern writer who has devoted an entire book exclusively to the Acropolis; and of those who since his time have written upon Athens, none have superseded him on his own ground. Breton's 'Athènes' (1861) is so largely inspired by Beulé's book as to be little more than a weak reflection of it; of Dyer's 'Ancient Athens' (1873) the Acropolis occupies but a small portion, and that based mainly upon Beulé, with the addition of an excellent description of the Dionysiac Theatre; Wachsmuth's 'Stadt Athen,' the first volume of which appeared in 1874, has as yet treated the Acropolis only topographically; and Burnouf's 'La Ville et l'Acropole d'Athènes' (1877) was so evidently written in a spirit of hostility towards Beulé, and with a view to opposing him at every point, that the author allowed his prejudices to run loose, and thus spoiled what otherwise might have been a valuable book.

Yet the need of a new work on the subject which should summarize the results of the later excavations, and give to general readers, in accessible form, the changes in facts and theories brought about by these excavations, has been growing greater with every year. When Beulé wrote, the Dionysiac Theatre had not been discovered; the terrace on the south side of the Acropolis, on which we now see the remains of the sanctuary of Asklepios, was still covered with a heap of refuse soil thrown over from the excavations above; the Temple of Niké Apteros had been reconstructed, but its connection with the Propylaia had not been made clear; the floor of the Parthenon was still encumbered with remains; several of the old Turkish houses were still standing on various parts of the citadel; the excavations for the museum east of the Parthenon, which brought to light many fragments of early Greek art, were not begun; Michaelis had not published his exhaustive work on the Parthenon. The accomplishment of all these undertakings would have warranted the publication of a new book some years ago, but the investigations conducted by Dr. Dörpfeld and the Greek Archæological Society during the last five years have been in many respects more important, as regards results, than those of the thirty years preceding. The discovery of a temple of Athena, hitherto entirely unsuspected, in the very middle of the Acropolis, has upset many pet theories regarding the early history of the place, and he who seeks his knowledge of it from Beulé to-day gets what is indeed antiquated. Naturally it is impossible that everybody who is interested in the subject should be able to follow all these excavations, and only special students can hope to keep pace with the literature to which they give rise. When, therefore, such a student takes the trouble to bring together the results of these investigations, and to publish them in an attractive and easily accessible form, his book is an offering that will be welcome to many. Our only regret is that such a book should have appeared finally in German instead of English.

Herr Boetticher, who, by the way, is not to be confounded with the author of the 'Tektonik der Hellenen' and the 'Untersuchungen auf der Akropolis, in 1862,' to whom we believe he is in no way related, has already proved his qualification to undertake such a task by his beautiful volume on 'Olympia,' which is by far the best guide to and commentary upon the large volumes of photographs of the excavations that has yet appeared. An architect by profession, his archæological spurs were won in the German expedition to Olympia, of which he was a member. Upon his return to Germany, he wrote a book which in a popular style described the history of Olympia in antiquity, and the excavations carried on there in recent times, especially, of course, the famous work in which he shared, giving at the same time a summary of the theories to which these investigations had given rise. His book was carefully and thoroughly done, and found such ready reception that a second edition was called for shortly. This success encouraged him to try a similar book on the Acropolis of Athens, with the result that we have before us.

The plan followed is substantially the same as in the 'Olympia;' that is, the subject is treated chronologically rather than topographically. Of the four parts into which the book is divided, the first is an historical sketch of the Acropolis, more especially from the downfall of paganism to the present day; the second describes it from the earliest times to the end of Cimon's administration; the third is devoted to the age of Pericles and Pheidias, and the last takes us from the year 400 B. C. into the period of Roman dominion. In this way the author gives us, as far as is possible from ancient accounts and modern investigations, a picture of the Acropolis at each of the epochs described; and the statues and reliefs which excavations have brought to light are mentioned not in the order of their discovery, but according to the epoch in which they were erected. Beulé, it will be remembered, followed the topographical method, beginning with the Propylaia and describing everything known about that locality, of whatever period, and proceeding thence towards the Parthenon.

Boetticher's book lacks the brilliancy of Beulé's; it has none of the fine descriptions which made that book such attractive reading, and it is not calculated, like that, to inspire enthusiasm for the subject in the mind of him who does not already feel it; but those who go to the book simply for information, to learn what archæologists of the highest standing know and think about the Acropolis to-day, will not be disappointed. The author says at the outset that his aim is not to produce any new doctrines, but to make as clear as possible a summary of the opinions of those who have made especial studies of the various monuments there; and the care and intelligence with which he has done this, entitle his book to high commendation. The skill with which he has stated the gist of a whole library of essays will save students an enormous amount of unnecessary reading. Investigations and discoveries upon the Acropolis are described down to the very month in which the book must have gone to press, some of the statues unearthed in 1886 figuring among the illustrations; and there is even a brief statement from Dörpfeld of his latest investigations in the Dionysiac Theatre, the results of which have not yet been published officially. Herr Boetticher's professional instincts have led him to give minute descriptions of each of the buildings from a technical point of view, in which architectural terms and measurements play so large a part as to be somewhat confusing to the layman, and therefore prevent the book from being popular in the most general sense; yet this very feature will give it additional value to architects and others who wish more than a superficial treatment of the subject.

Herr Boetticher has, in common with many of his countrymen, one tendency of which the reader should be warned beforehand, and that is a disposition to accept the latest theory as the best, merely because it is the latest. It is only on such grounds that we can understand his following Dörpfeld unquestioningly through the revels of the latter's imagination; for readers of the later numbers of the *Mittheilungen des Instituts in Athen* have learned that between Dörpfeld the investigator and Dörpfeld the theorist there is a breach which few of us are able to jump. A rather amusing instance of this tendency occurs in the description of the western pediment of the Parthenon. Those who are familiar with Carrey's drawing of this pediment will remember that near the right end of the group are two figures (usually numbered S T), one of which is seated in the lap of the other, and nude. Both are gone now, and Carrey's drawing has not left it clear whether this nude figure was male or female. Opinion at present inclines to the belief that it was male, and the popular interpretation of Aphrodite in the lap of Thalassa has gone under. So great is the fascination of the present "topical" theories, by which half the figures in the two pediments are being resolved into personifications of rivers, clouds, and mountains, that Löschke in 1884 published an essay to show that the figures S T could be none others than Herakles sitting in the lap of Melite, the object of one of the lusty hero's innumerable amours, and, at the same time, the personification of the district in which stood his principal Athenian shrine! Then the adjoining figure, Q, becomes Demeter Kurotrophos, taking care of the two children of this union, who stand at either side of her. As Herr Boetticher ingenuously remarks, this group forms "ein Familienbild, noch intimer als sie die attischen Grabsteine zeigen"; and yet, in spite of its manifest absurdity, in spite of the shockingly inartistic character of such a conception, he accepts it enthusiastically, and thinks that "jetzt erst kommt Leben und Zusammenhang in die Gruppe."

As an offset to this, however, it is gratifying to note that, notwithstanding the general upheaval of old and established opinions regarding the Acropolis which the recent investigations have occasioned, he still stands by Penrose's theories of the curvatures in the horizontal lines, and declares that Durm's attempt to prove them the result of accident was not borne out by the facts.

The illustrations form a considerable and important portion of the book, there being 168 in all. Many of them, and particularly the architectural drawings, will be of great assistance to the reader, and the plates give a very attractive appearance to the book. Two of the plates and twenty-five of the illustrations in the text were derived by permission from Durm's 'Die Baukunst der Griechen' in the second volume of the 'Handbuch der Architektur.' More of the plates were taken from Stuart and Revett's 'Antiquities of Athens' and the 'Ancient Marbles in the British Museum'; and while Stuart's drawings are always interesting to compare with the present condition of the Acropolis, we

wonder at the author's selecting the 'Ancient Marbles' as the source of his illustrations of the Parthenon sculptures, when he had at his command so many processes of reproducing them directly from the originals. Those in the 'Ancient Marbles' were drawn and engraved, and although with much of the spirit and feeling of the originals, they are not accurate enough to suit the taste of to-day. Several of them are antiquated, and so Herr Boetticher represents, in plate xxiii, the Niké without the leg which she now possesses, and, in plate xiv, the metope of the Lapith and Centaur, without the restoration published some years ago by Waldstein. And we must blame the publishers for making mechanical reproductions of copper-plate engravings and publishing them with plate-marks. This is a sort of trickery, entirely unnecessary, which is only calculated to deceive the uninitiated, and is therefore severely to be condemned. With this exception the illustrations seem to us excellently and clearly rendered, and for them hardly less than for the text itself we recommend the book to all who are interested in its immortal subject.

SOME NEW GERMAN GRAMMARS.

Deutsche Grammatik für Amerikaner, nach einer neuen praktischen Methode. Von Carla Wenckebach und Josepha Schrakamp. Henry Holt & Co.

Complete German Manual for High Schools and Colleges. By W. C. Sawyer. Chicago: Buckbee & Co.

Graded German Lessons: being a Practical German Grammar. By W. Eysenbach. Revised and largely rewritten by W. C. Collar. Boston: Ginn & Co.

A German Grammar for Schools and Colleges, based upon Meissner's. By E. S. Joynes. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.

THE Wenckebach-Schrakamp grammar is intended especially to be used in the "Natural Method." Among novel features the authors claim the following, viz., that the rules are preceded in all cases by preliminary examples, and the large number of exercises affords ample opportunity for diversified practical application. Part i. treats of the different parts of speech. Part ii. is entirely devoted to the verbs. Part iii. contains the syntax. The appendix offers "hints about German genders and other peculiarities of the German language which will be found particularly valuable to American students." These so-called "hints" as to genders are cut-and-dried "rules," to be learned by heart and recited. Why the whole grammar should be especially adapted to the wants of Americans, is not clear. Were it not for the English preface, the work might be expected to do as well for the English, Italians, and French. It is to be feared that those who have studied German with this grammar will have to unlearn some things when they enter into the deeper, though less "natural," study of the language. Take, for instance, the statements that in the old language all verbs have in the imperfect and participle a different vowel from that in the infinitive (p. 209); that there is no ablaut (*sic*) in the imperative of verbs of Braune's sixth class; that verbs like *brennen* are partly strong and partly weak.

Prof. Sawyer's Manual is intended as an aid both in the "natural" and in the "grammar" method. The first part, the so-called "Theory," is a revision of part of the author's 'Practical German Grammar.' It covers very much the same ground as Whitney's or Sheldon's small grammar, and has a similar arrangement; but the syntax is very meagre. All these diminutive grammars are short roads to reading, and a special help to teachers who do not choose to pick out from eight to twelve lessons on essentials in Whitney's and Brandt's large grammars; they thus oblige the classes who go beyond the elementary stage to buy two grammars. Part ii. contains the "Practice," consisting of exercises for writing and oral practice, a guide to correspondence, to reformed spelling and punctuation, a list of irregular verbs and the vocabularies. In the verb-list we notice many inseparable and even separable compound verbs. At the very end of the book is a curious feature, viz., one page with a table of conjugations (the whole of *loben* and the present of *sein*), another page with a table of declensions (the articles, the adjective, personal pronoun, and a most remarkable system of three substantive declensions).

In Eysenbach's 'Graded German Lessons' we have the usual style of practical grammars of a modern language, though the reviser is not an advocate *à outrance* of the natural method. In the very long preface a good idea is emphasized, viz., that the reading "should be begun at the very earliest practicable moment, and should occupy the largest practicable place." There is a new English word, *antithete*, which is not in Murray's great dictionary in that form. There are many comparisons between Latin and German syntax which seem to us superfluous and cumbersome for such a book. In the written alphabet only the old forms of C, F, and H are given. The accent has been thoroughly given in the German-English vocabulary. If the reviser had used the grave accent for the next to the strongest stress, he could have given the pronunciation of such a long word as "Leihbibliothek" more accurately than he does. This is one of the many text-books which, it is claimed, were "born in the class-room."

Prof. Joynes has intended to make a *working* grammar, and to admit that it fulfils its scope and purpose is no small praise. The American editor is a teacher of long experience, and has once before worked over a grammar, viz., Otto's, of which it will be a formidable rival. Joynes says nothing about the natural method, to which, nevertheless, the exercises and the whole plan are as suitable as the grammars mentioned above. Part i. contains the orthography, pronunciation, and accidence; Part ii., the derivation and composition; Part iii., the syntax. The exercises are excellent, and not too numerous for students of high-school grade and for younger ones. The syntax, Joynes suggests, may be studied consecutively, or used by reference only. The latter, with the use of the more difficult continuous passages for translation into German, would be the method for college students. The skilful use of references, though frowned upon by many teachers, is a unique feature, and cannot be too much commended. It appears well in the list of strong verbs and in the vocabulary. We know of no grammar in which the noun and adjective declensions are so well grouped. The strong verbs are not so well arranged. We wish Prof. Joynes had cut loose from the old-fashioned chaotic arrangement, and adopted the classes of the scientific grammars of Braune's series.

In the otherwise very good chapter on the relation of German and English in Part ii., Grimm's law is stated by using H (hard) A (aspirate) S (soft). In this, Prof. Joynes has not got beyond Peile and Morris. The corresponding English and German sounds can be given without alluding to Grimm's law. An elementary grammar has no business with it. We expect no discussion, certainly no explanation, of the origin of life in a physiological or biological text-book. How many teachers can state Grimm's law? Look at the loose statement of it in the latest book by Skeat, in his 'Principles of English Etymology.'

The Joynes-Meissner is not a large book. In fact, it is growing quite clear that the advocates of the "grammar method," used alone or combined with the oral method, produce smaller books than the advocates of the "natural method," who once scorned all books, but now produce long and full grammars, that serve up again the stale Ollendorffian twaddle. There is no college or university in the country in which German may not be taken up from the beginning, since none absolutely requires it for admission. Freshmen and sophomores must either begin German in Brandt or Whitney, or take for eight or ten weeks a small grammar like Sheldon's or Otis's, or the smaller Whitney. They have not the time to go over the long exercise grammars, which leave them in the lurch as reference-books at the end of a year's study. Then the students are set back by having to learn new declensions and new verb-classes. They feel at sea when they have to read the severer eighteenth and nineteenth-century classics, to say nothing of the sixteenth and seventeenth-century texts, after having gone through one of those books that promised to carry them to full mastery on "palace-cars," as the *Atlantic Monthly* expressed it. Though based on Meissner's popular work, the American form of it is so far original that Prof. Joynes, by giving credit in the preface as the custom is, might well have put his name alone in the title. Some technical faults have been found by reviewers in *Modern Language Notes*, which, however, a second edition can mend.

Grant in Peace: From Appomattox to Mt. McGregor. By Adam Badeau, Brevet Brigadier-General, etc. Hartford: S. S. Scranton & Co. 1887.

THIS book shows Gen. Badeau at his best as a writer. It is a compilation of articles (revised, no doubt) which have appeared in the daily papers, each article being complete in itself. For this sort of work the author has qualifications of a rare order. As an historian he is not so highly gifted; and, though read and approved by Grant, Badeau's military history of that great General lacks the merit and attraction of the volume entitled 'Grant in Peace.' Indeed, this volume is more than interesting, it is charming. The undertaking admitted embellishment, and although some of the events are highly colored, the work is wrought out in artistic fashion, and the scenes change so rapidly that the reader is never wearied. The main facts, with some fiction, concerning Grant's intercourse with the leading people of his time in this country and abroad, are sketched by the pen of a master in that sort of work. Grant's relations to Andrew Johnson, Stanton, Sherman, Sheridan, Hancock, Seward, Motley, Sumner, Fish, Garfield, Arthur, Blaine, Logan, and other distinguished men are portrayed with remarkable clearness and vigor.

While it is true that the book is interesting throughout, it is perhaps equally true that it contains some revelations which, if true, might well have been omitted; such, for example, as those about the behavior of President Lincoln's wife during a visit to the Army of the Potomac. The author excuses Mrs. Lincoln's erratic course by the explanation that she was demented, but he fails to observe that the reason he gives for the poor woman's strange conduct affords of itself good ground for not publishing an account of it. It may be, also, that Gen. Badeau tells things about Grant's private

affairs which a confidential friend should not disclose. He seems to have some misgivings on this point, for he says: "If I tell any of his secrets now, when he cannot be pained, his silent shade will not reproach me." Caution upon this point was necessary, because, though Gen. Grant cannot now be pained by the telling of his secrets, any disclosures that could pain him if living will certainly pain his widow and children.

In some instances the author's love of pictorial writing carries him too far, leading to the creation of mere effects and to the assignment of insufficient and incorrect causes for important results. His graphic account of the surrender at Appomattox affords an illustration. He attributes the decision that the vanquished officers should retain their side-arms to the chance that Grant looked up while writing the terms of surrender, and was dazzled by Lee's beautiful sword, presented by the ladies of Virginia. "The glitter of the rebel weapon," says the author, "suggested to Grant to spare the conquered the humiliation of surrendering it." That is very picturesque, but the plain truth is, that Grant in the matter of side-arms treated Lee at Appomattox just as he had treated Buckner at Donelson and Pemberton at Vicksburg, and the glitter of Lee's jewelled weapon had nothing to do with it.

The account of Grant's visit to England is especially pathetic. "He was my chief, my general, my friend," says the author. "He threw his arms around me—and I kissed him. I was with him incessantly during his stay in England. He wrote at once a telegram to the Government asking that I might be permitted to accompany him," etc. Grant's account of this omitted the hugging and kissing, and was to the effect that Badeau devised the scheme to have himself detailed to accompany Grant in England; and that Badeau prepared for Grant's signature the cable message asking the President to make the detail. As a joke on Badeau, Grant used to tell how the diplomatic secretary upon this occasion wheedled him out of his money as well as his name. After Grant had agreed that his name should be put to the message, Badeau said, "General, it will cost about twenty dollars to send this cable, and, to make the despatch *yours in every respect*, you had better give me the money to pay for it." Grant, unable or unwilling to resist the sharp logic of the situation, "smiled a sickly smile" and handed over the money.

Gen. Badeau's chapters on Grant and President Johnson are of surpassing interest, shedding as they do a clear light upon one of the most critical periods in the history of the country. It is almost impossible to realize that Grant possessed the personal qualities to take the part he did. Down to that time he had been a soldier and nothing else. Brought up in the school of discipline, obedience to the orders of the authority appointed over him was not only his creed, but his habit. Yet as General of the Army, standing face to face with the President of the United States, he flatly refused to obey the orders of his constitutional commander in chief. The explanation is, that Grant acted upon his own conviction that the President's course was treasonable, and that he must save the country, not only from the danger of the President's conduct, but also from the danger of charging the festering treason he felt sure he had discovered in the highest quarter. He therefore took upon himself in silence the appalling task of thwarting the Chief Magistrate without exposing him. Forced by his own sense of duty to his country to disobey the orders of the highest military authority in the Government, and deterred by his own judgment from announcing the danger that threatened, Grant's responsibility and peril are without a parallel in our history. "Stanton," said Johnson to Grant, "holding the office of Secretary of War, is not and cannot be the President's mouthpiece in military matters, and therefore," said the President in person to the General of the Army, "I order you not to obey *him*, but to come to *me* for orders." The President's assertion of Stanton's lack of authority was a stern fact, and was unanswerable. Grant's reply to the President was, "Give me that in writing"; and he left the august presence, and continued to obey the Secretary of War. What effect the President's written orders would have produced cannot be told: they never appeared in that form. There is not a more striking chapter in the history of the time than Gen. Badeau's account of all this.

If Gen. Badeau had witnessed the last scenes of Grant's life, no pen so well as his could have depicted them for history. But he was not at Mt. McGregor. The truth long kept back has recently been brought out by Gen. Badeau's own action. Nearly three months before Grant's death, the intimacy of years between them was suddenly broken, and the estrangement that followed continued without abatement to the end.

A Manual of North American Birds. By Robert Ridgway. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1887. Large 8vo, pp. xii, 632, pll. 124.

WHAT is most surprising in this case is that a publisher could be found to print a book in the form of this one, upon any pretext or for any purpose. The arrangement of the paragraphs is unfortunate in two respects. The exigencies of printing a large set of analytical tables, such as those of which the work entirely consists, require a good deal of blank space, but nothing like the amount of it we find here, where the "hanging" of successive paragraphs often reduces the text to a narrow column of type meandering down the right-hand edge. To such an extent is this carried, that what is probably only a sad lack of skill in making copy acquires the appearance of an attempt of the publishers to pad the matter of a handy little duodecimo into a bulky octavo. It is safe to say that more than one-third of the type-bed itself is left blank, to say nothing of a generous width of margin. This waste paper would have fully accommodated the whole 464 outline diagrams, which have been disadvantageously printed on 124 additional pages, still further increasing the bulk of the volume by about one-fifth of its thickness. Such disposition of text and cuts may be looked for in works *de luxe*, but is inappropriate to a technical handbook, one of whose distinctive characters is that it should be handy. Properly printed, the manual would have made a tidy small octavo of less than half its present size and price—which will together, we fear, prove an insuperable obstacle to the success of the book.

The substance of the Manual is entirely tabular, consisting of analytical tables of the technical characters of the orders, families, genera, and other groups of the birds of North America, constructed on the antithetical principles first brought into vogue by Dr. Coues in 1872. The analysis is pushed to the extreme, the ultimate subdivisions of species (inappreciable except to the trained expert) being formulated with much precision. The work will thus prove of great value to the specialist, though we fear that it presupposes in all cases an extent of information possessed by few students or amateur ornithologists, and certainly by no appreciable fraction of the public. This is unfortunate, since it restricts the use of the work to the professed ornithologist, who will chiefly use it as a means of refreshing his memory on vexed technical points. Mr. Ridgway has "the eye of a hawk" for a shade of color or a hairline of form, and is at his best in the ultimate discrimination of subspecies. In such matters we have probably no higher expert authority to fall back upon; and the wholly exceptional facilities he has enjoyed for many years in handling the greatest collection of American birds in the world—that of the National Museum, of which he is the ornithological curator—give him a right to speak as it were *ex cathedrâ*. He is, however, less happy in treating the broader aspects of the subject, either from narrowness of view or of immaturity of the critical faculty; and we are pained to see into what lapses so well trained an ornithologist has fallen in his treatment of the higher groups.

For example, in the "key" to the higher groups with which the work opens we first find the alternative: a^1, "Hind toe connected by web," etc., and a^2, "Hind toe not connected." This is well enough for all four-toed birds, but how about birds without any hind toe? A student with one of our many three-toed birds in hand, which he wishes to identify, is baulked at the start; for the "key" has no keyhole. The very next sentence reads: b^1, "Nostrils tubular"; b^2, "Nostrils not tubular." Now, the only place where a student who has in hand a bird with four toes, the "hind toe not connected," and "nostrils tubular," can fetch up is at *Tubinares*, the petrel family, where Mr. Ridgway intended to send him safely; yet the bird in hand, fulfilling these requirements, might be a caprimulgine, of an entirely different order. The very next pair of alternatives, namely, nostrils non-tubular and cutting edges of bill c^1, "serrated," and c^2, "not serrated," should bring him up at *Anseres*, the ducks and geese; yet the bird in hand, with hind toe free, nostrils non-tubular, and tomia serrate, might be the blue-headed sawbill, *Momotus cœruleiceps*, described on page 278. Mr. Ridgway knows this, of course, as well as any other ornithologist; but the persons whom the book is designed to teach do not, and are therefore left in the lurch.

Much of the analytical work of the book is open to similar exceptions, requiring from the reader almost the author's own skill in sailing safely past the snags with which the narrow channel is filled; but in general, Mr. Ridgway being best in the least details, his ultimate diagnoses of species and conspecies or subspecies leave little to be desired. Here his work is exhaustive, and will, as it should, be accepted as authoritative among the experts to whose use it is almost necessarily restricted.

The classification and nomenclature adopted are uniformly those of the "Code" recently prepared by a committee of the American Ornithologists' Union, of which Mr. Ridgway was a member. This is much the best scheme we have, and its general acceptance by ornithologists has gone far to bring about uniformity and precision in nomenclature. We could wish, however, that Dr. Coues's committee had not in their wisdom carried their thirst for "uniformity" to the extent of Canon XL, which provides that "the original orthography of a name is to be rigidly preserved, unless a typographical error is evident." That is to say, the printer must not misspell words, under pain of correction; but the author may do so, under pain (to us) of having his orthographical misdemeanors "rigidly preserved." This is little short of fetishism. So Mr. Ridgway bows to the *Cerorhinca* of Prince

Bonaparte, which by no stretch of a spelling-bee could be got beyond *Cerorhyncha*, as a possible form of what ought to be *Ceratorhynchus*. So, again, the first suborder of Mr. Ridgway's book is *Podicipedes*, which is correct, the first family of that order being *Podicipidæ*, for which read *Podicipedidæ*, if there be any virtue in a way of compounding *podex* + *pes*, and adding the family suffix = *idæ*. On a wrong theory, that the basis of this word is *Podiceps*, the derivative family name would be *Podicipitidæ*. Now Mr. Ridgway uses *podiceps*, which is unquestionably a spurious form of *podicipes*; then he incorrectly inflects his family *Podicipidæ* from the incorrect form *podiceps;* and then correctly inflects his suborder *Podicipedes* from the correct form *podicipes*, which he does not use.

The work describes 768 full species and many additional subspecies, referred to nearly (as we estimate without counting) half as many genera or subgenera. The analyses include in many cases related extralimital forms from any part of the world, though chiefly neotropical. Four new subgenera and thirty-nine new subspecies are characterized. Eight genera or subgenera and thirty-one species or subspecies are additional to those admitted by the American Ornithologists' Union 'Check-list.' The book is fully indexed, as to both technical and vernacular names, in a manner identical with that adopted in the later editions of Coues's 'Key.' The frontispiece is a portrait of the late Prof. Baird, to whom the work is appropriately dedicated.

Life of Oliver Goldsmith. By Austin Dobson. London: Walter Scott; New York: Scribner & Welford.

"THERE will come a day," wrote Goldsmith to his friend Bryanton (in a letter quoted on p. 54), "no doubt it will—I beg you may live a couple of hundred years longer only to see the day—when Scaligers and Daciers will vindicate my character, give learned editions of my labors, and bless the times with copious comments on the text." It is not yet a couple of hundred years since this letter was written, it is barely a century and a third, and yet what Goldsmith humorously predicted has actually come to pass. And, of a truth, he has been ever more fortunate than he dared to hope; his character, not needing strict vindication, has been most sympathetically portrayed by more than one master of the art of biography. Instead of Scaligers and Daciers, he has been edited by the more gentle hand of Mr. Austin Dobson. For the "Ideal Series," Mr. Dobson prepared the 'Vicar of Wakefield' with an introduction as elegant as the notes were learned and abundant; to a facsimile of the first edition of the same classic he contributed a preface full of new facts as to its original publication; Mr. Abbey's beautiful edition of 'She Stoops to Conquer' was adorned by one of Mr. Dobson's most felicitous poems; and almost the latest issue of the Clarendon Press Series is a volume of Goldsmith's 'Selected Poems,' edited with introduction and notes by Mr. Dobson. By all these preliminary labors the present biography has profited. To the writing of Goldsmith's life for the "Great Writers" series Mr. Dobson has brought a minute and exact knowledge of all the facts in the poet's career, resulting from a long and loving study of Goldsmith in particular, and of the whole eighteenth century at large. These are qualifications conspicuously lacking in Mr. William Black, who "did Goldsmith" for the "English Men of Letters" series, and who turned out a very perfunctory book, to which perhaps no volume in that generally admirable series is inferior, except Mrs. Oliphant's unspeakable "Sheridan." This is, indeed, Mr. Dobson's fifth contribution to the biography of the eighteenth century, and it seems to us to be easier in composition and richer in matter than either the Hogarth or the Bewick, the Steele or the Fielding.

In an appendix are given three hitherto unpublished letters of Goldsmith's from the collection of Mr. Frederick Locker-Sampson; and there is the usual elaborate and ample bibliography, by Mr. John P. Anderson of the British Museum, which lends a special value to all the books of the "Great Writers" series.

Essays. By the late Clement Mansfield Ingleby, M.A., LL.D., etc. Edited by his son. London: Trübner & Co. 1888.

THESE papers, upon literary or metaphysical topics, show a strong individuality in the author, and, if his mind is not to be called original, it was one which reacted with great vitality on what he read. Criticism is too often merely parasitical, but in this volume there is no room for such reproach. The most important article is one upon Bacon, in which the question is raised whether his "method" was really of such scientific value as has been ascribed to it, and the discussion favors the negative view. Other papers, upon Coleridge, Wordsworth, and De Quincey, are admirable for their temperate appeciation, and noticeable for their pervasive good sense. A metaphysical and scientific inquiry as to the perception of the rainbow is a most interesting example of such reasoning, and it is conducted through two articles, one in the form of the dialogue and one expository. But to us the most valuable paper is that entitled Law and Religion, in which there is a broad grasp of the historical evolution of man's moral consciousness, and, besides, occasion is found for many suggestions of a far-reaching and wise kind in respect to religion as primarily a regenerating power. The volume is somewhat hard reading, the fruits of a well-stored and highly trained mind, much given to difficult problems, and with an unrelaxing logical hold on the facts of the discussion. This makes it very notable among volumes of essays in which such vigor is seldom found and such attention from the reader is not usually required. The matter, however, is too various, and the lines of thought are too briefly followed, to allow one to discuss the author's work in a general way, and we must content ourselves with recommending it as a solid book for readers who do not grudge giving the assistance of their own thinking to the writer whom they read. We will not close, however, without mention of the humane plea for kindness to animals, and protest against the cruelty of English sport, with which the book ends.

Doctor and Patient. By S. Weir Mitchell. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.

To be ill is one of the ordinary experiences of life. Loved and lover are scarcely more common factors in the social problem than the sick and those who would heal them. The professional literature of medicine is vast, but in it the sick are treated impersonally, and little speech is made of or to the physicians themselves, except in the general sense of agents for the administration of remedies. Generally speaking, the materia medica has precedence over the administrator, and the disease rather than the diseased is discussed. Still, wise physicians treat patients rather than diseases, which indeed has been set down as distinctive between English and French medicine.

It has been reserved for Dr. Mitchell, in his fulness of experience and with his exquisite literary taste, to present under the title of 'Doctor and Patient' (literally teacher and sufferer, and thus wisely chosen), a group of essays for popular and profitable reading upon this general theme. As the real patient is a sufferer, always in body and generally in mind, so is the true doctor a teacher, who by application and precept lifts him upon a higher plane. Dr. Mitchell examines and reports upon the physician from a physician's point of view, drawing a philosophic but delightful sketch of the higher type; and looks upon the invalid binocularly, as a convalescent and as a doctor, and thus throws him into stereoscopic relief. Various historical notes in relation to both men and things add interest and value. But he does not say, as he might have done, that, in the progress of science, his versatile father about fifty years ago made, or tried to make, observations on temperature in disease, experiments in medical thermometry, but was foiled by the want of sufficiently delicate instruments.

Much of what the book contains relates to the weaker and dearer portion of the race. He says, "I take women as they are to my experience," and "she is physiologically other than the man"; but he does not discuss the cause thereof. The lessons that this wise doctor, this most excellent teacher, delivers from these premises, every woman, and every man interested in a woman, may read with pleasure and ponder with profit. We quote nothing, chiefly because the mosaic of ideas is so cunningly inlaid that no one fragment will give any reasonable conception of the whole. Wisdom and humor are inwrought side by side, and Dr. Mitchell nowhere purposely tells the whole story, for, as he himself says, "the best readers are in a measure coöperative authors, and may be left to interpolate the unsaid." We hope that to be such colaborers will be the pleasure of many.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alford, Rev. H. The Queen's English. 6th ed. Scribner & Welford.
Barr, Mrs. A. E. Master of His Fate: A Story. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Calogeras, N. Euthymii Zigabeni Commentarius in xiv Epistolas Sancti Pauli et vii Catholicas. 2 vols. Athens: Perri Brothers.
Clayden, P. W. Early Life of Samuel Rogers. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.75.
Crane, Rev. O. Virgil's Æneid, translated literally. Baker & Taylor Co.
Don't. Boudoir ed. D. Appleton & Co. 30 cents.
Edwards, H. S. The Prima-Donna: Her History and Surroundings, from the 17th to the 19th Century. 2 vols. Scribner & Welford.
Ernst II. Aus meinem Leben und aus meiner Zeit. Band I. Berlin: Wilhelm Hertz.
Fiske, H. G. The N. Y. *Mirror* Annual and Directory of the Theatrical Profession. N. Y. *Mirror* Office. $1.10.
Forster, J. Ellen. The Crime against Ireland. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. 60 cents.
Freeman, Prof. E. A. William the Conqueror. Macmillan & Co. 60 cents.
Ingraham, J. P. T. Why We Believe the Bible. D. Appleton & Co. 30 cents.
King, W. F. H. Classical and Foreign Quotations. Thomas Whittaker. $1.75.
Kneeland, Dr. S. Volcanoes and Earthquakes. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $2.50.
Ladd, Prof. G. T. What is the Bible? Chas. Scribner's Sons. $2.
Larisun, Dr. C. W. Solomon'z Song. Ringos, N. J.: Fonic Publishing Hous.
Leland, C. G. Practical Education. London: Whittaker & Co.
Lear, H. L. S. Henri Dominique Lacordaire. New ed. E. & J. B. Young & Co. $1.25.
Levi, Prof. L. International Law. D. Appleton & Co. $1.50.
Lintilhac, E. Beaumarchais et ses œuvres. 8vo. Paris: Hachette; Boston: Schoenhof.
Lloyd, A. P. Law of Building and Buildings. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $4.50.
Mann, Rev. C. Five Discourses on Future Punishment. T. Whittaker. 75 cents.
McNally, D. R., jr. Irish Wonders: The Ghosts, Giants, &c., of the Emerald Isle. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2
Merriman, Helen B. What Shall Make Us Whole? Boston: Cupples & Hurd. 75 cents.
Palmer, A. J. Divorce Abolished. Minneapolis.
Palmer, E. Chirography, or, the Art of Telling One's Character by Handwriting. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 50 cents.
Patterson, Capt. H. The Yachtsman's Guide. New ed. New York Navigation School. $5
People's Year-Book and Traveller's Companion. Brentano's. 25 cents
The Forum. Vol. IV. Forum Publishing Co.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 12, 1888.

The Week.

THE deadlock in the House of Representatives, caused by the filibustering on the Direct-Tax Refunding Bill, has taken the country quite as much by surprise as the sudden attack of "fits" in the Senate respecting silver. It is plain to everybody that the Direct-Tax Bill was not demanded by any considerable public sentiment in the North. The direct tax on the States was one of the costs of the war, and one of the very smallest of them. It amounted to about $17,000,000, while the income tax alone reached $61,000,000 in a single year. The attempt to return it to the rich States of the North, while defensible on strict legal and constitutional grounds, is unbecoming, to say the least, and is well calculated to excite a feeling of exasperation among the States which get no part of the money. Yet the practice of filibustering to defeat the will of the House is unmannerly, and in some sort revolutionary, and is quite as exasperating to the majority as the bill itself is to the minority. The situation is certainly one of much complexity, but we see no way out of it except by enforcing the right of the majority to govern. At the same time we think that it would have been much better if the Direct-Tax Bill had never been introduced.

The Senate on Thursday passed the Bond-Purchase Bill, having stricken out the whole of the text as it came from the House, and substituted first a clause merely interpreting the existing law authorizing the Secretary of the Treasury to purchase bonds with his surplus money—interpreting it as a continuing authority not limited to the occasion which led to its passage in 1881; and, second, a clause requiring the Secretary to purchase and coin silver bullion to the amount of national-bank notes hereafter retired—this to be in addition to the amount required to be purchased and coined under the Bland act. Senator Sherman made a very strong speech against this amendment. His most telling argument was that this was mischievous and hasty and unnecessary legislation, and calculated to alarm the business community, and therefore to depress trade and industry. Mr. Allison sought to answer this perfectly correct statement of the situation by showing that the coinage of additional silver would be very small, and that it could have no baneful effect until the foreign exchanges turned against us. In this contention Mr. Allison was right, but the force of Mr. Sherman's objection was not lessened a jot thereby. It is true that the business community are alarmed by this sudden revival of the silver madness, unheralded by any public demand or agitation. It is a most unsettling vote that the Senate has given on these questions, and although the amount of concrete mischief that can be pointed out is small, the "want of confidence" on the part of the business public that it entails is large.

We repeat that there was no public demand or agitation on the silver question in any part of the country. Of course the silver-mining companies are always agitating to have the Government buy more of their stuff. Their Senators can always be depended on to put a rider of this sort on any bill that comes along which has a remote resemblance to the money question. Then, Senators like Beck are always ready to start an agitation which would not exist without the exercise of great wind-power on their part, to fool the "poor man" with the notion that he would be better off with a depreciated currency. Absolute silence and content pervaded the country as to this question until the present inflammation broke out in the Senate. The silver coinage was going on in excess of the wants of the public for currency purposes. Nobody was short of money who had anything to sell or any security to offer for the use of it. The only danger in the financial situation is the horrid Treasury surplus, the vortex that is sucking money out of business channels at the rate of eight or ten millions per month. When this condition of affairs is represented to the Congress in a temperate way by the President, the response of the Senate is, that he had better buy some more silver, although the Treasury has an unused surplus of $54,000,000, and is calling on Congress at every session for more vault-room to hold it. The opportunity is now offered to the President to rally the common sense of the country by a veto, and we hope he will not neglect it.

The House Committee on Revision of the Laws has reported in favor of an amendment to the Constitution providing for the election of United States Senators directly by the people, as State officers are chosen. The theory is that unfit millionaires could not then so easily buy seats, and that corporations would find it harder to send their agents to the Senate. There is a certain plausibility about this view, but there is another side to the case, which, upon examination, will be found much stronger. It is complained that unfit men get elections to the Senate under the system of legislative choice, but in order to justify a change, it would be necessary to show that only fit men get elected to State offices by the system of popular choice. As a matter of fact, everybody knows that it is on the whole easier for a man to capture, by purchase or intrigue, a party nomination which means an election to a Governorship, for example, when he only has to "fix" the caucuses which choose the delegates to a large State convention, than it would be if he had to submit h claims to a comparatively small body of legislators. It is hard enough, as everybody knows, to hold the average legislator to a sense of responsibility, but it is much easier than it is in the case of the average delegate to a convention. The legislator has to stand up and vote openly for a Senator, with the knowledge that his constituents have their eyes upon him; but the delegate is subject to no such scrutiny, and can suffer no such penalty for betrayal of his trust.

The Judiciary Committee of the House has made an adverse report upon a joint resolution providing for an amendment to the Constitution extending the term of the President from four years to eight, and making the incumbent ineligible to reëlection. The policy of extending the term either to six years or eight, and forbidding re election, has been canvassed for many years, but it appears to lose rather than gain in popular favor. Aside from all other arguments against such a change, there is one which is perfectly conclusive so long as we nominate Presidential tickets in the present way. Experience has shown that a President may die within a month of his inauguration, and the duties of the office thus devolve upon the Vice-President for almost the entire term. But the Vice-President is nominated without any reference to the possibility of his exercising the executive power for nearly four years, and almost invariably a man is chosen for the second place on the ticket who would not be thought of for the first place. After spending days, perhaps, in deciding upon the candidate for President, the weary delegates put up somebody for Vice-President in a hurry, and almost without thought. Mr. Arthur served as President nearly three years and a half because he had been hit upon as a candidate for Vice-President by a majority of the New York delegation, but nobody in the Convention ever thought of Mr. Arthur as a possible President. So long as we keep on selecting possible Presidents in this haphazard way, a proposition to lengthen the term means simply to aggravate the ever-present danger of having a man in the White House for a long time whom nobody thought of putting there when he voted for President.

Most of the talk about Mr. Cleveland's inability to accept a second term, because he said in his letter of acceptance that he thought a second term a bad thing, is rather sad stuff. Mr. Cleveland is not charged with the duty either of amending the Constitution or of changing party practice in the matter of Presidential eligibility. He may, like any other citizen, hold any opinion he pleases about the existing law or usage, and he may, like any other citizen, vote for a change, or labor to bring it about; but he has no right to try to impose his opinions on the rest of the community by refusing to accept any office which the majority of the voters ask him to take. If his views about second terms made it proper for him to decline a

renomination on the ground that no one ought to serve more than one term, it would also make it proper for him, if he had the power, to prevent any one else from serving a second term, even if elected by a unanimous vote—that is, he would be justified in withdrawing from the public service, no matter how generally called for, anybody whose conduct he could control as he controls his own. But nobody has a right to express his opinions about constitutional questions in this way, any more than by resort to armed force. Mr. Cleveland's opinions about renominations are of just the same value as those of any other citizen, and no more. If he is called on to serve, he must serve, just as he would have to serve in the army in time of war, in spite of decided disapproval of the present law of compulsory retirement, or of the length of the term of enlistment.

The *Sun*, after quoting various newspapers on the question of Mr. Cleveland's accepting a nomination for a second term, in spite of the condemnation of a second term in his letter of acceptance, says:

"We have sufficiently exhibited the weakness of all these defences, volunteered in advance, of an act of self-stultification and selfish tergiversation which would be almost without a parallel in the history of our politics."

No, it would not, even taking the worst possible view of it, be without a parallel in the history of our politics. Your own history furnishes a good parallel to it, for you volunteered on the 29th of June, 1884, the following promise:

"Sooner than join in making James G. Blaine President of the United States, we would quit work, burn up our pen, and leave to other and perhaps rasher heads the noble controversies of politics and the defence of popular self-government."

In spite of this promise you did not "quit work or burn your pen, or leave to other and perhaps rasher heads the noble controversies of politics," etc., etc., but you did join in trying to make Blaine President, by running Butler as a candidate of your own. Moreover, Mr. Cleveland, in case he accepts a renomination, will yield to pressure from large bodies of his countrymen, while you failed to "burn your pen," etc., out of your own head, of your own mere motion, and without any regard to the effect of your breach of faith on anybody but yourself. You are consequently now in the position of a man who has made his escape by breaking his parole, or, in other words, of a journalistic outlaw whom a hostile contemporary like "Judas" might lawfully, in any forum, slay on sight.

The minority report of the Ways and Means Committee on the tariff made a touching appeal for more protection to lime. This article is produced by the paupers of Canada to some extent, and enters our country at a beggarly duty of 10 per cent. Our forests are not so dense as they once were, and it is well known that the burning of lime depends in some degree upon the supply of timber for fuel. What with the great supply of paupers and timber in New Brunswick and Nova Scotia, the lime-burners of Maine are represented to be in a bad way, and to need the stimulus of a higher duty on their product, so that they may speedily cut down the remaining trees at a good profit and charge the extra cost to the house-builders along the Atlantic seaboard. And now another cloud appears on the horizon no bigger than a man's hand, but likely to spread over a large part of the firmament. It is the perilous condition of curled hair, the article which enters into the composition of mattresses, and is protected by a duty of 25 per cent. ad valorem, but which the Mills bill puts in the free list. One reason for not putting curled hair in the free list, as stated in a Philadelphia paper, is, that "curled hair is used almost entirely by the wealthier classes, and the proposed abolition of the duty would not, therefore, remove any burden from the mass of the people, but would simply benefit the manufacturers of the article in Europe at the expense of those in our own country." The answer to this is, that if the mass of the people are obliged to sleep on straw beds and corn-husk mattresses, like the pauper laborers of Europe, perhaps it would be well to give them a chance to buy hair mattresses by knocking off 25 per cent. of the cost of them.

The new ballot law in Wisconsin went into effect at the recent election in Milwaukee, and worked with entire success. The law, while not so comprehensive a measure as that proposed in New York, Massachusetts, and other States, is notable as the first application of the principle of ballot distribution by the State. It contains also novel provisions for securing entire secrecy in voting. It provides for a ticket-room and a voting-room at each election precinct, with a hall or passageway between. The voter receives his ballots from the sworn State election officers in the first room, which only one voter is allowed to enter at a time, and passes alone to the voting-room, where he deposits his ballot and goes out of a door provided for that purpose. No crowd of persons is allowed to collect within 100 feet of the polling-places, and no person is allowed to offer tickets or solicit votes within the same distance. The result at the recent election, which was an unusually exciting one, is thus described by the Milwaukee *Sentinel*:

"The system of voting in Milwaukee has proved a decided advantage over that which formerly prevailed. Under the old system, with such an issue as divided parties on Tuesday, there would inevitably have been more or less trouble at the polls. Voters would have been kept from the polls by intimidation, there would have been knock-downs and broken heads. All this was avoided by the arrangement that allowed each voter to select his ballot without interference, to enter alone the room where the ballot-box was kept, and which provided for his passing out immediately by another door than that at which he entered. It broke up the business of ticket-peddling, of browbeating ignorant voters, and secured a perfectly orderly and quiet election."

The full effect of the new suffrage amendment to the Rhode Island Constitution, which was adopted at the recent election, will not be felt for three years. It abolishes the property qualification which has heretofore existed, requiring every foreign-born citizen to own $134 worth of taxed property before being permitted to vote. There are over 31,000 foreign-born citizens in the State, but as they could not vote even if they were naturalized, only a few except those having the necessary property have taken the trouble to be naturalized. There were less than 5,000 who had paid the necessary taxes and were qualified to vote at the last election. About 4,000 others had been naturalized, but were not able to vote because of the lack of property. The remaining 24,000 have never been naturalized, but must be before they can register and vote. The law requires registration in December for voting in the following year, so that only the 4,000 already naturalized will be able to get on the registry list and vote next year. It is estimated that at the election three years hence at least 20,000 new voters will take part. This will be an increase of fully one-third in the total vote of the State.

While a place on the Supreme bench of the United States remains vacant, the court renders still another in its long series of recent decisions affirming State rights, and demonstrating that this ancient issue between parties is settled. A Pennsylvania statute makes it unlawful for any person to manufacture or sell any imitation of butter or cheese, and an oleomargarine manufacturer was convicted in the State courts of violating the act. He appealed to the Federal Supreme Court, on the ground that the statute was in violation of the Fourteenth Amendment, and that the article sold was not deleterious to the public health; but the highest tribunal sustains the judgment of the State court. The court holds that it is entirely within the police powers of the State to protect the public health, and that the questions whether the manufacture of oleomargarine is or may be conducted in such a way as to involve such danger to the public health as to require the suppression of the business rather than its regulation, are questions of fact and of public policy which belong to the legislative department to determine; in short, that the Federal authority cannot interfere. "State rights with a vengeance," the *Herald* not unnaturally styles this decision, for it may be doubted whether the power of the State has been more strongly affirmed in any previous decision. All the Republican judges concurred in this latest vindication of State rights, and the circumstance lends added weight to the recent remark of the Montgomery (Ala.) *Advertiser*, a Democratic newspaper published in the city where the Confederate Government was established, that Republican papers need not be concerned as to the appointment by a Democratic President of a State-rights judge, inasmuch as "a majority of the Republican judges have recently joined in support of as thorough State-rights opinions as any Confederate will ever advance."

An interesting and valuable article upon the way in which nominations for office are made in this city, is contributed by Mr.

Abram C. Bernheim to the *Political Science Quarterly* for March. He shows from official statistics what an absurd travesty of a deliberative assembly the present primary is. Less than 8 per cent. of the Republicans who voted at the election in November last took part in the party's primaries. In some districts only 2 per cent. took part. The Democratic percentage was less than 10 per cent., so far as the figures to calculate it could be ascertained. Low as these percentages are, they do not tell the whole story. If the few men who came together had any free will of their own in making their nominations, the case would be bad enough, but, as a general thing, they have none whatever. They assemble and do the bidding of the district leader or boss in electing so-called "delegates" to the county convention. When the county convention assembles, its members simply await orders from the head boss of the city organization, and nominate the ticket which he and his assistants have agreed upon. So far as popular representation or deliberation enters into the final act of nomination, the whole proceeding might just as well have been done off-hand by the boss, without a primary or convention of any sort. It is time that the whole system were abolished. We might as well have the nominations made openly by committees of each party, without circumlocution of any sort. The only check which we have upon nominations is the power of defeating those which are unusually bad. It is useless to hope for improvement of the primaries. Respectable people have been importuned for years to go into them, but very few will do so. Mr. Bernheim shows that the new law for the regulation of the primaries is practically a dead letter on the statute-book, as it was foreordained to be.

The second stage in the Chicago, Burlington and Quincy strike has been reached by an offer of the strikers "to go back in a body." This usually comes after three or four weeks of subsistence on the funds of the union. After this comes the offer to go back individually as soon as there are vacancies, in case the strikers are not "blacklisted"; and lastly the strike is declared "off," and the strikers are left to find employment anywhere they can, and the managers return to their comfortable homes and get their bank books balanced. The latest hope was that, after the raising of the switchmen's "boycott," the C., B. and Q. would be so overwhelmed with business that the inefficiency of the new hands would be thoroughly revealed, and then something would happen. There is something pathetic about the childishness of all this.

There is nothing particularly interesting in Jacob Sharp's career as an individual. He rose into prominence and wealth through the qualities which in this country so often stand "the poor boy" in good stead. He was hardly to blame for having so little political conscience, because he had had but little teaching of any sort in his youth, and in his manhood found that most of the people with whom he had to do had their price. Politicians and office-holders were to him what the robber barons on the Rhine were to the peaceful traders passing down the river—people who had to be "squared" if any business was to be done. This view of life, if he had stuck to it boldly to the end, would probably have carried him through his Broadway railroad troubles with much less damage to health and character. Unluckily for him, he abandoned it, or tried to conceal it, before the Senate Committee of Investigation. If he had there frankly confessed that he had bribed the Aldermen as the only way to carry out an undoubted public improvement which he had long had at heart, we believe he would have won public indulgence, if not sympathy. But his cynical and plainly perjured denials, and his fierce defiance of everybody who maintained that municipal councillors ought not to sell city franchises and pocket the money, raised a storm of indignation which subjected him in his old age to the humiliation and anxiety of a protracted criminal trial and long imprisonment, and almost surrounded his deathbed with the police. The story of his life is, on the whole, a pitiful one, the moral of which every one can draw for himself.

What probably most interests those who spend any reflection on it is the question, whether this city is or is not becoming a less promising field for the activity of that curious combination of jobber and politician of which Tweed and Sharp were prominent types. We think on the whole that the opportunities of such men have greatly diminished, and are diminishing. There was steady deterioration in city politics after the adoption of universal suffrage in 1846, down to 1870, beginning with a Mayor like Fernando Wood, and ending with one like Oakey Hall. Since the downfall of the Tweed Ring the progress has been on the whole upward. The Mayors have been respectable and improving, and the list of things the Aldermen have to sell has been steadily cut down. Sharp's exploit led to their being deprived of the last valuable thing they had in stock, and undoubtedly aided in the election of the present Mayor, who, with all his faults, must be admitted to be probably the highest type of man we have had in that place for half-a-century—the most civilized and enlightened—without meaning to be in any way disrespectful to some of his immediate predecessors. The government of the city is now lodged in a body of men—the heads of departments, familiarly known as "the Mayor's Cabinet"—who are probably as competent for their work as any similar body in the world, or would be if it were not for the legislative interference at Albany.

Mr. Balfour apparently does not make much progress in Ireland, judging from the doings on Sunday. One great object of the Coercion Act is, of course, to make people either afraid to hold meetings or unwilling to hold them. There appears, however, to be no difficulty in getting up a meeting anywhere, and what the police do is simply to prevent any speaking, and after some fisticuffs and cudgel-play and bayonet-charges the crowd disperses, but it disperses in an exasperated, uncowed frame of mind. In fact, the experience of every month shows that the only true way to produce the appearance of tranquillity in Ireland at which the present Ministry aims, is the use of firearms on the crowds. Irishmen will not assemble in crowds if they are sure to be raked with musketry or artillery, but they will assemble as long as they have nothing to fear but fights with the police. But Mr. Balfour dare not use firearms, and so the silly game goes on as it has gone on for one hundred years.

The opinion of some of the best observers in England is that war in eastern Europe is among the strong probabilities of the present summer. The intrigues of Russia in Rumania indicate clearly enough that she is trying to provide a safe passage for her troops through the Principality, as in 1877, and the confusion in France seems to promise a situation from which both the friends and enemies of the Republic may be glad to seek refuge in a foreign war. Germany is but ill prepared for such a conflict, owing to the condition of the Emperor's health, the general ignorance as to the real character and capacity of his successor, the age and growing infirmity of Bismarck, and the disappearance from high places of nearly all the military strategists whose powers were tested in 1870. Another sign of the times is the increasing turbulence of the Bosnian Slavs, who have several large bands in the field holding their own against the Austrian troops, some say under Servian, but others, and probably the better informed, under Russian instigation, as part of the Panslavic movement.

The rumors of Prince Bismarck's approaching resignation of the Chancellorship apparently find some credence in Europe. It would undoubtedly be a serious matter, in the existing state of European politics and of the German Emperor's health — so serious that one can hardly believe that it will be accepted, or that he will insist on it. One of the peculiarities, and it may be added misfortunes, of his policy and position is that the public knows of nobody fit to take his place. He has suppressed ruthlessly not only all opponents, but all competent critics of himself or his work. He has, in other words, no political heirs. Consequently, search for a successor would literally have to be made. Under these circumstances it is hardly likely that as loyal a man as he is would, in spite of his seventy-three years, desert his post when the throne is occupied by an invalid, in the face of serious foreign complications. The latest despatches, in fact, announce that he will not resign, and that the proposed marriage of the Princess Victoria with Prince Alexander, formerly of Bulgaria, which is supposed to have offended him, is postponed.

THE PRESIDENT AND HIS PARTY IN NEW YORK.

After the action of the Democratic State Committee on Thursday there is likely to be little further dispute about the popularity of the President with his party in this State. His supporters controlled the Committee easily, and had this city fixed upon as the place for holding the State Convention because they regarded it as the stronghold of Cleveland sentiment. The ballots showed, what was pretty well known before, that the County Democracy and Tammany, as well as the Brooklyn Democratic organization, are unitedly and heartily in favor of the President's renomination. In fact, so prevailing was the sentiment in the Committee in regard to his candidacy, that the last shadow of the Hill boom faded away on the spot. It is generally believed now that a solid Cleveland delegation will be sent from this State to the National Democratic Convention, and that his unanimous renomination will follow as a matter of course.

All the politicians of the local Democratic organizations appear to be warmly in favor of the President. Tammany and County Democracy leaders vie with one another in their vows of allegiance to him, and in their predictions of the enormous majority which a united Democracy will roll up for him in this city in November. "Paddy" Divver goes on the record with the prediction that the majority will be a "cold one of 70,000." Others are less sanguine, but it is very evident that the party has an unshakable belief in its ability to poll a sufficiently large vote in this city and Brooklyn to overcome by many thousands any Republican majority which can be polled in the other parts of the State. There can be no question that there is a strong basis for this belief. It is many years since the local Democrats have been so thoroughly harmonious as they are at present. In 1874, when they were thoroughly united in support of Tilden for Governor, they had a plurality of nearly 43,000. When they supported him unitedly for President two years later, they increased this plurality to nearly 54,000. They split in 1879, when John Kelly ran for Governor against Robinson. Tammany then gave the former 43,000 votes, and Robinson polled 60,000, having a plurality in the city of 14,000. During Kelly's career as boss, the Tammany strength remained pretty steadily at about 40,000. Both factions united with more or less heartiness in support of Hancock, and gave him a plurality of 41,000. When Cleveland ran for Governor in 1882, they were also united, and gave him a plurality of 77,000, but their total vote was only a shade larger than it had been for Hancock. The difference in plurality was caused by the drop of the Republican vote for Folger, which was nearly 34,000 less than Garfield received.

John Kelly's quarrel with Cleveland, which began soon after the accession of the latter to the Governorship, was at white heat when the Presidential campaign of 1884 opened. No competent person can examine the district returns of votes cast in this city for Blaine and Cleveland that year, and not reach the conclusion that the larger part of Tammany's 40,000 votes went directly to Blaine. As a consequence, the Democratic plurality in the city went down to 43,000. Union upon Hill in the following year carried it only to 48,000, there being still a split on local and county nominees. In 1886 the Labor party put in its appearance, and drew from the Democrats probably 40,000 of the 68,000 votes which it polled, reducing the Democratic plurality to 22,000. Last year the Labor vote dropped to 37,000, and the Democratic plurality rose to a higher point than it had touched for several years, 52,000. That was cast for the State ticket. On the local ticket, Col. Fellows's unsavory candidacy commanded only 22,000 plurality.

That there is formidable strength in a united and harmonious Democracy in this city no one can deny. As between two such candidates as Cleveland and Blaine, without the treachery practised by Kelly in 1884, it is not at all rash to suppose that a plurality might be rolled up which would approach very nearly to Divver's sanguine figures. There is no danger whatever of such treachery apparent now, and there is another important change in the local situation, which has happened during the past year, that will also greatly help the Democrats. We refer to the disintegration which has taken place in the Republican Machine. That organization is the mere shadow of what it was four years ago, and while a large fund might restore some of its former vigor, there is little chance that it can do anything like such service in keeping down the Democratic majority as it did then.

There is ground, therefore, for the high Democratic hopes of a large majority here, but there is another side to the picture which it will be wise to consider. There can be no disguise of the fact that the warmth with which all the most objectionable elements of the Democratic party are supporting the President gives a good many of his non-partisan friends unpleasant emotions. Especially is this the case when the facts about the civil-service-reform work of the Administration are considered. Strong as the united Democratic organizations in New York are, they are not invincible. They have failed more than once to carry the State without the aid of independent voters, and they may fail again. It would be a grave mistake for the President or any other candidate to base his hopes entirely upon their support. With an objectionable Republican candidate like Blaine in the field, there might be little risk, but with a candidate on that side in whom the independent voters had confidence, Divver's 70,000 plurality would suffer a dangerous shrinkage.

HEWING TO THE CENTRE.

Nothing that the Republican majority in the Senate has recently done deserves so much praise as the appointment of a committee to investigate the condition of the civil service. There have been inquiries in this field before now, notably in Indiana and Maryland, but they have been conducted by volunteers, like the civil-service-reform associations, which had no power to compel the attendance of witnesses or the production of papers and documents, and whose reports, therefore, might be safely disregarded, or even pooh-poohed. This time we have a tribunal before which witnesses must appear, and by which the facts can be brought out; and no matter how much bias it may put into its report, the public will form its judgment on the testimony. The inquiry, too, has been very properly begun in the Philadelphia Post-office, where, unless rumor has been more than usually untrustworthy, the disregard of the President's promises and professions with regard to the tenure of office has been, ever since the present Postmaster came into office, flagrant, persistent, and audacious. The testimony already produced there is very damaging, but we will not comment on it, because it is thus far *ex parte*. It is the testimony for the most part of employees dismissed without notice or cause assigned, and, as we all know, there is generally another side to the stories which such witnesses tell.

But we are not inclined to incredulity in this case, because it is not a solitary case. We know as well as we can know anything which has not been proved to demonstration, that the abuses which exist in the Philadelphia Post-office also flourish in many other places, and that all attempts to get them checked or even investigated by the Administration have failed; and not only this, but that the spoilsmen have in every direction become increasingly bold and reckless as the time draws near when President Cleveland is likely to ask the American people to pass a judgment on the manner in which he has fulfilled the solemn pledges of his party platform, of his letter of acceptance, and of his inaugural address. All the efforts of those who supported him simply as a reformer in 1884 to procure inquiry or redress either as regards the Post-office, or Land Office, or Indian Bureau, have thus far been unsuccessful, and yet in all these spheres the scandals have been numerous, have increased as time has gone on, are, to the best of our knowledge and belief, worse now than they have been at any time since 1884, and have become so in the face of this most solemn declaration made by the President in front of the Capitol on the 4th of March, 1885:

> "The people demand reform in the administration of the Government and the application of business principles to public affairs. As a means to this end, civil-service reform should be in good faith enforced. Our citizens have the right to protection from the incompetency of public employees, who hold their places solely as the reward of partisan service, and from the corrupting influence of those who promise, and the vicious methods of those who expect, such rewards. And those who worthily seek public employment have the right to insist that merit and competency shall be recognized instead of party subserviency or the surrender of honest political belief."

At this moment pressure of the most extraordinary kind is being brought to bear on the Custom-house in this city, by Assistant-Secretary Maynard, to compel the offi-

cers to do things which he well knows would violate the President's pledges, degrade the public service, and debauch the party in power. Remonstrance and entreaty have done all they can do, which is simply nothing, to arrest this downward progress.

We are therefore glad we are now going to have official investigation, and that the conduct of it is in hostile hands. The evil is too deep-seated to be fully laid bare by a friendly knife. We trust the Committee will take the New York Custom-house on their way, and hew to the centre here also, no matter where the chips fly. That the Republicans should think they can damage their opponents by inquiring how far the service of the Government has been used for partisan purposes, is surely a most encouraging sign of the times. Five years ago Senator Hale himself would have considered the appointment of a committee for any such purpose a most ridiculous thing, and would probably have asked with amusement why the civil service should not be used for partisan purposes. We have made wonderful advances since then, and we shall see now whether we cannot make Democratic politicians of their very vices "frame a ladder," as the poet said, by treading

"Beneath their feet each deed of shame."

THE SUPPRESSED VOTE IN MASSACHUSETTS.

Republican organs at the North for a long time past have been saying a great deal about "the suppressed vote" at the South. Their custom is to take certain Congressional districts or States at the North in which both parties are thoroughly organized and bring out their full strength at every election, and contrast their large votes with the small totals in certain Congressional districts or States at the South, where the Republican organization has gone to pieces since it lost the Federal offices, and where consequently not even the Democrats need to turn out in large numbers in order to carry the day. The difference between these totals is treated as "the suppressed vote," and it is held that the representation in Congress and in the Electoral College of such Southern States ought to be cut down, in order to establish an equality in suffrage between the North and the South.

Turn about is fair play, and it is time to point out that if a small vote means a suppressed vote, and ought to be punished by a reduction of representation, the North also must suffer. Every candid person will of course admit that if there is a Northern State with a small negro population in which men do not vote so generally as they do in a Southern State having a large negro population, "something ought to be done about it," to use the common expression of the Republican organs regarding the South. There is such a State, and circumstances render its case conspicuous.

The last census gave Massachusetts 1,783,085 people, of whom all but 19,303 were white. At the same time Florida had 269,493 people, of whom 126,888, or nearly one-half, were colored. The Congressional apportionment gives Florida two Congressmen, and Massachusetts twelve. At the last election for Congressmen in Florida there were cast 21,882 votes in the First District and 34,895 in the Second—a total of 56,777, or an average of 28,388 for each district. At the same election in Massachusetts the total vote cast in the First District was only 16,071, and in all twelve districts 245,304, or an average of but 20,442 for each district. In other words, while it took 34,895 votes to elect a Congressman in one district of Florida, 16,071, or less than one-half as many, sufficed to elect a Congressman in one district of Massachusetts; and while in the whole State of Florida it took an average of 28,388 to elect a Congressman, it required an average of only 20,442 votes to elect a Congressman in Massachusetts.

The injustice of the matter appears more clearly the further the examination is carried. Take, for instance, Duval County in Florida, which has a decided preponderance of negroes in its total population of 19,430. At the election of 1886 Duval County cast 4,910 votes. Take, now, Barnstable County in Massachusetts, which has only 420 negroes among its 31,797 people. It is obvious that the total vote of Barnstable County ought to bear the same proportion to the total vote of Duval County that their respective populations bear to each other; or, stated according to the rule of three, 19,430 : 31,797 :: 4,910 : 8,035. But in point of fact only 2,713 votes were cast in Barnstable County, or but a trifle more than one-third of the number which ought to have been cast. It is clear that nearly two-thirds of the vote of Barnstable County was suppressed, but the full enormity of the offence does not appear until one reflects that by this suppression every man who does vote in the Massachusetts county really exercises three times as much power at the polls as every man who votes in the Florida county. The disparity is not so great, taking the whole of each State, but still it is serious enough to demand remedy. It has been shown that it takes on the average 28,388 votes to elect a Congressman in Florida, and of course it ought to take at least as many on the average to elect a Congressman in Massachusetts. But in point of fact the suppressed vote in Massachusetts was so large that an average of only 20,442 votes elected a Congressman. The result is that a total vote in Massachusetts of only 245,304 elected twelve Congressmen, whereas the Florida ratio entitles the State to only nine. In other words, through the suppression of votes Massachusetts gets three Congressmen to whom she has no right if held to the standard of Florida.

Nor is the question one which concerns Florida and Massachusetts alone. The whole country is interested. The representation of a State in the Electoral College equals the number of its Senators and Representatives combined; that is, Florida has four electoral votes and Massachusetts fourteen. But if the suppressed vote in Massachusetts is so large that she is entitled to only nine representatives in Congress, she ought to have only eleven votes in the Electoral College. This is a matter that concerns not merely the negroes of Florida, who are defrauded of their just rights by the white men of Massachusetts, but the whole nation as well. It is a gross outrage that Massachusetts should have fourteen votes in the election of a President when she is really entitled to only eleven. "Something ought to be done about it," and we feel sure that it is only necessary to bring the subject to the attention of Mr. George F. Hoar to secure an immediate cutting down to its just limits of the unfair power which Massachusetts now wields in Congress and in the Electoral College.

BUSINESS SUCCESS AND FAILURE.

Mr. Joseph H. Walker of Worcester, Mass., recently delivered a "practical talk" before the Young Men's Christian Association of that city, which, although entirely local in its subject, contained a great deal of matter that is of general interest. Mr. Walker is an old resident of Worcester, and he gave a condensed narrative of his observations among the business men of the place, the special value of which consisted in the statistics that he had compiled, covering a period of nearly half a century. As Worcester is an old city in a long-settled State, the fluctuations of business are naturally less than in the new cities of the younger States at the West, and a study of the fortunes of business men in such a place therefore shows the normal tendency of things in a conservative and prosperous community.

Mr. Walker began by citing facts which show how brief is the average duration of business enterprises. He picked out 56 of the more prominent men of 1845, and found that one-fifth of them were out of business within five years, two-fifths in ten years, and three-fifths in fifteen years. These, however, were a selected set, who undoubtedly make a more favorable showing than would the whole class, and Mr. Walker thinks that of every hundred men in business in 1845, 25 were out in five years, 50 in ten years, and 67 in fifteen years.

Most of these disappearances mean simply failures. Mr. Walker has traced the history of individuals engaged in the leading manufacturing industries of Worcester since 1840. Of those so engaged in that year he finds that 14 failed, and 14 died or retired with property. Of the same class in 1850, 41 failed, and 30 died or retired with property. Of the 1860 class, 43 failed, and 60 died or retired with property. These were, as before, the picked men among the manufacturers—those who conducted their business under exceptionally favorable circumstances—and the showing is undoubtedly far more favorable than it would be for business men of all sorts, doing business on a scale large or small. Accurate statistics for the whole class are nowhere accessible, but there has long been an agreement among competent judges in all parts of the country that 90 per cent. of all men who try to do business on their own account fail of success, while some put the proportion as high as 95 per cent. Mr. Walker's discovery that this

is true of half or more of the favored number whose careers he has traced, sustains the theory that fully nine-tenths of all fail.

That wealth does not, as a rule, long remain in the families of those who acquire it, is clearly shown by Mr. Walker's investigations. There were 30 prominent manufacturers in 1840—the "capitalists" of that day—of whom 14 either died or retired with property, but only 3 of the sons of the 30 now have any property or died leaving any. There were 75 manufacturers in 1850, of whom 30 either died or retired with property, but only 6 of the sons of the 75 now have any property or died leaving any. There were 107 manufacturers in 1860, of whom 60 died or retired with property, but only 8 of the sons of the 107 now have any property or died leaving any.

It naturally follows that the business men of the present generation in Worcester include but a very small number of men who are sons of the business men of a generation ago. In 1878 there were 176 individuals engaged in 10 of the leading manufacturing industries, and only 15 of these 176 were themselves sons of manufacturers. The proportion proved to be almost the same during the early portion of the period, but the fact was not so striking or significant when so many branches of manufacturing industry were new as it is now.

It is a corollary of this that the business men of to-day are the poor workingmen of a few years ago, who have pushed themselves to the front by their energy and industry. It will surprise nobody to learn that, of the 30 manufacturers of 1840, 28 began as journeymen. But it will surprise many people, who have been told that the poor man no longer has a chance, to find that the proportion was quite as great a generation later, no less than 161 of the 176 manufacturers of 1878 having begun as journeymen. Nearly half of them went into Worcester from farms, and most of the rest were the sons of machinists, carpenters, blacksmiths, etc.

It is much to be wished that the labor agitators, from Henry George down, would study and digest such figures as these, and then tell the workingmen what they signify. The labor agitator is constantly talking about the "bloated capitalists," and cultivating the idea among workingmen that employers constitute a caste of wealth. The truth is, that 90 or 95 per cent. of all capitalists—that is, men who carry on business upon their own account—fail; a large proportion of them after a long and melancholy struggle to keep their heads above water and pay the wages of the men whom they employ, and who never suffer one-tenth the frequent anxiety of the employer, wondering all the week where he is going to get the money to pay them Saturday night. The labor agitator—even so intelligent a man as Henry George—is constantly talking about the impossibility of the workingman's forcing his way among the capitalists. The truth is, that the capitalists of to-day are themselves the workingmen of twenty-five years ago, as the workingmen of to-day will be the capitalists of twenty-five years hence.

MR. ARNOLD'S DISCOMFORT.

Mr. Matthew Arnold's article on "Civilization in the United States," as it appeared in the last number of the *Nineteenth Century*, Mr. Smalley, the London correspondent of the *Tribune*, introduced to the American public on Sunday week with a somewhat amusing wail of mingled sorrow and indignation. The subject as Mr. Arnold gives it out, "Civilization in the United States," or, as he explains it, "the success of the Americans in solving the human problem," is really a tremendous one, which one would hardly expect a man of Mr. Arnold's intellectual experience to attack in sixteen pages of a monthly review. If we might be allowed to amend the title, we should call the article, "Why I Was Uncomfortable in the United States." We are all the better pleased with this suggestion because he gives as his reason for writing, or rather as an incentive to writing, the article, the fact that Sir Lepel Griffin, "a very acute and distinguished Indian official," had also published the opinion "that there is no country calling itself civilized where one would not rather live than in America, except Russia," meaning by "one," of course, Sir Lepel himself.

This deliverance seems to have made such an impression on Mr. Arnold that he resolved to do now what he had thought of postponing—make an inquiry into the nature and defects of American civilization. And yet, a little further on, he reveals the fact that he saw very clearly what the cause of Sir Lepel's dissatisfaction with the civilization of the United States was. It was neither more nor less than the absence of those "comforts and conveniences of life" which "men of the professional and official class in England, who do the most part of her literature and journalism," have provided for them in England at very small expense, or, in other words, at prices suited to incomes of "from four to fifteen hundred [pounds] a year," and which in America can only be had by the very rich—such as clubs, hansom cabs, porters at railway stations, tailors, and mercers. When a man of Sir Lepel Griffin's class, Mr. Arnold naïvely adds, "is passing judgment on a country's civilization, points of this kind crowd to his memory and determine his sentence." So that really what Sir Lepel ought to have called his book was also, "Why I was Uncomfortable in America."

Nothing, however, but a lack of humor ever allows a man to present his own discomforts as a traveller to the world as his "judgment on a country's civilization." The judgment of a man who takes himself so seriously as this is, in fact, of little or no value on any subject but his special work. No one with a real capacity for generalization or a real sense of proportion would have ventured to lay Sir Lepel's book before the world as a contribution to political or social philosophy. That Mr. Arnold should have taken it as such, and charged himself with the duty of prosecuting the inquiry on which Sir Lepel entered, shows, we fear, that same deficiency of the humorous faculty which led "the acute and distinguished Indian official" to print with much solemnity conclusions about American civilization drawn from the expensiveness of its clothes, clubs, and cabs.

We are far from denying, however, that such books as Sir Lepel Griffin's and such articles as Mr. Arnold's are interesting and instructive. Every sensible man likes to hear how a distinguished Indian official, or an Englishman of the professional class and official class, who "has been at the public schools and universities," if he writes or talks reasonably well, finds life and manners in this or any other country, and to hear him tell what he enjoyed or admired, what offended his taste or excited his reprobation; but he must do it without solemnity. He must not sell figs in the name of the Prophet. That Sir Lepel Griffin would not like to live in the United States is a fact; but it is not a great or pregnant fact. To get any sociological nutriment whatever out of it, one has to know Sir Lepel Griffin, for he may be a man who not only would be uncomfortable in the United States or in Russia, but is uncomfortable wherever he goes. We have known Anglo-Indian officials who never could be happy even in England.

Everybody who is in the habit of looking at Mr. Arnold as a social and political philosopher, as well as a brilliant literary critic, will regret that he should have attempted an examination of American civilization in a short article on the Griffin plan. He was, like Griffin, uncomfortable in the United States. The sources of his discomfort, it is true, were different from Griffin's, and for the most part more serious; but we really must not be asked in this brief and peremptory way to pronounce American civilization a failure because Mr. Arnold did not like the American landscape, or the climate, or the restlessness of the farmers, or the plainness of the cities, or the absence of "cathedrals, parish churches, and castles of the Catholic or feudal age," or the odious names of the new Western towns, or the absence of "distinction" among the men. It is, perhaps, unfortunate that such things should be, but a real philosopher does not make too much of them, or produce them with too much preface. Mr. Arnold's well-known picture of English society—"an upper class materialized, a middle class vulgarized, and a lower class brutalized"—shows under what extremely unfavorable social conditions a country may be great and happy and highly civilized. A foreign philosopher visiting England and witnessing the condition of these classes of the population as described by Mr. Arnold, might well feel justified in taking an extremely gloomy view of England as a place of residence for men of intellectual tastes, and yet we know that tens of thousands of them find great comfort in that island, and would not quit it though the cab fares and the tailors' bills went up 100 per cent.

Mr. Arnold, too, is very much troubled by the want of native criticism of American defects. He says there are "plenty of cultivated, judicious, and delightful individuals" here,

but they all keep silent about the national faults. Supposing this to be true, in the broad way in which Mr. Arnold states it, is this not also a defect to which a foreigner, and especially an Englishman, should be very indulgent? We do not think it is true as Mr. Arnold states it. There is a great deal of criticism by Americans of American morals and manners, but no native criticism ever satisfies a foreigner. He always wants it laid on stronger, and is displeased if it is tempered by any perception of countervailing virtues. The way the English press treats the conduct of Englishmen in dealing with other and especially weaker communities, for instance, is never what foreign critics think it ought to be. There are reserves and omissions and qualifications in it which make Americans and Frenchmen and Germans swear with indignation, and yet, in spite of it all, it is the general belief that English civilization improves. It is not every one, as human nature goes, who enjoys, as Mr. Arnold and Mr. Ruskin do, speaking their mind freely and incessantly to the people among whom they live about their faults and follies. Such men are doubtless a precious possession to any community, but they will always be scarce, and have to be amazingly clever not to become insufferable bores. There is probably not one of the thousand agencies of human culture which accomplishes so little as lectures from censorious sages.

Mr. Arnold's attack on the American press touches on what all foreigners of distinction find the greatest mystery and nuisance of American life. For the last fifty years the newspapers have been the first thing which attracts their attention when they land, and which during their stay here most distinctly represents to them the national taste and manners. "The absence of truth and soberness in them, the poverty in serious interest, the personality and sensation-mongering, are," he says, "beyond belief." This is undoubtedly what a very large body of the most intelligent and cultivated Americans say of the newspapers, and it is no wonder that a foreign critic, who suffered severely from their brutality when he was here, should say it also. But here again it does not do to generalize too sweepingly. It is not true of the American press as a whole, and when true of particular newspapers is almost always the result of the personal peculiarities of the editor. For reasons which we have not space to discuss here, journalism in the United States has until recently been one of the neglected callings, which made no serious drafts on the talents and cultivation of the country, and of which the pecuniary possibilities were first made plain by a man of very low character. He may be said to have created "the American newspaper" as the world knows it, and to have given it a stamp and tone from which it has not yet worked free; but to conclude that it will never become more sober-minded, more serious in its interests, and more careful about accuracy, and more closely allied to the intellectual life of the country, is to deny one of the plainest facts of American history, and that is, that there is no department of human activity in which progress in the United States is not constant and steady, though at particular points not always very perceptible.

> "For while the tired waves, vainly breaking,
> Seem here no painful inch to gain,
> Far back, through creeks and inlets making,
> Comes silent, flooding in, the main."

PARLIAMENT TILL EASTER.

LONDON, March 29, 1888.

THE Easter holidays have come, and the Government may look with complacency on the record of the last six weeks. The Conversion Bill has already been passed into an act, with an assured prospect of success for the great financial operation which is its object. The Local Government Bill, a measure of the first magnitude and importance, has made an unusually fair start, and, though the signs of reviving trade are still faint and uncertain, the Government have been able to come to Parliament with a budget showing a larger surplus than the Chancellor of the Exchequer has had at his disposal for a good many years. The position of all these measures is favorable, after making every allowance for the defects they contain and the dangers they may run.

The credit of the financial proposals, so far as they are ultimately successful, will belong, of course, to Mr. Goschen. Those who doubt the correctness of his published opinions as to the effect of the appreciation of gold upon trade and prices, may not regard him as a trustworthy guide in the more difficult problems of political economy; but all the world was prepared to find in him a capable Chancellor of the Exchequer. His name, moreover, may be justly associated with the reform of local government also, because, when he was the first President of the Local Government Board, created in 1871, he did much to elucidate the principles on which reform should proceed, and reform in this direction has ever since been a definite aim of the party to which he then belonged. I believe the Liberals as a body recognize with pleasure that the finances are in the hands of an able man who knows his business, and whose administrative powers were too long lost to the country, even though on most political questions they find in him, to say the least, a very determined opponent.

Whatever interest may attach to the measures I have mentioned, they have not, in the eyes of many critics, redeemed the session up to the present time from the imputation of dulness. To this charge I cannot subscribe. It is true that, with the exception of one or two nights during the debate on the address, there have been no heated and angry discussions. But this very change in the temper of the House is a matter of great importance and of good augury—I wish one could dare to assume that it will be permanent; and there are certain other aspects in which the proceedings of Parliament have been specially significant and interesting. The new Procedure Rules have hitherto been a great success. The two important rules are the Closure Rule which was passed last year, and the suspension of business at midnight. It is by the combination of these two rules that the improvement has been effected. The midnight rule presses somewhat hardly on private members' bills, which often found their only chance in the small hours of the morning. But if the difficult problem could be solved of making some selection among these bills, which are now left to a most unsatisfactory system of ballot, more would be gained than has been lost by the new rule. The prudence of making the discussion of the new rules the first business of the session was questioned by the Opposition leaders, though they undertook that, so far as their authority extended, no factious opposition should be offered; but the event has justified the Government. The House was more generally eager than was counted upon to adopt reasonable hours. The rules now furnish very formidable and effective weapons against obstruction, but hitherto there is ground for the better hope that all sections of the House will concur in turning over a new leaf.

One test of the complete success of the rules will be when the closure is not regarded as penal, but an ordinary incident of procedure; and though an amendment to make it automatic met with little support, there is certainly an approach to this change of view on the subject. Another incidental improvement which must follow, if the rules are to work well, is a curtailment of the length of speeches. On this subject there was some plain speaking. A few speakers on the front bench and elsewhere have had too great a monopoly of the time of the House, and have not made a moderate use of it. The House is very patient of a speaker who by any means has once got its ear, and speakers have not realized how inexpressibly tedious their long and ill-digested harangues had become. In this respect there is a beginning of improvement. A very high authority is said to have been struck by the greater condensation of speeches in some recent debates. Then the withdrawal of the hours after midnight has improved the temper of the House, because it was generally after midnight that it lost its temper.

But the most remarkable feature of the proceedings of the present session is the advance which they disclose in the growth of liberal opinions. At the opening of the session, in 1880, Mr. Gladstone's Government, in the flush of victory, was embarrassed for weeks by the opposition offered to Mr. Bradlaugh's taking his seat. The other day, with a Tory Government in office, Mr. Bradlaugh carried the second reading of his Oaths Bill by a majority of 100. The question of the reform of the House of Lords has entered into a new phase. For the first time the regular Opposition in the House of Commons has declared it is now ripe for consideration, and the debate and division on Lord Rosebery's motion show how seriously the matter is now taken up by the House of Lords itself. Lord Salisbury, echoed by the Unionist organs in the press, says that the House of Commons will not tolerate any reform of the House of Lords which will make it a stronger power in the country—which is tantamount to saying that it will not tolerate any reform at all. These critics profess to know the mind of the House of Commons better than its own members. The majority of the present House, by their recent vote, declared their opposition to reform of the House of Lords. But the number who objected to reform on Lord Salisbury's ground is infinitesimally small. Any one who supposes that such a consideration is sufficient to secure acquiescence in the present constitution of the House of Lords, is blind to the signs of the times, the signs of the present session. The argument, if good for anything, is an argument for a single chamber. But to such a change, without discussing its merits, the public mind would, at least for the present, be averse. If any change is made within a reasonable time, and that is probable,

it will be a reform of the present second chamber, and one question will be how far the hereditary element is to be retained. Some very moderate Liberals think it would be illogical to leave any vestige of a principle which is so indefensible in theory and so incongruous with present democratic institutions. I am inclined to think it more probable (always assuming that reform comes in time) that the hereditary principle will be practically retained in defiance of logic, and that it may lie embalmed in the swept and garnished House for many a long year. If I am not mistaken, Mr. Gladstone pleaded for the hereditary principle in his address to the electors of Midlothian in 1885, as a more respectable kind of privilege, and to a certain extent a counterpoise to the ascendency of mere wealth. The sentiment of the people has still some favor for an hereditary aristocracy, and I doubt whether the democracy are bent upon extinguishing it entirely in the Legislature.

But the great landmark of Liberal progress is the Local Government Bill. The reform of municipal government and the establishment of the representative principle in towns was one of the great Liberal achievements which were made possible by the Reform Act of 1832. The Liberal party has long contended for the application of the same principle to counties, to local government outside of towns, and now it is adopted without reserve by a Conservative Government, and even extended to the government of London, the reform of which has long been the dream of Liberal reformers. Some of the important practical results which may be expected from the acceptance of the principle, such as the reform of poor-law, school, and liquor-licensing administration, are not carried out or are imperfectly carried out in the bill. But the principle is there, and even the means of extending its application are provided. It is described on both sides of the House as a thoroughly radical bill. It is incontestable—I do not think that any one would deny it—that the same bill, if proposed by a Liberal Government, would have met with the most strenuous opposition from the united Conservative party. Now, only a few faint murmurs are heard in the clubs and in the press. The Government has made resistance more difficult by handing over several millions to the local authorities from the imperial taxes, and by mixing up the budget with the bill, so that they must stand or fall together. But such precautions were, perhaps, not essential. They counted with justice on the docility of the party when a choice was to be made between power and principle. The tone of remonstrance rises no higher than an article in an evening paper which condemns the bill as thoroughly radical and thoroughly bad: strong measures are necessary in the crisis; Conservative principles are at stake. But the remedy suggested is not to vote against the bill, but to walk out.

The reflection occurs that, if the Tories pass radical measures, it may indefinitely retard the return of the Liberals to power. It may—the Liberals are well aware of it; but they will help forward the bill by every means in their power. They are accustomed to the situation. They know that most of the great reforms of the century have been carried under similar conditions. They make a virtue of necessity. The virtue is learned from necessity, but it is virtue after all, and contrasts favorably with the pliancy of opponents, the bulk of whom do not pretend that their convictions have changed.

Meanwhile, the Ministry say to themselves, Ireland will be forgotten. The Liberals say, No; real reform in England will make the misgovernment of Ireland more palpable and more intolerable to the conscience of Englishmen.

C. D.

THE POPE AND HOME RULE.

ROME, March 20.

THE relations of the Pope to the home-rule movement have been the object of so much report, in such variation of color, that I am tempted to give you an account of what is known to have been done and said, and what is the most authoritative opinion in Rome about it. In the first place, the general, and apparently almost ineradicable, belief that the Duke of Norfolk had a mission to induce the Pope to exercise some influence on the clergy of Ireland against home rule, has no foundation whatever. The Duke came here as the head of the special mission to thank the Pope for his mission of felicitation on the occasion of the Queen's jubilee, and to deliver the presents which were the reciprocation of those sent to the Queen; and when he had finished the ceremonial involved in these two acts, he returned with his staff to England. In the performance of this duty, not one word was said of a diplomatic or political nature indirectly or directly relating to the Irish question. This I am able to say on authority which cannot be contested, that of the Duke himself, and that of every member of his mission, all of whom I saw during the stay of the special mission continually, confirmed by the testimony of Catholics who were in a position to know what had passed.

When the Duke had returned to England and rendered account of his official relations, he went back to Rome at the head of the English Catholic pilgrimage, he being the chief of the Catholic nobility and gentry of the kingdom, but with no mission, secret or otherwise, from, or relation with, the English Government; nor did he ever enter into any negotiations on the subject of the Irish question with the officials of the Vatican. All reports and rumors to the contrary are without any foundation in fact. To any one who knows the Duke it is only necessary to know that this is his statement, and as he has in various forms and on different occasions distinctly declared to me that he not only had no mission of any character beyond that of the jubilee ceremonial, but had no knowledge of any mission of a political character, there is no justification for the persistence in maintaining that the Duke has either failed in his mission, or is about to return to England to report on the results of it; or in attaching to his stay or departure any political importance. The Duke is not by nature a politician or a diplomat, but a shrewd, common-sense English gentleman, a devoted Catholic, and a most loyal supporter of the Crown and the present Government. To these qualifications and that of being the hereditary representative of English Catholicism, he owes his being appointed as the head of the special embassy for the jubilee; and beyond this there is nothing.

But there is more than this to be said. The English Government is not in a position to enter into negotiation with the Pope on the question of Ireland, or to ask for any assistance from the Vatican in the arrangement of the Irish complication, for the simple reason that if concessions are asked others must be made, and there is nothing that the Government could concede in return. The Catholics are, after a period of bigotry and intolerance on the part of English public opinion quite as bad as that complained of now in Spain, placed on a footing of absolute equality, as far as depends on the law, with Protestants; and beyond this no government can go; and that this is realized by the Pope is shown by his reply to the address of the English deputation, in which he referred with special unction to the complete liberty which the Church enjoyed in England.

To obtain for Ireland privileges for the Church which it has not in England, would be too evidently chimerical for the shrewd Vatican negotiators to put such a proposition forward, as they can see (with no exceptional knowledge of English affairs) that such a concession would be disastrous to any government making it, and would be untenable; and the Church never commits the folly of making idle demands. In a Protestant country, all that the Church can hope for is perfect equality, and nobody knows this better than the Pope's advisers. The only thing that the English Government could do to gratify the Pope would be the establishment of diplomatic intercourse with the Vatican, and this is clearly seen by the Church authorities here to be impossible at present, not on account of the indisposition of the Government itself, but from the popular superstition that the Church is still intent on the overthrow of the present dynasty and the restoration of—what, it is difficult to conjecture; and the popular belief that the entire body of English Catholics are in a conspiracy to change the Government, or, as it is expressed, "They are Catholics first and Englishmen afterwards." The English Catholics are so well aware of this that they would unanimously warn the Pope against making such a demand as useless, though they know that the attainment of it would be the highest gratification to him.

Moreover, the confession of weakness on the part of the English Government in asking for outside assistance to regulate its internal difficulties would be as disastrous as the breaking down of the present policy, because it would make a foreign potentate the master of the position. Then, although the Government of Mr. Gladstone made an attempt to arrange a *quasi*-diplomatic relation with the Vatican, it is certain that a similar attempt now would be used against the present Government by the Liberals, and might lead to the overthrow of the Ministry. These are the intrinsic difficulties in negotiation with the Vatican on the Irish question. The English Government has neither entered into nor attempted to establish negotiations with the Pope on the basis of "Do ut des" with regard to the submission of Ireland, nor, so far as can be known, or is known by the supposed negotiators, *on any other political matter* since the regulation of the Goa question more than a year ago. It has (and in my opinion most wisely) left the entire problem to the deliberations of the Pope and his advisers, and with results which are entirely satisfactory, if I am accurately informed, and which, if not everything that the English Government could desire, are all that it could hope for.

The declarations, made in the most impressive and pointed manner by the Pope on occasion of the reception of the Irish delegation, are unequivocal in their condemnation of the manner in which the agitation in Ireland has been conducted; and when we confront them with the usual reticence of Papal declarations under similar circumstances, they will be seen to be very significant. The Pope said, after expressing his affection for Ireland:

"To this feeling of affection we have recently given abundant expression in sending our venerable brother the Archbishop of Damietta, with certain instructions bearing upon the present state of affairs; that we may be aided

by his report in ascertaining the actual condition of things and the steps which, in your interest, it may be desirable to take. But in the difficulties that beset you, let what is contained in the letters addressed by us some years ago to the Archbishop of Dublin be taken as a safe and sure rule of action. This is demanded of you not only by religion, which has been the chief glory of the Irish race, but also by the public good, inasmuch as in no circumstances could the interest of the commonwealth be promoted if justice, which is the foundation of order and of all good things, were transgressed."

The reference to the letters to the former Archbishop of Dublin is conclusive. The letter of January 3, 1881, says:

"At the same time we unhesitatingly declare that it is their duty to be carefully on their guard not to allow the fame of their sterling and hereditary probity to be lessened, and not to commit any rash act whereby they may seem to have cast aside the obedience due to their lawful rulers; and for this reason, whenever Ireland was greatly excited in guarding and defending her own interests, the Roman Pontiffs constantly endeavored by admonition and exhortation to allay the excited feelings, lest by a disregard of moderation justice might be violated, or the cause, however right in itself, might be forced by the influence of passions into the flame of sedition. . . . And a little later, in the month of November, we testified to some Irish Bishops who had come to visit the tombs of the Apostles, that we ardently desired every good gift for the people of Ireland; but we added that order should not be disturbed. This manner of thinking and acting is entirely conformable to the ordinances and laws of the Catholic Church, and we have no doubt that it will conduce to the interests of Ireland. For we have confidence in the justice of the men who are placed at the head of the State, and who certainly for the most part have great practical experience, combined with prudence in civil affairs. Ireland may obtain what she wants much more safely and readily if only she adopts a course which the laws allow, and avoids giving cause of offence."

The scarcely veiled desire of the Pope in this matter is to be seen in his reference to the German difficulty. "Recently," he said to the Irish deputation, "as is known to you, the Catholics of Germany, acting with moderation and with regard for law, have, under our guidance, come safely out of a trying position. Why may not a like result through God's mercy be obtained in Ireland in a similar way?" Here the harmless ambition of the Pope appears in the desire to be invited to act as mediator between the English Crown and the Irish subjects as he had mediated in Germany—to be recognized as a prince of peace, and so finally to attain for the Papacy an authority in the political world as the great arbitrator between the nations, and a court of refuge from the quarrels which breed wars, and in this way to regain for the Pontificate a measure at least of the moral elevation which it enjoyed in the earlier ages of the Church.

W. J. Stillman.

Correspondence.

A REVIEWER'S ERRORS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: There are several errors in the unfriendly review of my book on the 'National Bank Act' which I desire to correct. The reviewer says: "A most important omission . . . is that of section 5242 of the United States Statutes," etc. The reviewer was very hasty in examining the book, for the section is given on page 191, followed by a review of all the cases and subsequent legislation relating to its construction.

Again, the reviewer says: "Much of the material has been derived from sources to which no credit is given." I have given credit for every statement which is not my own contained in the book.

The reviewer also says: "The impression apparently sought to be produced is, that the book is the result of a laborious exploration of an unknown field; that the cases and opinions cited have for the first time been gathered from the State and Federal reports, and from other original documents. . . . The ground he has covered, far from being an unknown field, had previously been investigated by many explorers." It is true that the reports of the Comptroller of the Currency and several other publications contain a digest of a considerable number of cases in which the National Bank Act has been construed. The last report of the Comptroller contains a digest of twenty-one pages, a fragment compared with my book. In preparing the book, the cases were collected from the national and United States digests, which contain all the cases, under conveniently arranged heads, reported from the beginning, in the State and Federal courts. To collect these required time, but was not difficult. The labor of collecting them from the digests was as easy as it would have been to collect them from the Comptrollers' reports or other sources, even had these been complete. Every case was then examined in the book containing the original report. The indisputable proof of this is, that the numerous quotations from the cases, and references to the exact places from which they are taken in the original reports, are not in any of the publications mentioned by the reviewer. Without disparaging the usefulness of the digests made by the Comptrollers (for they serve well enough the purposes for which they are especially made), or Mr. Ball's digest, these, for the most part, are simply the reporters' head-notes of cases either in their original or in an abridged form.

If the reviewer had been a practising lawyer and familiar with cases, he would have easily perceived from my treatment of them, and the giving of a much larger number relating to the construction of the act than can be found in any other publication on the subject, that I am not in the least indebted to the labors of other "explorers." Albert S. Bolles.

New York, April 9.

MR. FOULKE AND THE HALE SENATE COMMITTEE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your editorial of March 31 you refer to my testimony before the Hale Senate Committee as to the investigation made by me regarding the removals of postmasters upon secret charges, the results of which investigation were communicated to the President, and the system ascertained to have his approval.

You speak of my referring to the *Nation* in my testimony as follows: "That distinguished organ of Mugwumpery, for reasons unknown, had never published the facts." Such language from a witness, as you know, would be unbecoming and improper, and the quotation seems to be made with the object of attributing these words to me for that reason. I used no such language, and you have no right to put into my mouth, for the purpose of imputing any prejudice or unseemly conduct, the phraseology of a subsequent article in the New York *Tribune*, however proper that might be in the place in which it appeared. As you have misquoted me in your editorial, might I venture to hope that you will make the correction in a manner which will insure equal publicity?

You further say that the reason you did not publish the facts ascertained in the investigation was that you "had not complete confidence in the collector."

The original correspondence remained in my possession, and would have been at your service at any time, if you had desired me to send it, but no such request was made, nor did I hear from you in any form. If you doubted the accuracy of my report as to the statement made by President Cleveland, there could be but little difficulty in determining whether or not he approved of the system by his conduct after knowledge of these facts had been communicated to him.

As the results of these inquiries have not yet been laid before the readers of the *Nation*, may I hope that you will be willing to do so now if I send you the report, which you are at liberty to verify from the original correspondence, now in the hands of the Hale Senate Committee?

An early reply will greatly oblige,

Yours faithfully, Wm. D. Foulke.

April 7.

[We shall be glad to see the report and deal with it as may seem proper.—Ed. Nation.]

PENNSYLVANIA TAX LAW.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Will you allow me to correct a slight error in the article on "Recent American Legislation" in your issue of this date? You say (p. 276): "In Pennsylvania the mortgagee is *forbidden* to contract for the payment of taxes besides interest." The act of June 1, 1887 (Pamph. Laws, 292), to which you obviously refer, simply repeals the act of March 27, 1865 (Pamph. Laws, 57; 1 Purd. Dig., 928, pl. 8), which legalized the contract of *any borrower*, by mortgage or otherwise, to pay, in addition to the interest, the taxes assessed on the loan or its interest, so that the contract should not become usurious by the addition of the taxes. As the law now stands, a borrower can certainly contract to pay both interest and taxes, provided the two together do not amount to more than 6 per cent. per annum on the principal. Whether he can contract to pay the tax if the interest and tax together amount to more than 6 per cent., has never been decided, and it is fairly arguable that the tax, being in the end paid to the State by the lender, against whom it is assessed, is not such a payment to the lender as to be of the nature of interest at all, and that, therefore, such a contract would not be usurious.

Both laws, that of 1865 and that of 1887, the one seeking to favor the lender, the other the borrower, are, if they have any effect at all, nothing more than bungling attempts to adjust equitably that essentially inequitable thing, the taxation of personal property. C. C. B.

Philadelphia, April 5, 1888.

THE DENTAL TRUST.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The communication in the *Nation* of March 22, headed "A Dental Trust," is so full of misstatements as to call for correction.

Several years ago most of the manufacturers and dealers in dental supplies formed a trade association. This was long before the formation of modern "Sugar" and other trusts, and the association has nothing whatever in common with them. There has never been any

pooling of interests, nor any attempt to regulate the output of goods. Every manufacturer in it regulates his own prices, and manufactures as many goods as he can find a market for, without any reference whatever to the others.

The association has not "virtually succeeded" in crushing "every manufacturer that would not join them," and has not tried to do so. It has never bought and has never had any interest, direct or indirect, in any patent whatever. The individual members buy and use patents, if it suits them, without any reference to the association or to any of the other members of it. The association is simply a board of trade, holding a meeting once a year, and having a few common-sense business rules and regulations. The members are competitors in every sense of the word, as much as though no association existed. Such trade associations are common in other branches of business, and are considered beneficial rather than hurtful to the general interests of the community.

The principal dental journal of the world *is* owned by one of the members of this association. It is, however, absolutely untrue that it is conducted in the interest of any association. But even if this were true, there are besides it twenty dental periodicals published in this country, many of them not controlled by any manufacturer or dealer, so that it is an easy matter for a dentist to obtain a hearing, even if it were denied him by the "principal dental journal." If this matter is not of direct public interest, it is at least important that any statement published with regard to it should be correct. A MEMBER OF THE ASSOCIATION.

PHILADELPHIA, April 3, 1888.

ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS IN WOMEN'S COLLEGES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The writer who treats of the subject of entrance examinations in women's colleges in the *Nation* of March 29, draws a most alarming conclusion from premises which, as he states them, seem hardly adequate. In order to justify the plea with which the article closes, there should be at least a certified statement from the Presidents of Vassar, Smith, and Wellesley Colleges, to the effect that they had found the system of admission by certificate unsatisfactory in its results. We fancy some difficulty would have been experienced in obtaining these certificates. If the writer had taken the trouble to ascertain the views of the heads of these respective institutions on this subject, it might have appeared that the general experience was that students admitted by certificate sustained themselves as well as any other class.

There are many statements in the article that challenge criticism. It is assumed, for example, that principals of preparatory schools will be anxious to send their pupils to college before they are thoroughly prepared, and that colleges will be anxious to take them as soon as they can get them. Precisely the reverse of this is the case among both colleges and preparatory schools of a high order, with which class alone this discussion deals. The reputation of the preparatory school is at stake in the case of every student admitted on the principal's recommendation, and under such circumstances poorly prepared pupils are not likely to be recommended. Colleges are not anxious to increase the number of poorly prepared students. The certificate system does not increase the number of students in this way. When a student is ready to leave the seminary or high school, it is often a matter of very considerable uncertainty what is to be done next. Entrance examinations undoubtedly are a terror to very many even of those best prepared. When a student is thus halting between two opinions, the opportunity to enter college on certificate will in many cases turn the scale in favor of a college course, whereas otherwise the student would have decided to stop where he was. In this way the system of admission by certificate may operate to induce students to take a collegiate course who otherwise would be satisfied with the preliminary training.

Nor is it made clearly apparent why a system which is acknowledged to work well in connection with the State universities where both men and women are received, should work badly in colleges for women only. If such is the case, there should be some reason much deeper than any that are suggested. Michigan University counts its system of admission by certificate one of the most successful features of its administration. Recently Cornell has adopted the same system, with the following result: While 25 per cent. of the present Freshman Class were admitted by certificate, or nearly one hundred in all, only one student out of this number was dropped from the class at the end of the first term on account of inability to keep up with the class. This is the first year in which the system has been in full operation at Cornell, and the results have been far more satisfactory than was anticipated.

In reply to the statement that the weight of authority is against the system, Harvard, Yale, Princeton, Cornell, and Johns Hopkins being cited as proof, it may be admitted that the weight of tradition is against it, but we are growing unfamiliar with appeals to authority in such matters. Of the authorities cited, the only one that admits women, Cornell, has, as just stated, within the past year adopted the pernicious system; Johns Hopkins University is an institution which does not direct a very large part of its energies to its collegiate department, while Harvard, Yale, and Princeton are hardly the institutions to be referred to in discussing the higher education of women.

"Surely, it is not the function of college officers to travel about the country passing judgment upon preparatory schools." Nor is this necessary. Every student admitted to college from a given school gives the best sort of testimony as to the character of the work done in that school, and if students come uniformly well prepared, few mistakes are made in supposing that they come from good schools. As a matter of fact, if preparatory schools are not to be judged by college officers, who is to judge them? The argument from authority seems, with the above annotations, to stand as follows: The subject under discussion is the admission of students to women's colleges on certificates from approved high schools, academies, and private schools. All of the prominent women's colleges have adopted this system, and by continuing it have endorsed it. The leading coeducational State universities have adopted this system, and express their approval in no uncertain terms. The leading older colleges for men only have not adopted the system. Therefore, "It is time that those who have the true interests of the higher education of women at heart should utter a protest against this baneful system of admission by certificates, and ask that public opinion should demand a return to the honorable position held by Vassar ten years ago."

It may be on account of excessive mental obtuseness, but we really don't see the point.

C. H. T.

ITHACA, April 2, 1888.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your issue of March 29 contains an article on the entrance requirements in women's colleges, in which are various statements and implications concerning the certificate system of Wellesley College. The author has apprehended the system somewhat less clearly than he would have done had he been able to travel the fifteen miles which lie between Wellesley and Boston, and obtain information from the proper source, instead of relying upon current report. No number of corrections can ever right the wrong done by careless or prejudiced statements. At the same time, it seems desirable that, in a matter so directly affecting the credit of the College, the truth should be made known.

A student who proposes to take a B.A. degree at Wellesley College, if she enters upon certificate, must present a formal statement that she has *within twelve months* (or, in the case of certain subjects, within fifteen months) passed satisfactory examinations in English, classics, mathematics, and a certain amount of history, geography, and physical geography. If she is to take a B.S., the requirements are the same, save that modern language is substituted for Greek. The examinations may, as your correspondent states, be based upon reviews. If the student has the knowledge which is to serve as the basis for her college work, we are not unwilling that it should have been in her possession for a considerable time.

The certificates are submitted to a board of examiners consisting of five professors, each of whom has special oversight over the subjects with which she is especially familiar. The paper having been approved, its owner is admitted with the distinct, printed statement that she is on probation, and will be allowed to remain only if her work during the fall term is satisfactory. During this term her classics, mathematics, English, ancient history, and ancient geography are tested, and as a result of such tests a small percentage of the class are advised not to return after the vacation. It is, no doubt, a delicate matter to send them away. But they are conscious that they have had a fair trial; they know that the work is beyond their present powers, and they realize the strain and the unhappiness of such a position. They rarely fail to admit both the justice and the wisdom of the decision.

Now as to the weight to be attached to certificates. The permission to offer them has been accorded in all cases only after most careful investigation. It is not, as your correspondent seems to believe, a matter of chance or favoritism. Since hundreds of students are turned away every year for want of room, it is no less our interest than our duty to scrutinize most keenly the proffered credentials, and to drop from our list relentlessly any teacher who shows either carelessness or incapacity in judging his pupils.

Finally, as to the advantages and disadvantages of the system. The original reasons for its adoption were two:

(1.) To draw together for mutual attrition women from the widest possible variety of surroundings, by relieving students from the expense and inconvenience of a long journey whose result was uncertain. In other words, it was intended as a substitute for a system of local examinations, which seemed undesirable. That it has been successful in this respect is shown by the fact that during the year 1886-87 the College contained representatives from thirty-one States and Territories, as well as from eight foreign countries.

(2.) To raise the standard of scholarship in

secondary schools, confessedly the weakest point in our entire educational system. So far as I know, statistics bearing on this matter have never been collected, but I am informed on excellent authority that the schools have responded to the stimulus by a steady improvement in the character of their work. Certain it is that the Freshmen admitted to Wellesley are better prepared each year than ever before.

Furthermore, experience has taught us that a girl who enters an examination room after a journey of considerable length (more than half our students come from beyond New England), oppressed by strange surroundings, the first onset of a homesickness that makes her almost wish to fail, and that mysterious awe of everything pertaining to a college which to many of us was once not altogether unfamiliar—that a girl who takes her examinations under such circumstances is far less likely to give a true expression of her attainments and mental calibre than if she took the same examinations at home in accustomed surroundings and free from distractions. Whether this is as true of boys as of girls, whether we should let it influence us or endeavor to control and overcome it, are not now the questions. In the existing state of things, "an examination at the college by the faculty" is not the justest way of testing a student's ability.

It is, perhaps, needless to add any distinct denial of the charge that we are influenced in the adoption of the system by pecuniary considerations. The amount of room at our command is so limited that nearly three-fourths of our applicants must be refused. Under these circumstances, to multiply applications is to multiply labor to no purpose, since an increase of receipts is impossible.

We claim, then, for our certificate system:

(1.) That it enables us to draw students from all parts of the country.

(2.) That it enables us to compare their abilities justly and with a minimum of friction.

(3.) That the standard of scholarship improves under it.

These claims we make not *a priori*, but as the result of eight years of experience with classes varying from 100 to 200, but never falling below the first number. M. A. W.

Wellesley College, April 5, 1888.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The matter of the admission of students to college on certificate invites a few remarks from the standpoint of the preparatory teacher. I believe that there are many teachers of preparatory schools, especially of high schools, who would be glad to see the whole system abolished. And they would have this feeling, not merely because of the annoyance to which they are now subjected, but because they find it very difficult, along with their other duties, to decide intelligently whether their students have satisfied the requirements, in all respects, of those colleges with whose conditions of admission they are not always familiar. The conditions prescribed at different colleges are in some respects so indefinite, and enforced with such varying degrees of strictness, that the conscientious teacher may well feel some hesitation in signing a certificate assuming *full* responsibility for his student's preparation in *all* respects. But the college-entrance examination is something of a bugbear to the high-school scholar, and when one school "enjoys" the "privilege" of sending its graduates without it, the teachers of other schools in the same section are in a certain sense compelled to secure for their graduates the same boon.

The high schools in Massachusetts are probably as well prepared to incur this responsibility as any in the country, but my own experience and observation convince me that the difficulties I have suggested above do not exaggerate the embarrassments which they often encounter.

Why should not the expedient of local examinations be extended, by the union of the collegiate institutions of New England and New York, which maintain substantially the same standard, in examinations of candidates for the Freshman classes, at central points, by committees representing all the institutions? Let separate certificates be issued for each department to those candidates who are successful, which shall be current, so to say, at all college-entrance examinations, and operate to excuse their holder at any time within one or two years from so much of the prescribed test as they represent, at whatever institution they are presented. If Harvard or any other college requires more in any department than the candidate holds certificates for, a suitable additional examination could be imposed.

In New England the public high schools have no organic connection with the colleges; the graduates of any given high school scatter among various colleges, and the present differing requirements for admission are, in a general way, a serious embarrassment in the preparation of scholars for college, and, in a special sense, a still more serious objection to the admission of scholars by certificate.

W. P. Beckwith, Supt. of Schools.

Adams, Mass., April 9, 1888.

Notes.

An American English version of the series "Les Grands Écrivains Français" has been undertaken, by international arrangement, by A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago. The task of translating has been committed to Prof. Melville B. Anderson, for the initial volumes.

"The Great Cities of the Republic" series, begun by the Messrs. Putnam with 'The Story of New York,' by Mr. Chas. B. Todd, is to be continued with 'The Story of Washington,' by the same author, and 'The Story of Boston,' by Mr. Arthur Gilman.

'John Ward, Preacher,' is the title of a novel by Mrs. Deland (author of 'The Old Garden') announced by Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

'Life,' by Count Tolstoi, suppressed by the Russian censorship, will appear in an authorized translation from the press of T. Y. Crowell & Co.

Thomas Whittaker publishes directly the second part of Jennings's 'Manual of Church History,' and the fourth and concluding series of 'Expositions,' by Samuel Cox, D.D.

Cupples & Hurd, Boston, announce 'Stray Leaves from Newport,' by Mrs. Wm. Lamont Wheeler; and 'Social Life and Literature Fifty Years Ago.'

'Practical Statistics: the Statistician at Work,' by Chas. F. Pidgin, Chief Clerk of the Massachusetts Bureau of Statistics, is announced by the William E. Smythe Co., Boston.

The Filson Club of Louisville, Ky., have undertaken a series of biographies of leading pioneers in the settlement of that State. The first achieved is the 'Life and Times of Hon. Caleb Wallace, a Justice of the Kentucky Court of Appeals,' of which the author is Prof. Wm. H. Whitsitt of the Southern Baptist Theological Seminary. A limited edition will be printed, but will not be confined to members of the Club.

The American Copyright League will issue immediately for gratuitous distribution a pamphlet on 'Cheap Books and Good Books,' by Mr. Brander Matthews. It can be obtained in single numbers or in quantities on application to the Treasurer of the League, Mr. R. U. Johnson, 33 East Seventeenth Street, or to the Secretary, Mr. George Walton Green, 11 Pine Street.

Mr. William Archer's 'Anatomy of Acting,' concluded in the March number of *Longman's Magazine*, will be issued shortly as a book, thoroughly revised and greatly enlarged, in London and New York, by Longmans, Green & Co.

Macmillan & Co. announce a volume of poems by the Rev. Stopford A. Brooke.

Chapman & Hall are now publishing in London a popular edition of the complete works of Thomas Carlyle at a shilling a volume. The books of this collection are not mere stitched pamphlets, but are cloth-bound, seemly and shapely.

A work which promises to be of interest to American historical students is one on Peter Martyr, entitled, 'Un lettré italien à la cour d'Espagne: Pierre Martyr d'Anghiera, sa vie et ses œuvres. Par J. H. Mariejol' (Paris: Hachette).

The initial number of the *Journal of the United States Cavalry Association*, for March, has come to hand (New York: Brentanos). It is well printed at Leavenworth, Kansas, and is good reading.

New, too, is the *Rivista delle Biblioteche*, edited at Florence by Dr. Guido Biagi, librarian of the Marucelliana (Nos. 1–2, January-February, 1888). It may be compared, in its general aim to treat of library economy and bibliography, with our pioneer *Library Journal*. Both these periodicals appeal to the generality of cultivated and studious persons as well as to librarians. The first article in the *Rivista* is one on the loan of codices. Dr. Biagi follows with some remarks on examinations for librarians. The third paper relates to the law requiring deposits of copyrighted books in the designated national libraries. "German Libraries Judged by a German" is an abstract of Prof. Dziatzko's paper on "The Present State of Libraries and Librarianship in Germany," read before the British Library Association. Notable is Prof. Luigi Gentile's (unfinished) discourse on the much discussed age of the oldest MS. of the 'Divina Commedia,' the so-called Poggiali; and so is G. Fumagalli's account of rare editions of the Index Expurgatorius. Reviews of technical and scholarly works, and of periodicals, with news items, fill out this entertaining first issue.

A few more subscriptions will, we understand, warrant the revival of the *Rhode Island Historical Magazine*. They may be sent to Mr. R. H. Tilley, Newport.

The April number of the *New England Historic-Genealogical Register* will contain at the head of Mr. Henry F. Waters's "Gleanings in England" documentary evidence furnished him by Mr. E. H. W. Dunkin of the exact date and place of marriage of John Harvard to Anne Sadler, daughter of John Sadler, Vicar of Ringmer. This event took place on April 19, 1636, at South Malling, near Lewes, a parish adjacent to Ringmer. Facsimiles of the binding of John Harvard's brother Thomas to William Coxe, clothworker, and of his admission to the Clothworkers' Company of London, are annexed. The "Gleanings" proper throw much light on the relationships of colonial worthies—Wilsons, Taylors, and Ludlows.

The *Auk* for July opens with a brief but interesting account, by Frederick A. Lucas, of "The Bird Rocks of the Gulf of St. Law-

rence," in which the curious matter is the evidence of great changes in the forms and sizes of these islands since they were first described by Jacques Cartier.

The *Magazin für die Litteratur des In- und Auslandes*, having changed hands, beginning with April 1, will henceforth be published at Dresden instead of Leipzig.

Félix Buhot is the subject of the leading paper, by the editor, in *Le Livre* for March. M. Uzanne incorporates with his own appreciation of this "Illustrateur Aquafortiste" M. Philippe Burty's article in *Harper's Magazine* —of course in the original French. Numerous examples are given of Buhot's work, but the vignettes best show the strength and limitations of his powers. This number is rather rich in inedited letters of great men, derived from recent sales. One of Voltaire's, written at Cirey, October 9 [1778 ?], begins complacently: "Si Rousseau est mort, c'est un méchant homme de moins, et ses derniers ouvrages ne font pas plus regretter l'homme."

Petermann's Mitteilungen for March contains an account, by H. Rink, of Danish explorations in Greenland during 1887, and a review by the editor, Dr. A. Supan, of the recent report of H. Wild, Director of the Observatory at St. Petersburg, on the rainfall of the Russian Empire. Numerous tables are given, showing the results of observations at 445 stations, and six maps colored so as to designate the rainfall during the four seasons, as well as the total for the whole year and the number of days on which rain fell. The largest amount reported was at Sotche on the Black Sea, Poti being second. R. V. Eckert gives an entertaining sketch of the origin and wanderings of the Circassians.

Darwin's theory of subsidence as affecting coral reefs is criticised by H. B. Guppy in the March *Scottish Geographical Magazine*, from data obtained from observations in the Solomon Islands. The paper is illustrated by two maps, one being Mr. Darwin's original map showing the distribution of coral reefs, published in 1842, the other a map showing their distribution in 1888. This number also contains an account of Mr. H. O. Forbes's unsuccessful attempt to ascend Mt. Owen Stanley in New Guinea, and a paper by M. G. Mulhall on recent explorations in South America. He gives a list of railways in the Argentine Republic, in process of construction, or for which concessions have been granted, 7,455 miles in length, and to cost £57,580,000. Referring to the colonization of the country, he calls attention to the Chubut colony founded in 1863, which "now numbers 1,200 Welsh colonists, so orderly and industrious that the only crime committed there in twenty-four years was the murder of the Deputy Governor; he was killed by his own assistant, both being Argentines." Dr. Schweinfurth discusses the Welle problem, and Mr. A. S. White describes the partition of Central Africa among the European nations. Two maps, one showing the partition according to agreement, the other according to claims, accompany the article.

'The *New York Mirror* Annual and Directory of the Theatrical Profession for 1888,' edited by Harrison Grey Fiske, is welcome as an honest and elaborate attempt to give the American stage a year-book as substantial as those which are frequent in France and Germany. It is but little to say that the '*Mirror* Annual' is broader in scope and better made than the British '*Era* Almanack'; it is even worthy to rank with the solid French 'Annales du Théâtre et de la Musique.' It is not perfect, of course—we have noted not a few minor blunders, and the misprints are more abundant than of necessity; but only those who do not know how difficult it is not to blunder in a work of this kind, will be inclined to be hypercritical. The Annual opens with a Chronological Dramatic [and Operatic] Record for 1887, covering not only the United States and Canada, but also England, France, and Germany. Then follow a necrology and a dramatic bibliography for 1887, the latter somewhat inadequate, but to be praised for containing the titles of articles published in periodicals. The full text of the Inter-State Commerce Law is then given, as that act had a deterrent effect, probably quite unintentional on the part of its authors, on travelling companies. Last of all is a classified directory of all the actors, managers, scene-painters, and other inhabitants of the playhouses of this country. There is also an index; and there are half-a-dozen portraits—that of the late John T. Raymond being excellent.

"Utriusque Fortunæ Exemplar" was the inscription placed under a statue of Charles II. erected in the London College of Physicians in 1682. It was not improbably borrowed from Petrarch's Latin prose work, 'De Remediis Utriusque Fortunæ,' which had an extraordinary vogue all over Europe, in more or less complete translations as well as in the original. The bibliography of the 'De Remediis' had never been attempted when Prof. Willard Fiske began the task which now lies completed before us in No. 3 of his "Bibliographical Notices." We need hardly say that it is executed with Prof. Fiske's thoroughness, with the aid chiefly of his own unrivalled collection, of which this brochure of forty-eight pages forms part of the catalogue.

The German Government, having made the collection of works of Greek art in the Berlin Museum one of the richest and most important in the world, by the excavations at Pergamon and a generous outlay every year for the acquisition of original monuments in Greece, Italy, and Asia Minor, is now giving attention to the development of the Assyrian department of the same museum. A committee has been appointed for the purpose of investigating the respective merits of various Oriental sites, and it is believed that excavations will soon be begun on an extensive scale in Persia, which the recent investigations of M. Dieulafoy show to be a most promising country.

We hear that a portion of the old road leading from Athens to the Academy has been discovered, near the graves the discovery of which we noted some weeks since (No. 1181). It is said that this road is not paved, but is distinguishable from the soil about it by its hardness. More graves have been found in the same locality, containing vases and other objects in terracotta, glass, and bronze.

The Linnæan Society of New York make an appeal for funds for the proposed monument over the grave of Audubon in Trinity Cemetery. Contributions may be sent to Mr. L. S. Foster, in care of the Society, No. 11 West Twenty-ninth Street, New York.

A correspondent writes us: "There is nothing new under the sun—not even 'Oil Trusts.' Witness this line, Plautus's Captivi, 489:

"'Omnes *de conpecto* rem agunt, quasi in Velabro *olearii*.'"

—The April *Century* has a noteworthy article upon the part of Alfred Vail in the invention of the Morse telegraph, with a facsimile of the memorandum in which he claims exclusive originality for certain important details of the mechanism. The Vail family were very useful, and, in fact, invaluable, to Morse in the development of his invention, and Alfred was a part owner in the patents. The early history of the practical working out of the idea of telegraphy and of the first experiment by the Government is as interesting as such matter is always sure to be, however many times repeated; and the present account of it is well done. A second article is a critique upon Stevenson from the friendly pen of Henry James. It is preceded by a wonderful portrait which looks more like an Easter egg than anything else. It is amazing that any one should consent to the publication of such a "got-up," cadaverous grotesque as the head of a sane human being, and the memory of it pretty nearly erases Mr. James's pleasant writing, of which, judged as criticism, one recollects little more than that it is compliment rather too long drawn out. The remainder of the number only "marks time," the serials going on with no special distinction, and there being no incidental article of note. The "departments" are well filled, and in the War Papers we observe an anecdote of Gen. Hooker's execution of a poor boy after the war was over, told by Judge Dickson, which on the facts stated was military murder. It is a shocking story, but it is useful as an illustration of the processes of war, and it throws a light on the sort of cruelty that must occur unnoticed in the confusion of martial "justice." Gen. Hooker appears to have acted in this case in a spirit of revenge, but whether for Lincoln's assassination, or out of irritation at the recollection of how Lincoln refused to have men shot, is not very clear. It is bad enough either way.

—It produces a curious *ante-bellum* effect when we find a great popular organization, like the Chautauqua Reading Circle, requiring the compilers of its historical text-books to stop short as far back as the war of 1812, for fear of offending the sensibilities of Southern readers. Yet this is avowedly the case with its authorized manual of American history, as prepared by the Rev. E. E. Hale, D.D. Some inquiries on this subject having been addressed to the Principal of the Reading Circle, Rev. J. L. Hurlbut, D.D., he has the frankness to state the matter in this unequivocal way (italics ours) in the *Chautauquan* ("Notes on Required Reading for November, 1887"):

"Several letters have been received, making inquiry why Dr. Hale's American History closes with the War of 1812, and contains no account of events in recent times, such as the Mexican War, the Civil War, and the reconstruction since 1865. Many reasons could be named why in a circle such as ours these subjects should have no place as a part of the regular course of study, though there is nothing to forbid local circles taking them up. *We have thousands of readers on both sides of the line, and it would be impossible to satisfy one class without grievously offending another, in whatever way the history should be written.*"

When we consider that all the popular school histories bring down the history of the country to a period within twenty years, and that each of these circulates largely "on both sides of the line," so that in fact "the line" may be said to be practically forgotten in the book trade, it is certainly a little amusing that it should still be a reality so formidable among the doctors of divinity who conduct the Chautauqua Reading Circle and write its text-books. Have they really chanced to hear of the surrender at Appomattox and of the Emancipation Proclamation? Again, do they not run an injudicious risk in allowing their pupils to follow American history down so late as the war of 1812? There were very dangerous discussions on slavery in the very convention which framed the United States Constitution; and any narrative of the American Revolution must risk "grievously offending" their Canadian members. Perhaps it would have been better to close their American his-

tory with the year 1492, though even then there would have remained Miss Marie A. Brown to be dissatisfied, as she seriously disapproves of Columbus, and feels no hesitation in speaking her mind.

—From J. B. Lippincott Co. we have the first volume of the new edition of 'Chambers's Encyclopædia' (A to Beaufort). The mechanical part of the work has been improved in respect to the cuts and the maps, but the typography has a too solid appearance, and does not tempt the reader or favor defective eyesight. The staff of writers, so far as revealed, is not comparable to that of the 'Britannica,' with which, however, Chambers's does not strictly come in competition. Several American scholars are on the list, and furnish copyrighted articles, but the want of editing is shown in just this collaboration. The minor American articles have not been submitted for revision to an American authority. One can confidently assert this of the brief article on the Abolitionists; and what American writer would have omitted the *date* of the battle of Antietam? Mr. S. Austin Allibone is erroneously spoken of as the *head* of the Lenox Library in this city. Our Bayard family is ignored. Delia Bacon is admitted, but not Leonard Bacon; Mary Anderson, too, but not Gen. Robert Anderson. The middle name of Hubert Howe Bancroft is not mentioned. Mr. Grant Allen's article on Americanisms is far from profound, and he is wide of the mark in pronouncing Prof. Schele de Vere's 'English of the New World' the best on the subject. "Candy," he recklessly declares, "for every kind of sweetmeat, is common to the entire Union." Under Alaska (a copyright article, but none the less needing editorial oversight) no mention is made of Mr. Dall's leading work on that Territory. But generally, the references to authorities are uneven and inadequate in this cyclopædia.

—Two excellent indexes have recently appeared, to call attention to which affords us pleasure, both because of the rarity of good work of this kind, and also on account of the importance of the matter thus made accessible. The first of these is the 'Deuxième Table Générale de la *Revue Historique* (1881 à 1885 inclusivement) rédigée par Camille Couderc, 1887.' This index, which sells for three francs, is wellnigh perfect as far as it goes, and of course much superior to that example for youth and for age to avoid, the 'Table de la *Revue des Deux Mondes*'; but we are sorry that M. Couderc was unable to free himself entirely from the vicious practice of almost all Continental indexers, of relying solely on a *table raisonnée* instead of a minute subject-index. Thus the *Table* in question gives, as is essential to a good index, an alphabetical list of authors covering five pages, then a list of articles (occupying only two pages), arranged not alphabetically, but chronologically. Following this is the "bibliographie," 98 pages long, prepared on the numerical cross-reference system. This is a list, alphabetical by authors, of all works reviewed, each entry being prefixed by a number. This is succeeded by a "Répertoire méthodique," under the classified headings of which the preceding titles are referred to. Thus, No. 4810 of the "bibliographie" is "Zwiedineck, H. von, Die Politik der Republik Venedig während des 30-jährigen Krieges, XXIII, 398," which is indexed (not under "Venise" or "Guerre de Trente ans," but) as "Italie, § Venise, Vicence, Padoue, Udine, etc., 4810." In the same way, there is no alphabetical entry of Sweden or Norway, they being entered only as divisions of the title "Pays Scandinaves." Per contra, Alsace is to be found not under Allemagne, but in its alphabetical order, as if it were an independent State. Biographies are not indexed, except in the general way of chronological entry under each country. We have noticed but few errors. Mr. Francis Parkman is not, that we know, of German origin, and does not his spell his name with a double *n*, and Mr. Henry Adams, not Mr. Herbert B. Adams, is the author of the life of John Randolph, for which, as well as for his own works, the Baltimore professor gets the credit. Prof. W. F. Allen, again, is unlawfully deprived of his first initial, and putting the French name Des Cars under C is contrary to the accepted rule.

—Another good piece of work, though not to be compared with the 'Table' in regard to minuteness, is the 'Index to the Consular Reports, No. 1 to No. 59 (1880-1885),' lately published by the State Department. Owing to the constantly increasing demand for these Reports—a demand which has induced the British Foreign Office to start a similar series—this index is likely to be widely useful. It is printed in large type, in one alphabet, and occupies 212 pages. Under the name of each consul, printed in small capitals, is a list of the subjects on which he has reported, and the subjects are entered twice, once in the alphabetical place of each, and once under its generic head; *e. g.*, "Arlberg Tunnel" is entered under Arlberg and under Tunnels. Errors are very rare. "Würtemberg" we find spelled both "Wurtemburg" and "Wurtemberg," and the name of the late Wm. Wirt Sikes, sometime Consul at Cardiff, is tortured into "Sykes, Wm. Writ."

—M. Guy de Maupassant gives the readers of *Les Lettres et les Arts* for March (Charles Scribner's Sons) three days more of the Journal of his Mediterranean cruise. This portion of "Sur l'eau" is very far from the lively and amusing cynicism of what preceded it; indeed, it is not easy to imagine anything more painfully depressing than some of these pages, of which the least harrowing present the writer under the gradually approaching and disappearing effects of ether, taken during a violent headache. For those who cherish a personal animosity towards the present realistic school, a certain amount of satisfaction may be derived from the perusal of "Sur l'eau." If M. de Maupassant's report of the effects produced upon the mental and sympathetic faculties of its disciples by the practice of their art may be trusted, existence is a torture to them. The reader may be pardoned for finding the strain upon his own sympathies somewhat relaxed by his enjoyment of the perfection of M. de Maupassant's literary form, and by a certain perception that the suffering for which he demands sympathy belongs in great part to the second and entirely literary self in the double personality which he exposes so pathetically; to the equally vivid conviction, also, that when M. de Maupassant leaves his double at peace, he is a very vigorous and healthy and well-satisfied specimen of humanity, with no lofty aspirations or supersensitive nerves to disturb his enjoyment in the very successful exercise of all his faculties. "Le Gendarme rouge," by M. Théophile Gautier *fils*, of which the second part is now given, belongs to an entirely different school. As is fitting in a story by the son of his father, the author plunges us into the full flood of romanticism as it appears in these latter days, and we find ourselves accepting the trials of the charming Javotte-et-Jacquotte and the attempts at their relief of Gaspard and Joliot, as readily as if realism had never been invented —assisted, it is only fair to confess, by the gentle irony with which both characters and situations are treated. As to the fantastic story of M. Henri Laujol, "Miremonde, conte moral," which begins brilliantly in the present number, it promises amusement at least, and the possibility of something more.

—Those of our readers who are interested in the history of commerce will find much to their purpose in two recent productions of that energetic and untiring spirit of investigation which the Germans call with pride *deutscher Fleiss*. The first of the works we refer to is 'Revaler Zollbücher und Quittungen des 14en Jahrhunderts,' by Prof. W. Stieda of Rostock. In the 138 pages of introduction the author discusses a considerable variety of topics. There is first a study of specific duties in the Hanseatic cities; then follows a dissertation on shipping in the Baltic, which contains much interesting information on the value of the ships, their form, structure, and burden, cargoes, prices, voyages, and the exports from the eastern Hanse cities. But, what is of especial practical value, Prof. Stieda has given a full list of weights and measures, with their equivalents, and copious tables of local coins. The usefulness of such tables will be highly appreciated by any one who has tried to get any information on such points out of the ordinary dictionaries, or even from Ducange. One's search is usually rewarded with the stereotyped answer, "a coin," "a measure." The text proper of this volume consists of specimens of trade documents from the city of Reval, which give one a glimpse of business methods five hundred years ago. The other work to which we alluded is from the hand of Dr. Henry Simonsfeld of the University and the Royal Library of Munich. It is entitled 'Der Fondaco dei Tedeschi in Venedig und die deutsch-venetianischen Handelsbeziehungen,' and is an exhaustive study of the history of German trade with Venice. The first volume, of nearly five hundred pages, is wholly devoted to documents running from 1225-1653, most of them in Latin. The second opens with an historical sketch of South German trade during those four centuries, taking up in particular the administration of the factory in Venice, the articles of export and import, the personnel of the trading community, routes, etc. The second half of the volume contains a list of consuls of the German merchants in Venice, a collection of epitaphs of Germans buried in Venice, supplementary documents, a useful glossary, and an exemplary index of upwards of fifty pages. These substantial volumes are published under the patronage of the Royal Bavarian Academy and by Cotta of Stuttgart.

—The Greek Archæological Society has shown most praiseworthy activity during the past few years. Indeed, when one remembers the poverty of the Greek Government and the very limited number of wealthy citizens in Greece, the enterprise of the Society is surprising, and it is a pleasure to note that its labors have met with the success they deserved, in the various sites investigated. It has shown the Acropolis to be a treasure-house of early Hellenic architecture and sculpture, to an extent one would not have believed possible a few years ago. The discovery of many fragments of pre-Pheidian sculpture on which the colors are in a brilliant state of preservation, and that of the early temple of Athena in the middle of the Acropolis, are in themselves achievements which would have amply repaid the undertaking; but during the last season the discovery of traces of a palace antedating the Hellenic civilization, and in some of its features displaying a marked resemblance to the palace of Tiryns, gives to the Acropolis an entirely new

and unsuspected interest. By the destruction of a Turkish structure, northeast of the Erechtheion, some fragments of the northern frieze of the Parthenon have been brought to light; and, east of the Parthenon, the substructure of the temple of Roma and Augustus has been unearthed. Outside of Athens the Society has continued its work at Eleusis, Epidauros, Mykenæ (where a considerable number of tombs of the "Mykenæan" epoch—that is, in the style of the so-called Treasury of Atreus—have been opened), and Oropos in Bœotia. It is unfortunate for those of us who live so far away from Greece that the full and official accounts of these investigations follow so tardily the investigations themselves. We learn, for example, that those at Oropos have yielded very important architectural results, but must wait indefinitely for the scientific description and illustrations of them. Dörpfeld, in a brief note in the *Mittheilungen* of 1886, stated that the stage of the theatre there was of the Greek epoch and in better preservation than that of Epidauros; and last year the Archæological Society laid bare a stoa adjoining this theatre, over 350 feet in length, the front of Doric architecture, with about fifty columns, the interior divided into three parts by an Ionic colonnade. An extraordinary feature of the edifice was the metopes, which are said to have contained a long inscription.

SAINTSBURY'S ELIZABETHAN LITERATURE.—I.

A History of Elizabethan Literature. By George Saintsbury. Macmillan & Co. 1887.

THIS work, if it does nothing more, indicates a movement in the right direction. What the historians of English literature of the year 3000 A.D. will be compelled to do, the historians of less than 2000 A.D. are finding it desirable to do. The subject is too vast already to be treated satisfactorily by a single writer. Hence the necessity of dividing it into periods. The present volume—one of a series of four—is the first in order of publication, but the second in order of time. It is to be followed by one on the early literature, by Mr. Stopford Brooke; by one on the literature of the eighteenth century, by Mr. Edmund Gosse, and by one on modern literature, by Professor Dowden.

The idea of such a series is an exceedingly good one, but its value will necessarily depend upon its execution. We are bound to say that the present volume does not make us too hopeful. It is, in fact, a grievous disappointment. It is generally supposed to be incumbent on the reviewer to greet even the work which he purposes to praise with a short and subdued critical growl; but the growl in this case needs to be both prolonged and loud. We have rarely met a treatise on any subject much more exasperating. For the book has a great deal of merit in it in a certain way. It is the production of a man who has read his subject, and not merely read about it. It frequently contains striking observations, and passages which display keen critical insight. More than that, there is in portions of it a sanity of statement, a freedom from the extravagances that disfigure most modern criticism, which, if exhibited throughout, would give it a permanent place in the literature of its class. With all this it is one of the most unreadable books that ever offered themselves to be read. It will furnish little pleasure to the student who knows, and little instruction to the student who does not know.

To begin with, it is not an unreasonable thing to ask that a history of English literature should be written in the English language. This somewhat desirable qualification the work before us does not possess. As Mrs. Malaprop was quite the queen of the dictionary, so Mr. Saintsbury is quite the lord of the language. He has certainly extended its conquests further than any living writer, and from the indications contained in this volume there is no speech that is not in danger of being annexed. The reader who expects to peruse the work understandingly must prepare himself for the task by a previous knowledge of French and Italian, Latin and Greek. The last named, in particular, is an absolute necessity. "Marlowe," writes Mr. Saintsbury in his genial way, "with the fullest command of the *apeiron*, had not, and, as far as I can judge, never would have had, any power of introducing into it the law of the *peras*." Things in this volume are not of unknown origin: they are *adespota*. We can say of the author what he says of Daniel, that his English is most certainly "unweakened by purism," but cannot add his further comment upon the language of that poet, that it is "unadulterated by xenomania" (p.136). This pedantry, in fact, is so all-pervading, it is so wantonly, not to say brutally, aggressive, that it reads almost like a joke to have Mr. Saintsbury remark that he hopes he shall not "be suspected of being ignorant of Greek" (p. 379). No misgiving of that sort, he may be assured, will once occur to the reader who is forcing his weary way through this lexical jungle. The thing he will suspect is, that Mr. Saintsbury is ignorant of English.

Bad as are the words, the sentences are worse. Mr. Saintsbury is familiar with French prose, but he has studied it carefully, with the main intent, apparently, to avoid its precision, its clearness, its happy art of saying things agreeably even when it has nothing to say. A more vicious style than prevails in this volume can hardly be found in the productions of any reputable author. There are sentences we have read and reread before we could feel sure of what the writer was aiming to say. There are sentences which we should never have understood had we not known beforehand what the writer was intending to say. There are sentences that would bring despair to the most patient and long-suffering of grammarians. The work, in fact, furnishes an almost inexhaustible supply of every kind of fault which can affect clearness of expression.

The most noticeable one, however, is caused by the fact that many of the sentences really consist of two rolled into one. They are sometimes so involved that the reader who embarks upon one of them is apt to forget the place from which he has started, and fails at the end to recognize the place at which he is landed. They are stuffed with parentheses to such an extent that the resources of the printing-office must have been tested to the uttermost to supply the run made upon the types containing these particular curved lines. The result is, that many of the sentences seem to be suffering from a sort of rhetorical dropsy. We quote part of one found on the second page, not because there is anything exceptional about it—there are scores and scores just like it—but because it mentions with praise an editor to whose merits we are glad to call attention. It runs as follows:

"Mr. Arber's remarks in his introduction (which, though I have rather an objection to putting mere citations before the public, I am glad here to quote as a testimony in the forefront of this book to the excellent deserts of one who by himself has done as much as any living man to facilitate the study of Elizabethan literature) are entirely to the point."

It is not often that a quotation serves so effectually the double purpose of pointing a moral and paying a tribute of deserved praise.

Comments upon style are not apt to be effective when coming from an author who can be guilty of atrocities such as we have described and cited. This sort of work is the more aggravating because these overloaded and obscure sentences are frequently accompanied by others clearly conceived and powerfully expressed, showing what the writer could do if he chose to do it. These latter are, unhappily, too few to affect the general estimate. The volume, as a whole, is the result of that easy writing which makes the hardest of reading. If we were to judge Mr. Saintsbury's style by it alone, we could find full justification for the view that, in the production of slovenly English, he has not only no rival among contemporary writers, he has not even a second.

This is not, however, the principal fault we have to find. While the matter contained in this volume is much superior to the manner, it is nevertheless not of a kind to arouse enthusiasm or to inspire confidence. Mr. Saintsbury assures us, indeed, that he has been diligently reading for five and twenty years the productions of the period he is discussing. But it is quite plain that he has been a student of Elizabethan literature in the same easy sense in which many of us are students of a good many things. At the very outset there are remarks made which tend to arouse suspicion as to the value of his work. His dates and biographical facts, he tells us in his preface, are generally taken at second-hand. There is not the slightest objection to this course. The assertion, in truth, gives the impression of straightforwardness and honesty. The effect of it, however, he proceeds at once to destroy by going on to say that he shall not be much concerned, or, as he expresses it, "be deeply convinced of sin," if some of the unimportant facts and dates do turn out to be wrong. It is one thing to admit your obligations to others in the matter of exactness of information; it is quite another thing to assume a jaunty air as if exactness of information upon minor points was really not a matter of much consequence, and in fact rather beneath the dignity of the gifted being who purposes to take a wide survey of literature as a whole. This is the talk of a man who is unwilling to do the lowly work upon which his lofty generalizations must ultimately be based. Correctness of detail is not the highest of virtues; but it is no contemptible quality in an historian. Mr. Saintsbury hardly seems to be aware that accuracy of statement is not an accident which varies with the importance of a subject, but denotes a habit of mind; and that the man who is indifferent about his dates is not likely to be preëminently trustworthy in the relation of any of his facts.

We see, in truth, the results of this dilettante method of study whenever Mr. Saintsbury leaves the province of special criticism to indulge in general views or to touch upon matters that demand special knowledge, and sometimes, unfortunately, upon those that do not. He is not always acquainted with the nature of the positions he criticises or controverts. The charge, for instance, which scholars bring against Spenser's language is not that he brought together the speech of different periods and of different dialects and even of different tongues, and produced a "poetic diction" that was never actually employed by anybody. It is, that his so-called archaisms are not archaisms, that they are mere verbal blunders arising from his attempting to employ the language of a time he did not fully comprehend. The result was, that he used words and forms that never had any existence at all, under the

impression that they were archaic, and used archaic words in senses they never knew.

We had hoped that at this late day men would be no longer misled by Gifford's perverse contention that Ben Jonson's play of "Every Man in his Humor" was brought out in 1596. That editor had a purpose to serve, and was never very scrupulous in such cases about the value of his evidence. But there is surely nothing to be gained now by talking about recasts and alterations, when Jonson himself expressly tells us that "this comedy was first acted in the year 1598 by the then Lord Chamberlain's servants." We are quoting his very words, and he is not likely to have made an assertion which all his contemporaries would have known to be false. Still, this baseless supposition turns up again in the pages of this volume.

A far more reprehensible statement follows. Warton's venerable fiction about Milton, which never had a decent excuse to show for its creation, is once more retailed as an indisputable fact. "Milton," says Mr. Saintsbury, "to his eternal disgrace, flung for party purposes the study of Shakspere as a reproach in his dead King's face." It behooves him who sets out to revive exploded slanders to make himself acquainted with that (whatever it was) which first suggested them. In this instance it is a passage in the 'Eikonoklastes,' which Mr. Saintsbury has clearly not taken the pains to read. Had he done so, he would have found that he might as well have insisted that Milton was attacking the study of the Pauline epistles, because, in the very same connection and with the same end in view, he represents the Apostle to the Gentiles as the author most read and studied by one of the worst of the Byzantine Emperors. It takes but the most cursory reading of the 'Eikonoklastes' to discover the falsity of a charge which it required partisanship to make in the first place, and ignorance in addition to partisanship to repeat now. He who examines that work will find no difficulty in deciding, as between poet and critic, to whom the stigma of disgrace will attach—though in the latter case there is, for obvious reasons, no danger of its being eternal.

RECENT NOVELS.

The Deemster. By Hall Caine. D. Appleton & Co.

Leon Roch. By Perez Galdós. Translated from the Spanish by Clara Bell. W. S. Gottsberger.

Queen Money. By the author of 'The Story of Margaret Kent.' Boston: Ticknor & Co.

The Second Son. By M. O. W. Oliphant and T. B. Aldrich. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

The Dusantes. By Frank R. Stockton. The Century Co.

Paul and Christina. By Amelia E. Barr. Dodd, Mead & Co.

Zorah. By Elizabeth Balch. Boston: Cupples & Hurd.

Ethne. By Mrs. E. M. Field. E. & J. B. Young & Co.

The Story of an Enthusiast. By Mrs. C. V. Jamison. Ticknor & Co.

'THE DEEMSTER' imposes a standard for criticism different from any by which the mass of modern fiction may fairly be measured. The novelist who deals with primitive human passions, developing them through circumstances which lead inevitably to tragic action, challenges comparison with the creators of grand imaginative literature. The supreme virtue of such literature lies in its power to lift people to the height of its theme, and to absorb them in its action as absolutely as in thrilling personal experience. The man who achieves this effect with any sort of completeness must have something in him finer and rarer than literary talent, however brilliant and intelligently trained. Mr. Caine invites the test and stands it with honor. His subjective drama is the old and awful one of good warring with evil in the human heart. There are moments in the conflict when man's will and reason count for so little, when he seems such a puppet of passion and accident, that we can believe he has no control of the issues, and seem to be looking on at a game of dice played by God and the Devil with human souls for stakes. But the prevailing spirit is stronger and more hopeful. No man is so perfect that he may not fall into sin; none too bad for repentance and atonement. The balance hangs trembling in suspense, yet each man is responsible for its turning, subject to no arbitrary fate.

In Dan Mylrea, the great figure of the novel, the fight rages most fiercely. Here is one of those exceptional natures felt to be equal to a high destiny, seen with pain and horror to be going straight down to the gates of Hell. Nothing short of frightful calamity can stop such a man, once he has taken the wrong path, and he must know in his soul that he alone is responsible for the wrong before spiritual purgation becomes possible. The antagonistic forces that rage in Dan have less play in his father, the Bishop, and in Ewan Mylrea. It is a fit of temporary wrath, a maddening sense of final, unpardonable outrage to long-suffering love, that hurries Ewan on to his share in the culminating tragedy. It is in a moment of solicitude for the physical safety of his son that the Bishop, with his faith in God's love and mercy fallen away from him, wishes to do what would tarnish the whiteness of his life and make his very righteousness a reproach to him. The Deemster alone seems to be irreclaimably evil, and his nature has the least affinity with the universal, is largely a product of one age, one locality, and peculiar personal opportunities.

Though tragedy is foreshadowed from the beginning, and sweeps along in a current of increasing force to the end, its sternness is relieved by the form in which the novel is cast, irregular, unstudied, abounding in sharp contrasts of laughter and of tears—the form that links literature inseparably with life. The scene is in the Isle of Man, in the beginning of the eighteenth century. Time and place permit rugged picturesqueness, a certain physical storminess, and add a romantic element like that which the Venetian coloring gives to *Othello's* consuming jealousy. The singular legal forms in force when the Earls of Derby were Kings of Man, provide nice points for plot building, and the technicality by which Dan might be removed from the jurisdiction of his uncle, the Deemster, to that of his father, the Bishop, is used ingeniously. It provides an opportunity, too, for the most impressive single scene in the novel. The Bishop, bowed down with anguish great as David's for his rebellious son, pronounces the fearful punishment for Dan's crime. The moral dignity of the thought here cannot be surpassed, and we must go to the Bible for parallels in commanding simplicity and poignancy of expression.

'Leon Roch' conspicuously illustrates some advantages possessed by novelists of the Latin and Slav races for exciting intellectual interest. If civilization reaches its highest expression in the Anglo-Saxon, it is partly at the expense of originality of thought, independence of action, of much that makes study of character a useful and enlightening occupation. It is not the fault of the contemporary English and American novelist that so vital a difference as that which separates Leon Roch and his wife is quite outside of his sphere of observation, but it is the good luck of Perez Galdós that material naturally presents itself to him which may worthily be offered for the consideration of intelligent people. In the dissection of character he is not obliged to pay deference to squeamish taste and conventional moral ideas. Were he trammelled by a public opinion which shudders at plainness of speech, the character of Maria Roch would be hopelessly incomprehensible. It is easy to understand that she, a religious bigot, not capable of intellectual exertion rising to the dignity of thought, might become by degrees hopelessly estranged from her free-thinking husband. But when she is convinced that to live with him is deadly sin, when in heart and soul they are absolutely divorced, a very radical analysis of her nature is needed to explain her remaining in his house, and her furious jealousy at the thought that his love has been transferred to another woman. Whatever may be said for or against the choice of such a nature for development in fiction, once having chosen it the liberty of plain speech is a great aid to intelligibility. The author lashes Maria unsparingly, but tenderness would be thrown away on such a combination of sensuality, gross superstition, vulgar credulity, and egotistical delight in her own ineffable perfection.

Besides, she is not singled out for scarification. Leon is fully credited with uprightness, rational patience under sore irritation, and intellectual freedom, yet his self-conceit, his harsh, bourgeois didacticism, and his sweeping intolerance when finally exasperated by Maria, her priests, and her family, are put fully in evidence. Still, he always commands sympathy, and one fully believes that his moral principle sufficed him to resist the temptation offered by Pépa Fucar to a very lonely and disappointed man. His continued leniency to the Telleria family is superlatively Christian in spirit, for a more worthless pack, with a certain family likeness of impudence and malice in their worthlessness, never tried the temper and depleted the purse of a son and brother-in-law. Through the Tellerias and their associates the Spanish aristocracy is attacked with a savageness which means either that Spain and the Spaniards are going to the dogs, or that the author is a very wrathful and pessimistic satirist. All the description of the Tellerias' varied depravities, of the journalist Cimarra's scampish audacity, of the Marquis de Fucar's methods of money and title-getting, makes entertaining reading in spite of a disapproving conscience. The talk, even on trivial topics, shows the man stripped of artificial assumptions and reserves, and the descriptions have the pitiless particularity of the French naturalistic school.

Of the dearth of those features in our social life which attract the intellect and arouse emotion, 'Queen Money' is a case in point. The quotation from Horace on the title-page is happily chosen to give a name to a novel reflecting the spirit of that large portion of New York society of which Regina Pecunia is the acknowledged despot. In an early chapter there is some bright talk about American novels and novel-making. While agreeing with the cheerful Mr. Goodspeed, that American life is the proper field for American novelists, and not disputing the dictum of that king of critics, Mr. Clayton White, that it makes no difference whether a man is provincial or cosmopolitan, so long as he has something to say, we submit, on the evidence of this book and many another,

that American life of the cities of the well-to-do, comfortable, even fashionable classes, is a shallow lake to fish in. It is not so easy to find anything to say about it worth the saying. It is a respectable, humdrum life, inwardly clean, taking on sometimes, outwardly, an affectation of Old World moral laxity, which only the exceptional person has either the desire or the courage to put in practice. It is intellectually an empty life, with feelings not so turbulent as to require studied repression; much addicted to pursuit of material pleasure—not sensual enough to imperil the soul's welfare. Passion has no home here, only makes an occasional call on Wall Street, and there for a few hours rides the whirlwind.

The author describes this life just as it is, any exaggeration being due to misconception, not to wilful or stupid misrepresentation. His regret that it is not better or more is plain, and the feeling urges him to make the most of the ardor, honesty, and good aspiration which the country boy, Otto March, brings to town with him, and of the refinement and gentleness of that home where he finds his sweetheart. He perceives, as the unhappy Mr. Charnock says, that half-heartedness is a fault of the age—a convenient absolution for Mr. Charnock and the rest of us, if we were not obliged to reflect that men and women make the age, and that, therefore, each individual is responsible for his share of its defects and virtues. For artistic purposes the author might have preferred that the indefatigable Arria White should have had a more moving grievance against her husband than his disapproval of her salad dressing, and he does faintly suggest one. If he had carried the suggestion further, he would have slandered his society. It is the American's naturally respectful attitude towards women, his innate respectability, which saves our enormously wealthy, notoriously unspiritual communities from moral corruption. It is the bad taste, the physical beauty and vivacity, the mental superficiality and idleness of the Fanny Brockways, that lead foreigners and hasty native purists to very unjust and false conclusions.

Some English reviewers, supposed to be "indolent and irresponsible," have ignored Mr. Aldrich's share in the writing of 'The Second Son.' If the collaboration had not been advertised far and near, and if Mr. Aldrich's name were not on the title-page, the neglect might be regarded as pure oversight. Whatever it may mean, it ought to be accepted as a kindness, a considerate bit of international courtesy. We know Mr. Aldrich as the author of thoughtful and polished verse, and of original, fanciful, brilliant short stories. Where is he in this tedious, voluminous account of the squabbles of an English county family? The situation which makes the excuse for a display of "language" surpassing any of Mrs. Oliphant's former triumphs, is the insistance of a most intolerant and intolerable British father, Mr. Mitford, that one of his three sons shall marry an heiress, Miss Travers. Being free to dispose of his estates as he pleases, he makes disinheritance the penalty of his eldest son's refusal to acquiesce in his matrimonial schemes. The moral to be derived from the dénouement is, that though wrong and injustice sometimes recoil on their perpetrator, the recoil is apt to come too late for the profit of the good and the punishment of the wicked. The situation has the merit of antiquity and the moral the sanction of experience; nevertheless, in neither do we discover points likely to attract Mr. Aldrich, or which he could render highly attractive. The fact is, that he is nowhere to be found, while every chapter and page exhales Mrs. Oliphant. He has politely effaced himself, or, all unconscious, been buried out of sight. Considered as Mrs. Oliphant's work, it falls far short of her greatest excellence. It is honest, kindly, shrewd, unaffected—qualities inseparable from any work of hers, but is also dull and unsuggestive, and may be commended in cases where poppy and mandragora and all the drowsy syrups of the world utterly do fail.

The sequel to the casting away of Mrs. Lecks and Mrs. Aleshine answers explicitly the question, Who were the Dusantes? If they are not so original and amusing as are the good ladies who swept their way to port through the Pacific, they are not exactly disappointing to curiosity. The adventure which brings together the owners of the comfortable dwelling-house, located on a desert island, and its temporary occupants, is one of the happy inventions that distinguish Mr. Stockton's stories from all others, good or bad. On the whole, the story is well wound up, the sailormen are provided with means permanently to testify their devotion to Mrs. Lecks, and the use to which the board money in the ginger jar is put is entirely satisfactory.

Every one knows that when a minister has preached a certain number of sermons, the labor of further production is just to turn a barrel upside down. Prolific novelists are under suspicion of trading in a similar way on the short memory of their public, but few are so heedless or so bold as is Mrs. Barr. She has manufactured 'Paul and Christina' out of the material of 'Jan Vedder's Wife,' only reversing the characters of husband and wife. It is inevitable that writers who depict life in an isolated community, varying but little in essential features from generation to generation, shall in time repeat themselves, and that their work shall finally lose its first charm of picturesque novelty. The Shetland Islands and Hebrides seem to be exhausted very speedily, for Mrs. Barr is not the only novelist whose first story about them has contained all and more than any subsequent one.

The plot of 'Zorah,' a love tale of modern Egypt, is worked out by the aid of witches, subtle poisons, and the mysterious passing to and fro of a signet ring. Mustapha Bey, the hero, has more sweet reasonableness and conscience than Orientals are generally credited with, but his gift of poetical expression and his tendency towards mysticism establish his claims to an ancestry running back to the dawn of time. Zorah, the slave girl, is thoroughly a child of the sun, a creature of only one or two impulses, doomed by herself to accomplish her sorrowful destiny. Her character appeals to Western sympathies but feebly, yet the author has invested it with pathos and not a little of a frank barbarian dignity. Many of the scenes are warm with local color, and the interest of intrigue and character is well sustained to the end.

No men ever did more to assure liberty and its blessings to remote posterity than did the ruthless soldiers of the Lord and of Oliver Cromwell, yet none have assumed to us in the lapse of time such unlovable personality. Especially during the occupation of Ulster, while the natives were being transplanted to the wilds of Connaught, do the Roundheads appear wholly cruel, hypocritical, and inhuman. The character of Roger-Standfast-on-the-Rock, the dominating personality in 'Ethne,' confirms preconceived hostility against his class. He has no vices, but his virtues are insufferable. Without taking into account the circumstances that brought him to Ireland and kept him there, there is nothing in the man that could win the love of a warm-hearted, patriotic Ethne O'Connor. His easy conquest of her affections never appears in any light but its true one—that of a novelist's ridiculously romantic assumption. It is hardly less improbable than Ethne's instantaneous and absolute relinquishment of the faith of her house and nation. The greater part of the story, couched in exaggerated phrases of Puritan cant, is exceedingly tiresome. It bears the stamp, however, of industrious historical research, and several chapters descriptive of customs of the Irish peasantry are well worth reading.

'The Story of an Enthusiast' is superlatively emotional. The people love and hate with great violence, the most frenzied working off their despair by roaming at night among the tombs of the Campagna, thereby entailing disease upon themselves, and causing sorrowful consternation to more moderate friends and relations. The immediate cause of widely diffused anguish is a picture by Raphael of a boy's head in a black beretta. The picture is sold by unfeeling and mercenary guardians, during the hero's minority, and he, with a disregard for his practical welfare truly heroic, devotes his life and fortune to finding the picture and buying it back. He cries a good deal over obstacles, but keeps up the pursuit. During a sane interlude he becomes engaged to be married, but, getting news of the picture just when the bride is awaiting him, unscrupulously leaves her in the lurch. Everywhere, wreck marks the path of his enthusiasm, and contemplation of its devastating force is not likely to mitigate a general intolerance of enthusiasts.

PAVLOVSKY'S RECOLLECTIONS OF TURGENEFF.

Souvenirs sur Tourguéneff. Par Isaac Pavlovsky. Paris: Albert Savine; Boston: Schoenhof. 1887.

M. PAVLOVSKY is the author (whether assumed or real seems to be a little uncertain) of a piece known as "Mémoires d'un Nihiliste." This was written (or arranged) by M. Pavlovsky in Italy in 1878, in consequence of what he calls "le prurit littéraire," and was entitled by him "En Cellule." It was brought to Turgeneff's notice while still in manuscript, and it was through his influence that this "étude psychologique," as its writer styles it, appeared in the *Temps* in 1879, with the title by which it is now known. It was republished, strangely (in 1885), in Hetzel's edition of Turgeneff's works. The probable cause of its being included among them is that its publication in the *Temps* occasioned a violent outburst against Turgeneff in the Moscow journals, because he had prefaced it with a laudatory letter to the editor of the *Temps*. (This letter had been asked for by the *Temps*, as a guarantee that the story contained nothing to offend the Russian censorship and to cause a prohibition of the journal in the Russian empire.) M. Pavlovsky says that he desires to reëstablish, with regard to the history of the publication of 'En Cellule,' the truth which many persons in Russia have unhappily distorted at will." But he does not make the truth very clear. In Turgeneff's prefatory letter he speaks of the paper as "autobiographical memoirs," as "the simple and sincere narrative of what the author has suffered," and praises "the accent of truth" and "the absence of idle recriminations and reproaches." M. E. M. de Vogüé, writing, after Turgeneff's death, of the Russian attacks upon him in consequence of this publication, seems to think that the great romancer may have retouched the paper a little, but adds: "It is not a work of imagination; he had it from one of his compatriots escaped from Russian prisons." But in the volume before us we find M. Pavlovsky himself always speaking

of it as "une nouvelle," and of the prisoner as "the hero"; and he says: "The preface of the author [apparently never printed] explained how the manuscript had come into his hands"—"the author" being himself. He says also that Turgeneff's recommendation of it was as "a literary work, not a political pamphlet"; and states absolutely that "he did not correct these memoirs." Are they memoirs, or is it a story? Has M. Pavlovsky ever been in Russian prisons? The question is not a wholly unimportant one. The answer would decidedly affect one's opinion of M. Pavlovsky, and in some measure of Turgeneff, since he is involved in the curious, vague inaccuracy that veils these points.

M. Pavlovsky's acquaintance with his great compatriot it is clear was neither short nor superficial, and it gave him familiarity with many facts of Turgeneff's life that are of interest; but his book lacks that special quality which makes "remembrances" of value—the quality which creates truth out of facts. It is very instructive, not only as regards their common subject, but as a lesson in "remembering," to put by the side of M. Pavlovsky's volume the paper on Turgeneff which Mr. James published four years ago in the *Atlantic*. That masterpiece of delicate perception and vigorous expression has an admirable breadth, and the personal note of ardent and tender admiration and affection is in delightful harmony with the fuller chords that accompany it. Mr. James "remembers" that when he first met Turgeneff he "could scarcely believe that he would prove—that any man could prove—on nearer acquaintance as delightful" as that first impression. But nearer acquaintance only confirmed the impression. From first to last he found him a man whose literary distinction represented only a part of the large and luminous richness of his nature. This view finds constant confirmation even in M. Pavlovsky's pages, although an offensive tone, almost of malice, pervades the book.

Turgeneff's liberal kindness to his fellow-countrymen of both sexes in pseudo-exile at Paris was literally unbounded; and if it sometimes took the shape of befriending those unworthy of his regard, yet the unfailing touch of generous enthusiasm which made their qualities outweigh their defects in his eyes, had a noble simplicity. Not only five hundred francs here and a thousand francs there passed from his pockets into those of persons "criblés de dettes" (without his left hand knowing how his right hand was pilfering him), but he was always readily active in the deeper charity of investigating into their circumstances and forwarding their interests. And this in spite of a constitutional national indolence and indifference of disposition, and in spite of the fact that his fathering their fortunes not infrequently, as in M. Pavlovsky's case, exposed him to personal annoyance from political causes. As with other philanthropists,

> "Folks with a mission that nobody knows
> Thronged thickly about him like bees round a rose";

and though one may believe that in some of these strange and unfortunate lives there was a dramatic interest that excited his attention and stimulated his imagination and fed the sources of his art, most of them were mere beggars for one or another kind of aid.

Turgeneff organized for their benefit private charitable matinées, where he himself read selections from his own works and those of Pushkin, and Mme. Viardot sang Russian songs, and her son and daughter assisted musically. It was only among the circle of his intimates that he could find support in these good works. The rich Russian colony of the Champs Élysées stood aloof, and feared to compromise itself by contact with those whose necessities might be caused by Nihilism. His French friends had not these hesitations. Soon after the publication of 'L'Assommoir,' Zola consented to take an active part in one of these mornings, but the daring writer found himself unexpectedly the most timid of readers, and an overwhelming attack of stage fright drove him from the platform. Part of the money gained by these matinées was used for a Russian library founded and maintained by Turgeneff. He also organized a club for Russian artists, and endeavored to arrange with them regular evening entertainments, literary and musical, to which the public were to be admitted. But the presence on the first evening (February, 1881) of some well-known revolutionists raised a social storm that burst over poor Turgeneff's head when he was ill in bed, and the soirées fell under the blast.

With young authors he was in constant relations. "During the five years that I visited him," says M. Pavlovsky, "I saw in his hands the manuscripts of at least twenty-five writers. . . . I was present sometimes at his conversations with these authors"; and Pavlovsky gives a sketch of these conversations, which is one of the most interesting pages of his volume. When the author would ask, concerning something criticised by Turgeneff, how it could be bettered, Turgeneff exclaimed, "Comment? Et sais-je comment? Ce n'est pas ça, voilà tout," and would continue: "Don't think that I know how it should be, and will not tell you. To find by search the right expression is impossible; elle doit couler de source." None the less, in a letter here quoted, as interesting as this conversation, he said: "It is idle to wait for the pretended blessed hours of inspiration; if the inspiration comes, so much the better, but one should work whether or no. Not only must one work over one's phrase till it express exactly what one desires to express, and is of the very proportion and quality that one wishes, but one must read and continually study"—endeavor, in fine, to understand the laws of life. It is all very interesting, but should be read in its own place.

Mr. James speaks of Turgeneff's "beautiful faculty of talk." "He was easy, natural, abundant more than I can describe, and everything that he said was touched with the exquisite quality of his imagination." A sentence of M. Pavlovsky's adds something to this: "He had always a quiet manner when recounting anything, and in repeating what any one had said he very rarely gave any imitation of the expression of their face or of their gestures." But one day M. Pavlovsky saw him by chance represent with admirable comic ability a certain M. Boborykin giving a lecture on elocution. M. Pavlovsky adds that meeting M. Boborykin a year afterwards, he recognized him from Turgeneff's mimicry. He says, further, that Turgeneff needed only to see a person once to remember him always, and that his memory was as extraordinary for names and circumstances as for the physiognomy. And not less so for matters of literature. We are told that on hearing a line from Shakspere, Turgeneff could without much hesitation say from what play and even from what act and scene it came.

The first part of this volume is occupied with the account of Turgeneff's relations with Tolstoi, and reports of his talk about him. Later pages treat of Dostoyevsky. All this, and other passages also, we find disagreeable, and must believe untrustworthy. Turgeneff's own words about similar "reportings" come to mind: "Peut-être a-t-il rêvé tout cela. Mais, mon Dieu! quels misérables cancans!" There is also a good deal about Turgeneff's judgments of contemporary French authors. "His opinion of Victor Hugo," says Mr. James, "could not have been expressed in a few words, but admiration, of course, was a considerable part of it. I remember (on Turgeneff's lips) a brilliant description of Victor Hugo's state of mind with regard to himself (Victor Hugo), and as a corollary with regard to others. If it was deliberate and discriminating, it was also pictorial and humorous." With this preface, instead of that prefixed to them by M. Pavlovsky, we commend to the reader two infinitely amusing anecdotes of the great poet derived from Turgeneff. Here, as elsewhere, it is salutary to observe what Mr. James "remembers," what M. Pavlovsky forgets. They agree in their estimate of Turgeneff's warm admiration for George Sand; and M. Pavlovsky quotes a beautiful expression of it from a letter. M. Pavlovsky attributed to him an immense overvaluing of Flaubert. Mr. James puts it justly in saying, "He had a great affection for Gustave Flaubert, and he was much interested in Flaubert's extraordinary attempts at refinement of form and irony of matter, knowing perfectly well when they failed." There are passages of more or less interest in reference to Turgeneff's own works and mode of work; and some few short pieces of his are printed or translated here for the first time. The last fifty pages are an account by him of the execution of Troppmann.

The last words about this most admirable of writers should be Mr. James's: "He was the most generous, the most tender, the most delightful of men; his large nature overflowed with the love of justice."

Classical and Foreign Quotations, Law Terms and Maxims, Proverbs, Mottoes, Phrases, and Expressions in French, German, Greek, Italian, Latin, Spanish, and Portuguese. With translations, references, explanatory notes, and indexes. By Wm. Francis King, M.A., Ch. Ch., Oxford. London: Whitaker & Sons; New York: T. Whittaker. 1887-88.

FROM a single word, like Assumpsit, this collection ranges to any number of lines in prose and verse. In every case that calls for it, reference is (if possible) given not only to the author, but to the work and passage in which the quotation occurs. Besides the translation (often the editor's own, even in verse, when he might have borrowed), parallels are frequently introduced, or applications suggested, or anecdotes related, or witticisms attempted (*e. g.*, No. 701). Hence a certain degree of readability. These are the positive merits of Mr. King's work, and the pains he has been at to verify and locate his selections are worthy of recognition.

In other respects the execution falls far short of the editor's or of any proper ideal. He cites Bayle on "l'exactitude de citer. C'est un talent plus rare que l'on ne pense." But what may we expect when a superfluous word and syllable are thrust into such a commonplace as "Lasciate ogni speranza [o] voi ch[e] entrate"? Here rises up against Mr. King his own censure: "The more familiar the passage, the more commonly is it, in many cases, misquoted." But if we pass from alterations of this sort, and come to scholarly and typographical inaccuracies, the book swarms with them—in fact, is not at all to be depended upon. Take another line from Dante: "Non ragio*nam* di lor, ma guarda e passa"; or the proverb, "Chi é causa," etc. (No. 722). Take the famous verse of Voltaire's: "Le premier qui fût roi, fût un soldat heureux"; or the

phrase "à tatons"; or the needless ligation (No. 4639), "S'il-y-a . . . , il n'y-en-a pas." Take the Greek *passim*. It seems to be Mr. King's rule to put the breathing on the first vowel of an initial diphthong (see Nos. 2875, 3750, 3754, 3907). The grave accent is freely misplaced, as, on the penult in ἄνδρα (No. 3750) and in δεῖνον (No. 1797). Two lines ending with the same word, on opposite pages, have κακὸν (No. 1788) and κακόν (No. 1797). A double accent is used without reason in ὅμιλίαι (No. 3909).

We shall not discuss the editor's scheme of omission and inclusion. Regarding what he brings, we have a right to ask first that it shall be exact and trustworthy, and, secondly, that its contents shall be readily discoverable. The alphabetical arrangement of course counts for something towards unlocking the contents, but very little. One reason is, that Mr. King is not satisfied to give the familiar quotation alone, but as often as not reproduces it with the context. "Ab uno disce omnes," therefore, cannot be found under *ab*, but must be sought under *ac*—"Accipe nunc Danaum," etc. This might have been obviated by a mechanical contrivance, as by lettering more boldly the pith of the quotation, and alphabetizing accordingly; or by an index. Of indexes Mr. King furnishes two, both inadequate and irrational and meagre. One is clumsily described as "of quotations not occurring in their alphabetical order," and under it should be found our "Ab uno disce omnes," but it is not there; while the fatuity with which the index has been compiled is shown by such an entry as "At revocare gradum"—the latter half of a quotation better known by the beginning, and a false reference, since the true text is "*Sed* revocare." The other index is English and topical, and is even more exasperating. Suppose we wish by means of it to get at the Voltairian line cited above. The two leading ideas are King and Soldier. For the former there are twenty-eight bald numerical references under "Kings," and No. 2702 happens to be included, half way down the list; under "Soldiers" there are four references, with none to what we are in search of. Let us inquire whether the "Memoriam cum voce perdidissemus" of Tacitus has been caught by Mr. King's drag-net. Twelve references under "Memory" and three under "Past" fail to reveal it. Is it then wanting to the collection? Who can affirm it, any more than in the case of "Das Ewig-weibliche," which, after having been tracked through some thirty references under "Woman," still remains in the vocative? In his introduction, Mr. King implies that he includes "the mention of the Passion of Christ by Tacitus," but the only index entry to Christ is "Christ, Order of," and one must remember that the passage begins "Auctor nominis," in order to go straight to it in No. 413. The entry just cited, let us say, is absurd in itself, since it is the *motto* of the Order of Christ of Portugal which interests the seeker, and this is easily found in its place—"Christiana militia." Mr. King translates this motto, by the way, "Christian *warfare*." But all his translations must be scrutinized, even if generally correct. Poetical license, for instance, cannot excuse "To wait for one who never comes" as conveying the sense of "Aspettare e non venire" (No. 383).

Some of the defects of the present indexes might have been repaired by an author index; but we fear that slovenliness would have crept into it also. The work is worth overhauling, but by some more competent hand than the present editor's.

Life in the Confederate Army. By William Watson. Scribner & Welford. 1888.

THIS is a personal narrative of experience in the South just before and during the first half of the war. The author, then a young Scotchman, was settled in Baton Rouge as business man and engineer. Though holding to his British allegiance, he volunteered in the Confederate Army, and went through the campaign of 1861–2 in Arkansas and Missouri, of which he gives a graphic picture. His accounts of the battles of Oakhill or Wilson's Creek, and of Pea Ridge, are excellent descriptions of so much of those fights as could come within the ken of an unusually cool and clear-headed sergeant. He subsequently went with Van Dorn to Corinth, but here his description of military affairs has no value, though it is relieved by well-drawn sketches of camp-life. Wounded at the battle of Corinth, he left the army, and in 1863 made his way out of the country.

The book makes no literary pretensions, and properly. The style and grammar are everywhere those of a man without experience in writing, and the number of errors of fact show that the author's reading was limited. His narrowness, too, is often revealed in sweeping criticisms of classes and parties about which he knew little; but in spite of these drawbacks the book is interesting and will repay perusal. The best part of it, perhaps, is his description of the state of feeling in the South in the early years of the war and in the period before it, with his shrewd observations thereon. He traces, with some prejudice, but with great clearness, the gradual change of sentiment among the intelligent non-slaveholding people of the South, by which this great body was converted from strong lovers of the Union into the most zealous defenders of the Confederacy.

"So far as my observation went at the time the act of secession was passed, the population was not unanimously in favor of it, and in most of the States the majority of the people were opposed to it. . . . But the inaction of the Federal Government and their seeming acquiescence in the movement caused many to accept the situation, and when Mr. Lincoln was inaugurated, his seeming indecision and imbecility, followed by the supposed shuffling and deceitful policy of Mr. Seward, caused a still greater number to adhere to the secession party. But when Mr. Lincoln's war proclamation was issued, calling for troops to crush the seceded States into obedience, then in reality did unanimous secession take place. The people within the Confederate States, especially those who had been favorable to union and opposed to secession, were now face to face with the situation. . . . Mr. Lincoln's Government had come into power and had been in power for more than a month, without giving any indication of its policy. That Government had shown no friendly disposition towards, or recognized, the existence of, any Union, or loyal party within the Confederate States. It had made no attempt to settle the matter by a conference and avoid war. . . .

"Of the thousands who at this time rushed to arms, I believe very few had in their minds the question of slavery. . . . The greatest number were animated only by a determination to resist Lincoln's proclamation.

"I can also assert that when the Northerners took up arms in obedience to Lincoln's proclamation, it was only to avenge the bombardment of Fort Sumter, put down the rebellion, and maintain the integrity of the Union. Anything like emancipation was most emphatically repudiated."

The composition of his company from Baton Rouge is of interest: "Planters 9, farmers 11, merchants, clerks, etc., 24, lawyer 1, engineers 4, carpenters 4, painters 3, compositors 3, bricklayers 2, iron moulders 2, gasfitters 2, sawmillers 2, gunsmith 1, tailor 1, druggist 1, teacher 1, carriage-makers 2, cabinet-maker 1, law students 2, marble-cutter 1, miscellaneous 8." The total number of the above who owned slaves, or were members of families who owned slaves, or were in any way connected with or interested in the institution of slavery, was 31; while the number of those who had no interest whatever in the institution of slavery was 55. The natives of the South were 47, of Northern States 13, of foreign countries 26. The percentage of slaveholders as well as of foreigners must have been much above the average in this company.

One of the most striking portions of the book is the description of Butler's rule in New Orleans, and of the effect produced by it upon the Western Confederate armies.

Patrick Henry. By Moses Coit Tyler. [American Statesmen.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1887.

PROF. TYLER has not only made one of the best and most readable of American biographies; he may fairly be said to have reconstructed the life of Patrick Henry, and to have vindicated the memory of that great man from the unappreciative and injurious estimate which has been placed upon it. Incidentally, he has helped to correct the notion, so common with young people, that unassisted genius, the power of glowing and ready speech, will take the place of severe and systematic labor. Patrick Henry has no doubt been the type and model of the natural orator, and, in most people's minds, of nothing else. The impression has prevailed, as Mr. Tyler says (p. 286), "industriously propagated by the ingenious enmity of Jefferson's old age, that Patrick Henry was a man of but meagre information, and of extremely slender intellectual resources, ignorant especially of law, of political science, and of history, totally lacking in logical power and in precision of statement, with nothing to offset these deficiencies excepting a strange gift of overpowering, dithyrambic eloquence." This impression has been combated and triumphantly dispelled by the work before us. It shows that, with very moderate original resources in the way of training, Henry was an industrious and systematic student, who in knowledge of law was no unworthy associate of the great lawyers of his native State. He had, it must be said, that marvellous facility of acquisition, an outcome of genius, which cannot take the place of industry—and did not in his case—but which, by its intuitive processes, gives to industry a vastly increased power.

Even his original resources were not altogether despicable. His parents were persons of good natural endowments and of good education; his uncle, William Winston, "having a gift of eloquence dazzling and wondrous like Patrick's." His early schooling was insufficient, so that his father himself undertook the charge of his education, assisted by a brother, Rev. Patrick Henry. By this uncle he was so well trained in the classics that, when he was Governor, he was able to converse with a French visitor who knew no English, through the medium of Latin. As to Jefferson's assertion that he was too indolent and too fond of sporting to improve his rather scanty knowledge of law after his admission to the bar, we have the record of 1,185 suits of which he charged fees in the first three and a half years of his practice—nearly twice as many as those of Jefferson himself in the corresponding period of time.

The proof that Patrick Henry was not a mere talker, but a man of intellectual resources and adequate training, is the most important service that Mr. Tyler has rendered to his memory. But he has further proceeded to examine the several points in his career which have been subject to censure or mis-

construction, and almost always with the result of relieving him of a certain amount of odium. In chapter ix. he discusses the question why it was that Patrick Henry's resolutions of 1775 were opposed so vehemently as being premature, when in substance "they lagged weeks and even months behind many of the best counties in Virginia itself, as well as behind those other colonies to which in political feeling Virginia was always most nearly akin" (p. 121); when, moreover, his opponents were themselves "all fully committed to the cause of the Revolution." The answer to this question he finds "not in the resolutions themselves, but in the special interpretation put upon them by Patrick Henry." This was the necessity of war. "Others had said, 'The war must come, and will come—unless certain things are done.' Patrick Henry, brushing away every prefix or suffix of uncertainty, every half-despairing 'if,' every fragile and pathetic 'unless,' exclaimed in the hearing of all men: 'Why talk of things being now done which can avert the war? Such things will not be done. The war is coming; it has come already.'"

We have in the fourteenth chapter an interesting correspondence between Gov. Henry and Gen. Washington at the time of the Conway cabal. It commences with an anonymous letter (p. 215), "evidently by a personal friend, a man of position, and a master of the art of plausible statement," written to Gov. Henry in the interest of that cabal. This letter was at once forwarded by Henry to Washington, with a letter expressive of entire confidence and friendship. Washington, in his reply, indicates Dr. Rush as the probable author of the letter. This incident, says Mr. Tyler, "is to be noted by us, not only for its own exquisite delicacy and nobility, but likewise as the culminating fact in the growth of a very deep and true friendship between the two men." This friendship, he adds, had "but a single episode of estrangement" during their lives.

This episode of estrangement was no doubt due to the ardent opposition made by Henry to the Federal Constitution, an opposition by which Washington was much grieved, and which no doubt created a certain coolness, lasting until Henry's hearty support of Washington's policy at a later stage. This part of Henry's career—the fight against the new Constitution, and that to secure amendments to it—is described very fully, and we are enabled to understand thoroughly his attitude and motives. We suppose that there are few at the present day who will not agree with Henry and his associates, that amendments in the nature of a bill of rights, such as were actually passed, were imperatively necessary; while events have clearly shown that beyond this his apprehensions of evil from the new instrument were not well founded. His opposition was certainly not factious, nor was it carried beyond the limits of constitutional obligation; we have no doubt, however, that his feeling was so intense and expressed so intensely that it gave reasonable offence to the supporters of the Constitution, and excited a not unnatural animosity in them. Mr. Tyler hardly does justice to this aspect of his character; it seems quite certain, from his own account, that this must have had much to do, not only with the estrangement at this time, but with the bitter antagonism which Henry excited in 1775.

The warmth of feeling which made him a strong and almost bitter partisan on these occasions, is a principal element of the generous and lovable features of his character. "While the war lasted," we are told (p. 258), "no man spoke against the Tories more sternly than did he. The war being ended, and its great purpose secured, no man, excepting, perhaps, Alexander Hamilton, was so prompt and so energetic in urging that all animosities of the war should be laid aside, and that a policy of magnanimous forbearance should be pursued respecting these baffled opponents of American independence."

The peculiar merit of this work, in throwing a substantially new light on many parts of its subject—a thing seldom possible with regard to men of so recent times—is derived from the judicious use of a great mass of unprinted material, partly collected by Wirt, for the purposes of his book (but only in part used by him), partly collected within the last thirty years by Mr. William Wirt Henry of Richmond, a grandson of Patrick Henry. Especial mention is made of "a document belonging to Cornell University, written by a great-grandson of Patrick Henry, the late Rev. Edward Fontaine, and giving, among other things, several new anecdotes of the great orator, as told to the writer by his own father, Col. Patrick Henry Fontaine, who was much with Patrick Henry during the later years of his life."

In conclusion, we will repeat that while Mr. Tyler has enriched our literature with an excellent work of biography, he has done us a still greater service by showing that our greatest orator was also an industrious and careful student.

The Fleet; Its River, Prison, and Marriages. By John Ashton. Illustrated by pictures from original drawings and engravings. Scribner & Welford. 1888.

THIS is a new volume of the antiquarian works of Mr. Ashton with which he has illustrated old London life for the present age with much fulness, and usually in an entertaining way. The Fleet Prison is the subject of a comparatively small portion of the book. The river is the true subject, and the story runs for the most part with its course, beginning with very ancient times, when the region in its neighborhood was noted for the medicinal or "holy" wells which have left their names so thickly in that part of London. Of this earlier period little is known, and Mr. Ashton, as he comes down the stream from Hampstead and Kentish Town, finds its banks much more thronged with the gay citizens and apprentices out on their holiday, drinking tea or eating hot rolls and butter, or dancing or indulging in less harmless amusements, at the various spas that successively rose and fell in popularity—the White Conduit Gardens, Miles's Musick House, Sadler's Wells, and Bagnigge Wells. Many curious anecdotes and some interesting cuts recall the free fashions of the time. The stream then comes into the neighborhood of prisons, and we have descriptions and the history of the Cold Bath Fields Prison, Ludgate, and Bridewell; by the way one sees the chapel of Lady Huntingdon, the Bear Gardens and sword play, with Hockley-in-the-Hole, the thieves of Field Lane, Ely Place with its many historical associations, Fleet Market, the Gordon Riots, and the anarchy of Alsatia and Whitefriars. The manners and customs of all these localities, with many cuts, are the more interesting portion of the book.

The latter part is devoted to the Prison and to the so-called Fleet Marriages. The account is mainly of value as an example of the change in prison ways and discipline due to modern days. The freedom of the prisoners among themselves, their occupations, and the system of fees and privileges, the brutality of some of the warders, and especially of the notorious Bambridge; the tricks practised on novices, and the pathetic sufferings of some of the innocent men who were guilty of no fault but the misfortune of debt, are passed in review. It is all something of a medley of vice and coarseness, violence and drunkenness, and low comedy, but it is a lively picture of what sort of a thing life in the Fleet was, and it was in reality brutal enough to make us congratulate ourselves on the change in public morals since that time.

The Fleet Marriages, until put an end to by Lord Hardwicke's Act, were an extraordinary abuse, and some curious prints of the couples arriving in the street and getting out of the coach to get united by the first parson who caught their eyes, are reproduced. The income from these marriages was often very considerable. Walter Wyatt in October, 1748, made, according to his account-book, £57 12s. 9d., which, reckoned in our money, would give him £2,500 a year. Keith, one of the most thriving of these parsons, wrote, in a book of 'Observations on the Act for Preventing Clandestine Marriages,' that he had often asked how long the parties had been acquainted, and the generality answered not more than a week, some only a day or half a day. He celebrated thousands of such marriages. The registers were collected and kept, and may still be examined, but they are not admitted as evidence in law. Mr. Ashton's account is summarized from Mr. Burns's monograph on the subject, which is a curious episode in the history of marriage. There were some instances of two women going through the ceremony with each other, and other curious matter is to be found in these pages.

Altogether the volume, although it does not touch on the literary history of the prison at all, is an entertaining collection of antiquarian material relating to old London. It is, as is well understood, not fresh in any important degree, but a popular compendium of out-of-the-way knowledge.

The Story of Creation: a Plain Account of Evolution. By Edward Clodd. Longmans, Green & Co. 1888. 8vo, xvi, 242 pp., illustrated.

THE reviewer notes, in these days, that popular text-books of evolution appear as plentifully as demolitions of Darwin used to do a few years ago. We would not be so unkind as to suggest that they are written by the same people, though some of them have very familiar earmarks. Perhaps they may be regarded as illustrations of the law that action and reaction are equal and in opposite directions. We referred not long since to the very straightforward and simple little volume by Prof. Heilprin on this subject, and now we are offered a more pretentious contribution to the same department by Mr. Clodd.

This volume is not intended by its author to deal solely with organic evolution, but, as he explains with characteristic turgidity,

"that theory deals only . . . with the origin of the myriad species of plants and animals; and the prominence given to it in virtue of its more immediate interest makes us apt to overlook the fact that it is only a small part of an all-embracing cosmic philosophy. For whatever lies within the phenomenal—the seen or felt—and therefore within the sphere of observation, experiment, and comparison, whether galaxy which only the telescope makes known, or monad whose existence only the microscope reveals, is subject matter of inquiry, both as to its becoming and as to its relation to the totality of things. It is this more general conspectus of evolution as a working hypothesis which, if it does not explain every fact, is inconsistent with none, that the following pages are designed to give in clear, and, as far as possible, simple words.

"Before attempting this, it is desirable to outline the phenomena which that theory explains; and the first part of this book will therefore describe such matters as the stuff of which all things are made, its combinations, affinities, and distribution; the relation, likeness, and unlikeness between the stellar and solar systems and between the earth and its fellow planets; the varied forms and conditions of past and present life, and the relation between these and the inorganic or non-living—in brief, whatever makes up the visible universe" (p. 3).

To carry out this programme in less than 250 pages, with quotations from Milton, Matthew Arnold, etc., interspersed freely, and lavishly illustrated, is indeed, as Artemus Ward would have put it, to take a large contract.

Mr. Clodd is a friend and admirer of Grant Allen, to whom this book is dedicated. Its faults are the faults of Grant Allen exaggerated, while, alas! the clear and attractive literary style, the simple yet precise mode of statement, and the flavor of wood and hedgerow, which are among Grant Allen's virtues, may be sought in vain in the pages of Mr. Clodd. We believe that the latter, while evidently a tyro in physics and an amateur in biology, has done his best to represent the cosmos in accordance with the present state of knowledge. He has compiled from excellent authorities, and much of his material is reliable and authentic. This has not prevented him, however, from referring to a fossil crawfish as an encrinite (Table, fig. 4), and classifying the tunicates among the mollusks. His is what Teufelsdröckh would term a "scissors-intelligence."

"In the kingdom of the blind the one-eyed is king," and it is possible that the very ignorant may receive some knowledge from such books as this; that the progress of true science may be less impeded by such publications, when intended to be friendly, than if the same want of power and obscurity of diction were exerted in an antagonistic spirit. In either case the slop-work is not to be commended. The get-up of the book is neat, the illustrations, though not always new, are of good quality, and the publishers have done their part well.

Ueber Lesen und Bildung. Von Anton E. Schönbach. Gratz: Leuschner und Lubensky. 1888.

THIS handsome little volume has interested us in two ways: in the first place, it is the work of a thoughtful man and a good writer upon the always engaging subject of "Culture and Reading"; secondly, it is the work of a German who, in confessing his intellectual obligations in his preface, mentions only English and American authors. "It will be noticed," says Schönbach, "how strongly Ralph Waldo Emerson has influenced my entire conception of the matters treated. I should regard it as the best result of my labors if they contribute somewhat towards making the writings of Emerson better known among us." The English writers to whom acknowledgments are made are Sir Arthur Helps, John Morley, Ruskin, and Frederick Harrison. From this list it will be noticed that the name of Matthew Arnold is conspicuously absent; nor is any mention made of what we should regard as the two most helpful books ever written upon the general subject of culture, namely, Hamerton's 'Intellectual Life' and 'Human Intercourse.' It is, however, only just to our author to remark that both Hamerton and Arnold are referred to in the body of the volume.

Naturally, the first difficulty that confronts the writer upon culture is to determine what culture is. Beginning with Seneca and the younger Pliny, Schönbach endeavors to characterize the intellectual ideals of Greek and Roman antiquity, of the Middle Ages, the Renaissance, and the modern period. Present social conditions are considered at some length, and thus the question is reached: How is culture attainable for the modern man? The various aids are discussed, and their relative efficiency appreciated. First, there is the school. The school, regarded as an institute of culture, is more and more missing its aim (it is to be remembered that the German gymnasia are more particularly referred to). The scholar suffers from over-feeding and from drill. Specialists cram their pupils with "Kenntnisse," but "Kenntnisse sind eben nicht Bildung; Bildung macht reif und frei, Kenntnisse nicht." As to the universities, they no longer pretend to subserve the ends of culture. Even the philosophical faculty has come to represent nothing but a vast collection of bread-and-butter specialties. Next in order, the efficacy of social intercourse is considered, and the unfortunate circumstance dwelt upon that one must be already a person of culture before his fellow-beings will give him the best they have in the way of conversation. Then attention is directed to travel, the theatre, the newspaper, none of which are ranked very high by the author as promoters of culture. Thus we are brought to the agency of books, and the bulk of the volume is taken up with reflections upon reading.

In these reflections we find a variety of topics touched upon in an interesting and suggestive manner. As will have been already inferred, Herr Schönbach is of those who "care for abroad." He is much occupied with international comparisons respecting the condition of letters and of literary taste. "Americanization" does not seem to be for him the bugbear it is for certain German patriots. He speaks almost enviously of our public libraries, in connection with those of England and Scandinavia, and comments upon the Chautauqua enterprise as evidence that the American appetite for culture is keener and more universal than the German. On the other hand, he thinks it a grave question whether culture is compatible with triumphant democracy, and looks with solicitude upon a country where "the coachman, or the mason, or the street-sweeper calls out, 'I am as good as you' to the gentleman that employs him, when the two meet *in their Sunday clothes* at the ballot-box." Considerable space is devoted to counsel—and good counsel it is, too—with regard to reading. Of this part of the book the best portion is a discussion of Emerson's three rules, to read no book that is not a year old, no book that is not famous, and no book that does not please.

The Fall of New France. 1755–1760. By Gerald E. Hart, President of the Society for Historical Studies. Montreal: Drysdale; New York: Putnams.

THIS book consists of a paper read before the Society for Historical Studies of Montreal. It is an abridgment of the story of the "Old French War," adding no new facts, and perverting many old ones. It is not the work of a trained hand; the style is crude, and slips in grammar abound. The writer has taken pains to consult such published authorities as were within his reach, but want of close attention and a total absence of critical judgment have led him into numberless errors. He says that no ship is known to have sailed through the Straits of Belleisle before 1755, forgetting the familiar case of Jacques Cartier in 1534 and 1535, to say nothing of later instances. He speaks of Sir William Johnson as living in 1755 on the Mohawk in the "western part of New York State," and says that he went to Fort William Henry before that fort was built. In the same year, 1755, he says that the "New England colonies" had a population of 1,200,000, thinking, perhaps, that the name of New England covered all the British colonies. He cites Captain John Knox as saying that 9,580 Frenchmen were opposed to Wolfe at the battle of Quebec. Turning to the place referred to, we find that the number given by Knox is 7,520. But of such examples there is no end.

Of his use of language a few instances may be given: "Libertinous," meaning libertine, or, perhaps, libidinous. "The storming of Quebec," meaning the bombardment—Quebec was not stormed. "A precipitous rush from the grenadiers," and again, "a precipitous attack," meaning precipitate. "The reflex of the Court upon the people occasioned an apathy for national glory." "His first selection could not have been more sapient," meaning wiser. "His [Vaudreuil's] fame, sociability, and popular administration had preceded him." In the following, Mr. Hart appears as a military critic: "He [Washington] should have held his ground with probably ultimately a result of a complete rout to his attackers" (p. 16).

Here is a specimen of both matter and manner: "From the 6th of July in the morning until the 9th, Abercromby invested this fort [Ticonderoga], but, strange to say, his shot fell short of its mark, his attacks futile, and notwithstanding his numerical superiority, he was defeated in several engagements his brave opponents met him with" (p. 87). (1) Abercromby never invested the fort or even attacked it; he merely assaulted a breastwork half a mile from it. (2.) His shot did not fall short, for he attacked solely with musketry at close range. (3.) He was not defeated in several engagements, but in one. (4.) He was forced to retreat not on the 9th, but on the 8th. Here are four blunders in five printed lines, and this concerning one of the chief events of the story. They would all have been avoided if Mr. Hart had read with the slightest attention any one of the numerous authentic accounts of the affair, or even if he had consulted a good school history. The object of the Society for Historical Studies deserves all praise, but it will do well, for its own sake, to restrain the literary activity of its President.

The illustrations of the book go far towards redeeming the deplorable shortcomings of the text. They are chiefly facsimiles of old engravings, all of them interesting and several very rare. They are excellently reproduced by the "artotype" process. There is also a facsimile of a letter of Wolfe, and a photographic print, exceedingly well done, of the original portrait of Montcalm.

Under the Southern Cross; or, Travels in Australia, Tasmania, New Zealand, Samoa, and Other Pacific Islands. By Maturin M. Ballou. Boston: Ticknor & Co. 1888. 12mo, pp. xi, 405.

MR. BALLOU'S previous books of travel have prepared us for the present one. The same enjoyment in travel, the same rambling looseness of style, the same vivacity and variety of observation, and the same carelessness of statement are noticeable through this book, which is full of attractive description; but there is a certain temerity in the enjoyment of what Mr. Ballou writes, because he is so often untrustworthy in statement. To mention some of the errors in the few pages devoted to the Hawaiian Islands:

the latest eruption from Mauna Loa is given as occurring in 1868, but important eruptions occurred in the years 1873, 1881, and 1887. The diameter of Kilauea is put at eight miles instead of three, and its elevation at 6,000 instead of 4,040 feet. The heir apparent to the throne is not the King's brother, but Lydia Paki Dominis; nor can Queen Emma any longer be "almost daily seen driving out in a pony carriage," her death having occurred in April, 1885. As to cannibalism, Mr. Ballou is all wrong; within fifty or sixty years, he says, "the natives made war upon one another principally for the purpose of securing prisoners whom they roasted and devoured." The last inter-island warfare was in the year 1795, when the first Kamehameha completed his conquest of the group, and cannibalism was never a national habit of the Hawaiians, either in war or peace, though fallen enemies were sometimes devoured; and the great "rock platter" in a valley near Honolulu is still shown as the place where the roasts, known as "long pig," were carved for distribution. But there is no record or tradition of systematic cannibalism in Hawaii.

The larger part of the volume is devoted to Australia, Tasmania, and New Zealand. It is equally readable and equally inaccurate. We open the book at chance, and we find that New Zealand is as far from Australia as Africa from South America. The great circle distances are about 1,250 and 1,850 miles respectively.

Errors aside, Mr. Ballou has made a readable book. Among other curious facts he states that the railways in the different colonies of Australia are of three different gauges, and that they were so constructed, to the embarrassment of travel and traffic, as a result of intercolonial jealousies.

Architectural Drawing. By R. Phene Spiers, F.S.A., Architect, Fellow of the Royal Institute of British Architects, etc. Preface to the American Edition by William R. Ware, Professor of Architecture in the School of Mines, Columbia College. Cassell & Co.

AMERICAN architects who keep the run of what is done in their profession, will not need a guaranty for the quality of anything that Mr. Spiers publishes touching architectural education; and to students, for whom this book is specially intended, Prof. Ware's cordial introduction is enough. The book is comprehensive, catholic, clear, and orderly. It covers the whole field of architectural draughtsmanship, from office tracing and the preparation of working drawings to sketching in the field and rendering perspectives for competitions. Mr. Spiers's experience as practising architect and instructor enables him, without encumbering his treatise with detail, to give at all points what is communicable and helpful in the way of method. The student will be stimulated by what is rare in books of this kind, a constant and enlightened regard for the artistic side of draughtsmanship. He may learn many good lessons outside the routine of teaching—as, for instance, when he is warned against mere tricks of handling, or is told, on the other hand, that a drawing rendered in thick lines looks richer than the building it represents, while one in very thin lines may mislead the architect himself to meagreness, and tempt him to excess of detail.

The illustrations are of real value, being reproductions of drawings by architects who are exemplary—Messrs F. P. Cockerell, Street, Norman Shaw, Waterhouse, Pearson, Ernest George, Mr. Spiers himself, and others. As we might expect from an architect of French training, the author does justice to brush work, and does not give undue prominence to pen-and-ink drawing, which facility of reproduction has overexalted nowadays, so that many draughtsmen, to their own injury, do nothing else. We must complain, by the way, for it has some currency, of his use of the word "etch" for the working up of a pen-drawing, which is an injury to its lawful signification, applied to a plate bitten by acid. The drawings represented are of all kinds, in pencil, ink-line, ink-wash, sepia, and tinting in colors. Mr. Cockerell's are most instructive examples of beauty, simplicity, and variety of method; Mr. Norman Shaw's hardly does justice to the freedom and picturesqueness of his pen-work. Mr. Bidlake's drawing of a porch of Lincoln Cathedral is a model of sureness of hand, tempered by picturesque feeling. The lithographs come as near the originals as the process allows; though gray ink is hardly a fair representative of pencil-drawing, whose accent it misses, and the sepia drawing of Mr. George is harsher in effect than any work we have seen from his hand. But the student will still find them better than any copies he can make of them.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bond-Walpole. Selections from Arrian. Macmillan & Co. 40 cents.
Brunn, H. Denkmäler griechischer und römischer Sculptur. Part I. London: Asher & Co.
Capes, W. W. History of the Achæan League as contained in the remains of Polybius. Macmillan & Co. $1.60.
Carles, W. R. Life in Corea. Macmillan & Co. $4.
Child, Prof. F. J. English and Scottish Popular Ballads. Part V. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $5.
Marcou, J. Nouvelles Recherches sur l'Origine du Nom d'Amérique. Paris.
Metropolitan Church and Choir Directory of New York and Brooklyn. New York: M. C. & C. D. Pub. Co., 21 E. 14th St.
Page, T. E. P. Vergili Maronis Aeneidos Lib. VI. Macmillan & Co. 40 cents.
Parr, Louise. Loyalty George. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Phillimore, W. P. W. How to Write the History of a Family: Guide for the Genealogist. Boston: Cupples & Hurd. $2.
Praed, W. M. Essays. George Routledge & Sons. 40 cents.
Proctor, R. A. Old and New Astronomy. Part I. Longmans, Green & Co.
Radcliffe, Dr. C. B. Behind the Tides. Macmillan & Co.
Renan, E. History of the People of Israel till the Time of King David. Boston: Roberts Bros. $2.50.
Roosevelt, T. Gouverneur Morris. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Ryder, Annie H. Margaret Regis, and Some Other Girls. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.25.
Scheler, Auguste. Dictionnaire d'étymologie française. 3e édition, revue et augmentée. Bruxelles; Muquardt; Boston: Schoenhof.
Sergeant, L. The Government Year Book: Great Britain, her Colonies, and Foreign Countries. White & Allen. $2.25.
Soliée, F. Nos gens de lettres. Paris: Calmann Lévy; Boston: Schoenhof.
Spenser, Mary C. Brinka: an American Countess. New York: Spenser Publishing Co.
Stephen, L. Dictionary of National Biography. Vol. XII., Conder—Craigie. XIII., Craik—Damer. XIV., Damon—D'Eyncourt. Macmillan & Co. $3.75 each.
Stevens, B. F. The Campaign in Virginia, 1781: an Exact Reprint of six rare Pamphlets on the Clinton–Cornwallis Controversy, etc. 2 vols. London: B. F. Stevens. $10.
Stokes, Margaret. Early Christian Art in Ireland. E. & J. B. Young & Co. $1.50.
The Tariff on Imports into the United States, etc. Indexed. Belford, Clarke & Co.
Thomas Carlyle's Counsels to a Literary Aspirant. London: Simpkin, Marshall & Co. 40 cents.
Thompson, D. G. The Religious Sentiments of the Human Mind. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.50.
Tolstoi, Count L. N. What Men Live By. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 30 cents.
Zeller, Z. Les Etats de la Ligue (1593–1594). Paris: Hachette; Boston: Schoenhof.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 19, 1888.

The Week.

THE resolution to postpone the Direct-Tax Refunding Bill till next December, adopted unanimously by the Democratic caucus of the House, is a triumph for the opponents of the measure. The bill is not likely to gain friends during the interval, and if it be true that one of the main purposes of it was to reduce the inflammation in the public finances without removing the cause—*i. e.*, to empty the Treasury without cutting down the taxes—that bad motive will no longer operate to defeat or retard action on the Tax and Tariff Reduction Bill. There is reason to believe that the greatest impelling force behind the Direct-Tax Bill was the claim agents' lobby, among whom some hundreds of thousands of dollars would have been distributed if the bill had passed. The postponement of it is an apparent victory for filibustering as a method of carrying on government, but it is evident now that the filibusters have surrendered more than their opponents, because they have agreed that a vote shall be taken on the 11th of December. All that they have secured is delay. If after the lapse of eight months, and after the thorough discussion the measure will receive, a majority of the House still desire to pass the bill, it will be passed without factious opposition. Government by the majority, therefore, has not received any serious detriment. We regard the bill itself as one of the most indefensible and demoralizing that have ever been introduced, since it carries the seeds of the vicious principle that taxes may be imposed by the National Government for distribution among the States. Nothing more demoralizing or unsettling can be imagined than a system of taxation which at once relaxes the watch and guard of the taxpayers on their local governments, and furnishes new sources of supply to the tax-eaters.

The passage of Mr. Beriah Wilkins's resolution, declaring that in the judgment of the House of Representatives the Secretary of the Treasury has authority under existing law to apply his surplus funds to the purchase and cancellation of United States bonds, is a happy deliverance from a painful situation. The Senate having already passed a similar resolution, all doubts are removed. The Beck amendment providing for the coinage of more silver is left dangling in the air. Entire liberty of action is now in the Secretary's hands, and the onus is likewise upon him to employ his discretion under the law. Of course his ability to purchase bonds hinges on the willingness of the holders to sell. Yet the bond market has undergone considerable change since he stopped buying for the sinking fund last year, there being now forty or fifty millions of bonds in his hands as security for Treasury funds deposited with the banks, the sale of which he can force by calling in the deposits. Altogether, the financial situation is much relieved by the fortunate action of the House, but the relief is only temporary. It cannot be regarded as a substitute for a reduction of taxation and a stoppage of the inflow of money. The purchase of bonds at any fair price has its limits, and we must remember that many months must elapse before any tax-reduction bill can become effective, and that the surplus at the beginning of the present month was upwards of $104,000,000.

The "great divide," as the River and Harbor Appropriation Bill has long been called, came before the House on Monday. It calls for nearly twenty millions of dollars, and yet its promoters sought to put it through without debate under a suspension of the rules. They easily secured a majority, but happily failed by many votes of the necessary two-thirds, and the measure will now have to take its chances later in the session, after the Tariff Bill is disposed of. The worst feature of this matter is, that we seem to make no progress towards a satisfactory basis of operations as time passes. President Arthur's veto in 1882 of a bill appropriating nearly $19,000,000 called a temporary halt, but its influence is no longer felt, and apparently nothing short of another veto will check the wild extravagance of the logrollers.

The claim agents and demagogues at Washington have been chuckling over the theory that Mr. Cleveland would not dare to veto any of their pension schemes this year, in view of his probable candidacy for reëlection. The three vetoes of private pension bills sent in on Monday will open their eyes. Such a notification that Congressional measures will still be subjected to Executive scrutiny is as necessary as it is welcome.

The appointment by the President of Mr. Lovering as United States Marshal for Massachusetts is a victory for the spoilsmen of the Democratic party, which is the more notable because it is achieved in the State where Mr. Cleveland has in the past done most for the cause of civil-service reform. The term of the incumbent, Gen. Banks, expired some weeks ago, and ever since then a vigorous contest has been going on as to the succession. Gen. Banks had been so careless in his management of the office that he did not deserve reappointment, and the only question was as to what sort of a Democrat should be selected. An excellent representative of the progressive element was brought forward, and, on the other hand, Mr. Lovering, who has always been an open opponent of civil-service reform, and was nominated for Governor last fall at the instance of the odious Democratic ring in Boston because he was an unblushing spoilsman. The President hesitated long, but finally surrendered to the men who have been his bitterest enemies in everything that has been best in his career at Washington.

Mr. Lowell's address at Steinway Hall on Friday night, before one of the most intelligent and attentive audiences we have ever seen in New York, was a rare and impressive occasion. It has come to pass—why or wherefore we cannot stop to discuss here—that we have not just now a single man in public life who ever makes a speech on what we may call the philosophy of politics, as distinguished from practical questions of legislation, or whose utterances, if reported, are read with any care or interest by anybody, or remembered for one hour after they are read. In this respect the descent from the days of Clay, and Calhoun, and Webster, and Wright, and Everett, and Seward, and Sumner is tremendous. Mr. Lowell is, in truth, to-day almost the only American whose talk about politics, using the term in its best sense, is eagerly looked for, all over the English-speaking world, and put away in men's libraries beside the great masterpieces of thought and expression. The address to the Reform Club on Friday was worthy of him when at his best. It would have been difficult for any master of English this century has seen to have crowded into one hour and ten minutes so much apt historical reminiscence, so much shrewd observation, and so much acute analysis of the phenomena, both bad and good, of national life. What was better than all was, that there ran through every sentence a vein of that high morality and courageous hopefulness, and of that supreme confidence that, in the long run, the better cause will have the upper hand, which, to men who are worth much either to home or country, always sounds like a trumpet blast. Every one who listened to him, and, above all, those who have to deal with the unspeakable meannesses and trivialities of factional politics, must have been grateful for being raised even for one brief hour into the pure air and clear light which surround the things that ought to be.

Biddeford is a Maine manufacturing town whose foreign-born population, chiefly Irish and French Canadians, numbered more than a third of the whole number at the last census. A new city government was recently chosen, and the distribution of the "patronage" followed. As always happens in such cases, there was great dissatisfaction, but one peculiar element entered into the case, which was stated with the utmost frankness by an Alderman at a meeting of the City Council. "Fifteen thousand dollars," he said, "will be paid in salaries by the city this year, and how is that sum divided? The Irish get $725, the French $625, a total of $1,350 which the Catholics are paid, to $13,650 which the Protestants receive." He "arraigned" the Mayor for not exerting more of his influence to secure offices for his Catholic supporters, and complained that at

a final caucus he (the Alderman) had been ignored and "Americans got $325 in salaried offices, the French Canadians $110, and the Irish got left." All this seems very absurd, of course; yet what is it but the carrying out to its logical conclusion of what Mr. Lowell calls "the geographical allotment of patronage, as if ability were dependent, like wheat, upon the soil"? When Congress enacts that appointments to the Federal service shall be allotted among the States according to their respective populations, it is not strange that Biddeford Aldermen should insist upon dividing municipal offices according to race and church lines.

The operation of the Soldiers' Exemption Act in Massachusetts—the act which exempts veterans from competitive examination for appointments in the civil service—has been to reduce the number of veterans actually appointed about 75 per cent. The *Civil-Service Record* shows that under the law as it stood before the exemption was passed, forty-nine veterans were appointed to desirable positions during the preceding year. They then had, as they have always had, a preference among candidates who passed an equally good examination. During the six months since they were exempted from competitive examination only sixteen have received appointments, and all but four of these have been in the prison service, "where, owing to the small pay and the necessity of residence in the institution, it was impossible to get enough competitors to make an eligible list." The reason for this change in the fortunes of the veterans as applicants for appointments is, that the soldiers generally believe that the Civil-Service Law is broken down, and that appointments are to be secured now only by "influence." Consequently, fewer veterans apply for examination than formerly. Hence it comes to pass that only one soldier gets a position, and that a very undesirable one, where three or four were successful under the old law. Of course this was the result that the spoilsmen aimed at in the beginning. They wanted to whittle the law away by piecemeal, and to spread abroad the idea that the merit system was no longer in force. It was never any part of their plan to put soldiers in office.

The most significant feature of the Oregon Republican State Convention last week, like that of the Arkansas Convention the day before, was the character of the man who was put to the front as the representative of the party. In Arkansas it was the notorious carpet-bagger, "Pow" Clayton; in Oregon, it was George H. Williams, whose reputation as Grant's Attorney-General was so bad that the Senate would not confirm him as Chief Justice. As fourteen years have passed since that time, it is worth while to refresh the public memory by recalling the meeting of the Bar Association of this city, January 6, 1874, which resolved that it is the "deliberate conviction" of the Association that "the nomination by the Executive of George H. Williams to be the Chief Justice of the Supreme Court of the United States disappoints the just expectations of the legal profession, and does not deserve the approval of the people, for the reason that the candidate proposed is wanting in those qualifications of intellect, experience, and reputation which are indispensable to uphold the dignity of the highest national court, and to maintain general respect for the law in the person of the officer who presides over its administration."

The Iowa Legislature adjourned last week, and, as so often happens under such circumstances, the papers say that "the State feels greatly relieved." The feeling is more profound than usual, however, because the Iowa Legislature was an unusually dangerous body. The House of Representatives particularly was controlled by demagogues, who succeeded in rushing through it the most fantastic measures regarding the management of railroads. Fortunately the Senate proved what the national Senate has ceased to be—a check and balance-wheel—and, to quote the words of the leading Republican paper at the capital, "has resisted and defeated more wild and hoodlum legislation than ever had been proposed in any American State before." But the Senate was not able to defeat all the measures that ought to have been beaten. One of the worst that got through was a law making the Railroad Commissioners elective instead of appointive, and thus leaving the constitution of this most important body to be settled by the intrigues and trades of a political convention. A bill was passed prohibiting discriminations in freight charges, and requiring railroad companies to post schedules of their rates, which must not exceed a maximum fixed by the Commission. This is a measure of great importance, the working of which will depend largely upon the character of the men chosen as Railroad Commissioners.

Mr. Simon Sterne, in the last number of the *Financial Chronicle* of this city, advocates the plan propounded in the *Nation* as long ago as 1883 for placing legal restrictions on the striking power of certain classes of quasi-public employees, apropos of the telegraphers' strike then pending. We then said (July 19, 1883), after pointing out the important part played by the telegraph in the life of modern nations, and the immense loss caused by its sudden stoppage:

"Now, the question whether any body of men ought to be allowed for any purpose to inflict this loss and inconvenience on the public, is one of which the growing complexity of modern society will soon compel a peremptory settlement. A few years ago there was a strike of engine-drivers on one of the Massachusetts railroads, and they actually undertook to carry it out by abandoning trains filled with passengers in the open country, remote from a station. A repetition of this device was promptly prevented by penal legislation, so that every locomotive engineer in Massachusetts now holds his place with the understanding that if he abandons his engine on the road for any reason, he goes to jail. A similar theory of the relation of other railroad employees to the public led to the railroad strikes in 1877 and the horrible resulting riots, with enormous loss to the country. If anything of the kind were attempted again, assuredly some stringent measures for its prevention would be resorted to. The truth is that a society like ours, and like all commercial nations, has become so dependent on the post-office, the railroads, and the telegraph, that they may be said to stand to it in the relation of the nerves to the human body. The loss even for a week of any one of them means partial paralysis. The loss of all three would mean a total deprivation, for a longer or shorter period, of nearly everything which the community most values. It would mean a suspension of business and social relations equal to that caused by a hostile invasion, barring the terror and bloodshed. It is consequently something to which no country will long allow itself to remain exposed. It cannot allow strikes of employees in these great public services, any more than it can allow the corporations themselves to refuse to carry on their business as a means of extracting what they think fair rates of transportation. No Legislature would permit this, and one or two more experiences like the railroad strike will cause every Legislature to take measures against the other. Telegraphers, railroad men, post-office clerks, and policemen fill places in modern society very like that of soldiers. In fact, they together do for society what soldiers used to do. They enable every man to come and go freely on his lawful occasions, and transact his lawful business without let or hindrance."

Everything which has since happened in the matter of railroad strikes gives ample confirmation to this view. It is becoming plainer and plainer to every rational observer that the transportation service of the country cannot be carried on under the present mode of running railroads. There is, in fact, to anybody who knows anything of human nature and human affairs, something positively ludicrous in the present attempt to manage great armies of employees on extensive lines of traffic under the inspection of Powderlys and Arthurs. We recognize its absurdity in the case of the army and navy. If it were proposed that every military post or man-of-war should have a "General Worthy Foreman" to give advice to the soldiers or sailors when to refuse to do duty, and what conditions to make before obeying orders, the whole civilized world would indulge in a shout of laughter. It is not, however, necessary to go to the army or navy for an illustration of the absurdity of our present system. The merchant service suffices for the purpose. Sailors are not compelled to ship in any crew, but when they do, and sign articles, they have to do their duty to the end of the voyage. They are not allowed to strike. If they attempt to strike, it is called mutiny, and treated as a criminal offence which sends them to jail. In order to see the reasonableness of all this, one has only to suppose the engineers and firemen of an Atlantic steamer to announce to the captain, when two days out from New York, that they were "tired," and would work no more, or would only work long enough to carry the ship into Halifax; or the cook to announce that he would do no more cooking unless the steward or waiters were dismissed on the spot; or the sailors to say that, owing to the discovery of goods of a boycotted firm in the hold, they would neither reef, steer, nor look out during the remainder of the voyage. The immemorial law and custom of the sea will undoubtedly some day have to be applied to the work of transportation on land. Engineers and firemen and switchmen will have to enlist or sign articles agreeing to do certain duty, and obey

lawful orders for a certain period, under pains and penalties.

Mr. Chauncey Depew is reported in the Philadelphia *Press* as having stated that he "knew, of his own personal knowledge, where several Blaine Irish clubs disbanded in consequence of Mr. Burchard's alliterative remark, and went over to Cleveland." This is very interesting, if true, because it is the first time that any one has come forward in these three years, in spite of repeated challenges, to say either that he himself changed his vote in consequence of Burchard's remark, or knew of any one else who had done so. The nearest we have ever come to the fact, if fact it be, has been in hearing from some one that he knew some one else who "probably" or "doubtless" knew of somebody whom Burchard had driven away from Blaine. But here is Mr. Depew, who says that he knows, "of his own personal knowledge," not only of individuals, but "several clubs," who deserted Blaine in a body because they did not like what Burchard said. We trust Mr. Depew will, in the interest of historical truth, give us the names and locality of some of these clubs, so that the matter can be inquired into. We would not question his reports if we did not know, from his unfortunate experience about the Dutch tariff, that he is a trifle credulous in political matters. He allowed some unscrupulous Dutch "business man" to stuff him with a story last summer about ruinous changes in the Dutch tariff, or, as he called it, the passage of a "free-trade law," and not only never took the trouble to verify it, but repeated it to a reporter nine months later, as having some bearing on our present tariff controversy. We trust some impecunious "Irish club" has not been imposing on him in this case from sordid motives.

That the negroes are making substantial material progress is proved by the report of the Comptroller-General of Georgia, which shows that the amount of property upon which they paid taxes rose from five millions in 1879 to nine millions in 1887. This is an average increase of ten per cent. a year, whereas the property of the white people increased only five per cent. a year during the same period. It is noteworthy that the growing prosperity of the negroes in the South dates from the time when they ceased to depend upon the Government, and learned that the black man, like the white, has his own way to make in the world. One of the most hopeful signs for the race is the evidence that they have mastered this lesson which is found in the adoption, by a recent negro convention at Macon, Ga., of a common-sense resolution declaring that "this Convention regard the acquisition of a good English education, the accumulation of property, and the making and saving of money, the thing to do."

The way in which the Commissioners of Charities and Correction have removed "Fatty" Walsh from the Wardenship of the Tombs is almost as discreditable as his appointment. They have got rid of him by a preamble and resolution which might be used by the Professor of Logic of the College of the City of New York as an example of mixed fallacy and absurdity. Their argument is that inasmuch as Mr. Rhodes, the lawyer, now makes no charge against "Fatty" of an attempt to extort illegal fees, and as the illegal fees which Fatty did extort did not go into his own pocket, *therefore* the Board denies that bad language used by "Fatty" to Mr. Rhodes is a good cause of removal, and accepts his resignation. The meaning of this is, as far as we can make any meaning out of it, that the Board does not mind having the warden of a jail extort money from prisoners and lawyers as long as it cannot be traced directly to his own pocket, as if any "Fatty" of experience ever allowed unlawful gains to be traced directly to his own pocket; but it cannot abide "improper language used in the course of official business." This is irresistibly funny, in view of the fact that these very gentlemen, who are so particular about the speech of their subordinates, put in one of the most important places in their gift an old liquor-dealer, gambler, and pugilist and street rough, to whom the use of foul, profane, and abusive language is probably the most fixed habit of his life. The selection of a "Fatty" for a place requiring chaste and refined expression is about as droll as the selection of a brothel-keeper for the matronship of a reformatory would be. Our advice to the Commissioners is: "When you do these disgraceful things, do them boldly and frankly. If you think a 'Fatty' is fit to govern the jail of a Christian community, do not, after you have put him there, pretend to be disappointed or surprised by his bad behavior. Say frankly that this is just what you expected, and that you do not care five cents what anybody thinks about it."

The Anti-Poverty Society has retired from the Academy of Music, and will hold its meetings henceforth in Cooper Union. The reason given for the change is the necessity of finding a lower rental, the receipts being much less than heretofore, and the work of driving poverty from the face of the earth going on with correspondingly slackened pace. We doubt if the change will prove beneficial to the work. So long as the crusade against poverty was carried on in the Academy, it had an air of "style" about it which was a great incentive to contributions. The "ladies of the Society" were able to sit in boxes and listen to the attacks upon the Catholic Church which Dr. McGlynn made, and they were willing to pay as much for their seats as for the abuse which he poured forth so fluently; but now all the brilliancy has gone out of the meetings. There will be no boxes to sit in, and the musty flavor of McGlynn's harangues will not be lessened by being taken down in a cellar for weekly delivery. It really looks as if poverty would not be abolished this year after all.

The love of seeing other people fight valiantly for noble causes, which pervades the writing of a certain class of literary men with a taste for political philosophy, has been amusingly illustrated in the case of Kingsley, Froude, Carlyle, and Goldwin Smith, who are all fond of "making short work" of obnoxious people at home, and inflicting terrible slaughter on foreign enemies. Froude's delight over Rodney's victory in the West Indies, as compensation for the recent loss of a great empire through gross misgovernment, furnishes one of the most diverting passages in his book on the West Indies. It ought to be read in connection with the comments of Franklin on the same event, in order to see the difference between a real statesman and man of affairs, and a babbling rhetorician who gets his military experiences over a quire of paper and a bottle of ink. This *furor bellicosus* seems in these latter days, as we have more than once pointed out, to have reached some of the scientific men, of whom poor Prof. Tyndall is a fair sample. The thunders against Gladstone which the Professor discharged from the Alps all summer were among the most diverting incidents of the Irish trouble, particularly when he denounced Gladstone for his attacks on the Orangemen, among whom he (the Professor) had "first learned to read his Bible." Now, however, he has apparently reached the conclusion that persuasion is wasted on this wicked old man, and he brings to his notice, by way of warning, the saying of the other sage, Thomas Carlyle, that "A minister who is wicked enough to propose to sever Ireland from England, deserves to have his head brought to the block."

The new tariff on wheat in Germany is equal to $1.19 per 220 pounds, or 30 per cent. ad valorem. The object of it is to exclude American wheat from South Germany, and to compel Bavaria, Baden, and the Rhine country to buy Prussian wheat exclusively. But it is much cheaper to supply the South German people with American wheat from London. Moreover, the South Germans are accustomed to American wheat; they even like it better than Prussian wheat. On the other hand, Prussian wheat is very conveniently situated for the English market, and very inconveniently for the South German market. Accordingly, a bill has been introduced in the Reichstag to enable North German merchants to export wheat to England, and to import an equivalent amount of American wheat to South Germany free of duty. In order to make the swap easy and frictionless, it is proposed that the exporter of North German wheat shall have the right to sell his permits of importation just as he would sell a bill of exchange. The drollery of all this circumlocution, by which the consumer is sacrificed to the producer, has not penetrated the German mind to any great extent, but there is much suffering in South Germany in consequence of the deprivation of American supplies of food. Why do not some of our high-tariff men, who are such fast friends of the American farmer, propose a measure of retaliation?

WOOL AND MUTTON.

Mr. William Lawrence of Ohio, a great authority among wool-growers, has written a letter to the Boston *Commercial Bulletin* to show that what this country wants in order to achieve great prosperity is the very highest tariff on wool that anybody can imagine. Even the tariff of 1867 was not high enough for him. He allows this, indeed, to have been a great and glorious tariff, and even announces the very startling discovery that "sheep-growing as a distinct industry did not begin to acquire great importance until after the wool tariff of March 2, 1867." He neglects to add, what has been a thousand times proved by official statistics, that sheep-growing as a branch of general husbandry began from that very year to decline, so that in ten years the sheep on farms devoted in large part to other crops had shrunk to half their former numbers. Reiteration and reference to official documents on this point seem to have no other effect on the victim of the wool-tariff mania than to cause him to reiterate his historic falsehoods with increased confidence and excitement.

But Mr. Lawrence has a grievance against that tariff. He says: "The act of 1867, however, discriminated in favor of the importation of the long wools of the Cotswold and Down sheep, and, in practical effect, admitted them at a less rate of duty than the clothing wools. The duty was less, because, though that act imposed the same rate of duty on unwashed combing and clothing wools, yet it admitted *washed* combing wool at the same rate of duty as *unwashed*, though on washed clothing [merino] wools the duty was double that on unwashed." And he has nothing to say of the terrible tariff of 1883 except that it "continued the same discrimination."

Now we come to Mr. Lawrence's humor. It is of a rare and racy vintage. The arguments are not rare by any means, but the grouping is irresistible, for the simple reason that it is close and honest, and leaves the harmony and inharmony to manifest themselves in their own full and exuberant force. Thus:

> "We now import annually the long combing wools to the amount of about 5,000,000 pounds, mostly produced in England and Ireland. If Congress would insert in the tariff law six words—'on washed combing wool double duty'—the result would be (1) that in five years or less the long-wool sheep would be increased 20,000,000; (2) we would not import one pound of foreign long-combing wool; (3) we would produce in this country all of such wool we need; (4) the price would be 30 per cent. less than it is now; (5) the wool manufacturers would secure cheaper combing wool; (6) those who consume delaines and other goods made of such wools would procure them 30 per cent. cheaper than now; (7) farmers would raise comparatively fewer cattle than now, but they would produce mutton from Cotswold and Southdown sheep which would more than supply their place; (8) they would make more money in raising such sheep than from cattle, because, in addition to the mutton, wool would afford profit; and (9) the cities, the manufacturing districts, the whole people, would have a greater abundance of cheaper, more healthful, and better meat food than now."

From which it appears that by stopping the importation of 5,000,000 pounds per annum of long wool we shall make a market for the fleeces of 20,000,000 long-wooled sheep. That is to say, each average fleece of long wool weighs a quarter of a pound. It would seem that if the staple is really very long, it must be remarkably thin on the sheep's back.

It appears, too, that the farmers who are to own these 20,000,000 long-woolled yet thinly clad sheep are to sell both wool and mutton a great deal cheaper than they now do, and yet make a profit on the investment which all their close economy and hard work in rearing and shearing, and all the mathematical resources gained at the public schools, fail them now to figure out.

There may be some force in the prediction that an increase in the wool tariff would cheapen mutton. Whatever may have been the cause, mutton was never so cheap in this country, compared with other meats, as in the years following the enactment of the wool tariff of 1867. It was in many of the central wool-growing States a drug in the market. In their mad haste to get rid of the sheep which had just been taken under the Government's protection, the farmers sold what they could to the ranchmen, and then turned to the butchers. Those persons who liked it feasted and surfeited on the "wholesome food." But the trouble is that a great many people cannot eat it. Hence the mutton market is limited and more easily glutted than that of other meats.

Within the limit thus fixed, the long-woolled mutton sheep pay the best now, in the Western States, and the wool-growers are turning their attention that way. "Breed for mutton, and let the wool take care of itself," is the maxim laid down by a practical grower of long-woolled sheep, in the *Iowa Homestead* for April 6, and he adds that "Recent low prices have tended to increase its use, and there is reason to believe that mutton may yet rank alongside of beef." He is apparently unconscious of the fact, stated by Mr. Lawrence, that the long-woolled mutton sheep have less "protection" than the merinos—another illustration of the rule that the more protection sheep have, the worse they thrive and the less they pay.

Since 1824 the American people have tried every possible experiment in the way of clothing themselves with wool and feeding themselves with mutton, except the simple one of letting each man pay for his wool and his clothing and his mutton exactly what they are worth, without bonus, bounty, or subsidy to any other man. All the experiments have been unsatisfactory. Even that of 1867, which the wool-growers and manufacturers united in asking, Mr. Lawrence now tells us was a mistake. If all these experiments, running through half a century, have turned out badly, would it not be philosophical to try the other one, and see what the effect would be of putting the production and consumption of wool and mutton on the same basis as that of hides and beef? The ancient Egyptians considered the ox a more sacred animal than the sheep. We have followed the opposite superstition, and have regarded the sheep as the only domestic animal worthy of veneration. Let us put them on an equality for once, and see what the effect will be upon the industry and morals of the community.

LONG AND SHORT HAUL IN ENGLAND.

The contest over the Railway and Canal Traffic Bill in England is, in some respects, not unlike that over the Inter-State Commerce Law in America a year ago. The bill, as framed by the Government, contained a clause substantially like our own short-haul clause in its effects; that is to say, it threw upon the railroad companies the necessity of proving special circumstances and conditions if they wished to maintain their present local discriminations. The representatives of the agricultural interests went further, and wished to make a hard-and-fast prohibition to which there should be no exceptions. They have succeeded in carrying an amendment to that effect in the House of Lords.

The case generally comes up in forms like this. American meat can be shipped either from New York to London by direct steamer, or from New York to Liverpool or Glasgow, and thence by rail to London. But in order to secure any share of this traffic, the railroads have to content themselves with very low rates—no higher, in fact, than the difference between the current steamship rates from American ports to London, and those for which steamships are willing to carry the same article to Liverpool or Glasgow. This leaves the railroad companies a very narrow margin. To secure this foreign business, they are obliged to make rates which would be ruinous if applied to their whole business. The same principles hold good in their trade with France. If French hops can be brought to London by direct steamer, the railroad from Folkestone to London can charge only the *difference* between the steamship rates from France to London and from France to Folkestone. The consequence has been that French hops were charged very much less from Folkestone to London than English hops had to pay from intermediate points.

These are cases where discrimination would not be prohibited by the American law, as interpreted by the Commission. The lower through rate is justified, and, in one sense at least, rendered necessary, by water competition. But there are several reasons why English shippers would not be ready to accept such an interpretation of the law. In the first place, it would make it almost a dead letter; at any rate, it would limit its application much more than it does with us. Two-fifths of the stations in England are affected by water competition, and it is probable that ninety-nine-one-hundredths of the local preferences are more or less directly due to that cause. A statute which could not reach these cases would fail of the object for which it was designed. Secondly, these preferences in favor of markets which can be reached by water are specially obnoxious to the English shippers, because they seem expressly designed to favor the foreign producer. If the Scotch cattle-raiser has to pay twice as much as his American competitor for precisely the same service, he can make a strong appeal for legislative aid on

grounds of national feeling. "Not merely has the home producer no protection," he can say, "but the railroads are allowed to give the foreigner a virtual bounty, by doing the same service for him at lower rates than they will for us." As an appeal to the sentiment of Parliament, this argument has much force; but it is still more important as appealing pretty directly to the pockets of many members of the House of Lords. Depending as they do upon their rents for so much of their income, they cannot be expected to acquiesce in a system of railroad charges which will have the effect of reducing agricultural land values. This is the reason why the House of Lords is disposed to deal with this matter more severely than the House of Commons. The English peer is dependent upon his land values as much as the Iowa farmer, and each hopes that strict railroad regulation may be the means of bettering his condition.

There is one other respect in which the English railroads are less favorably situated than ours for resisting legislation of this kind. The community has less to fear from the indirect results of its own action. In America, if anything interferes with railroad profits, it checks railroad building. The people who have passed the laws, find that they suffer so much from loss of facilities that it more than offsets what they gain by lower rates; and the stringent part of the law is either repealed or allowed to fall into "innocuous desuetude." But the English roads have no such defence. England's railroad system has been virtually complete for many years past. The roads are sure of a considerable amount of paying business, law or no law. If the statute should have the effect of reducing dividends, the stockholders would grumble; but no law is likely to be overthrown by grumbling, even when the grumbler carries his art to that pitch which the English capitalist has attained.

All things considered, it looks as though England would soon have a statute more stringent than our own Inter-State Commerce Act. Whether it will be successfully enforced is another question. A sweeping measure of this kind is apt to leave room for technical exceptions, of which the railroad companies will be sure to take advantage to the very utmost. If such a law is passed, we do not envy the first shippers who try to secure their rights under it.

THE "SPOILS" IN FRANCE.

It is impossible to blame the French voters who have just given Boulanger such a sweeping majority for being very much disgusted with the existing régime. The Chambers have been going steadily from bad to worse. They do nothing but form and reform combinations for the overthrow of successive ministries, in full view of the fact that the quality of the men who consent to take office under them is steadily declining, that all healthy legislation has thus been made impossible, and that it is with the greatest difficulty that the appropriations necessary for the maintenance of the Government and the support of the public credit are secured.

During the last six months, too, they have added a new horror to the situation by introducing the practice of expelling the President of the republic from office before the end of his term, by boycotting him, or, in other words, by refusing to form a Cabinet for him. Of course there was an appearance of excuse for this in the fact that the President's son-in-law had opened a sort of office for jobbing Government patronage and decorations in the Presidential mansion; but the truth was that he simply did on a great scale what the bulk of the Deputies and Senators were doing on a small one, and this brings us to the root of the trouble, which is neither more nor less than "spoils." The French republic is today threatened with a military dictatorship simply because there are not "offices enough to go round," as our phrase is; or, in other words, because the attempt to secure parliamentary majorities by means of executive patronage has been tried and has failed miserably.

If we had tried the same experiment—that is, if the President had been obliged to choose his Cabinet from Congress in the English fashion, and the members of it had been made responsible to Congress, and had been compelled to resign under adverse votes of either house—the breakdown of the system in this country would have been as complete as it has been in France. It is not the superior virtue or capacity of our legislators which has saved us, but the assured independence of the Executive. For the disease which is destroying free government in France is as virulent here in the political class as it is there, but is kept under by the fortunate circumstances of the country. In fact, the love of "spoils" seems to be the disease of modern democracy, the ravages of which are felt everywhere, like the old leprosy of the East, though in some places less than others. Our Executive is constantly urged, and in some degree successfully urged, to do what the French Executive has tried to do, and failed, viz., create majorities for the Government by the distribution of patronage among the members. The pressure on our Executive has not been so great as that on the French Executive, because it is not placed in the power of the Legislature in the same degree as the French Executive; but the pressure exists, is as constant as in France, and exercises fully as corrupting and degrading an influence on the political class.

The best political observers in France have, for fully ten years — that is, ever since the Republicans got fairly into power—foreseen clearly the collapse which we are witnessing to-day. They knew well that the practice of trying to make majorities by distributing offices must, sooner or later, break down through the impossibility of providing enough offices to satisfy all claimants. The crisis has been postponed through a steady increase in the number of Government places, which has now become so great that a recent writer has observed, jestingly, that all France will soon be in the Government service, so that there will be nobody left to provide salaries for the officials. But it had to come, sooner or later, and, as in all political crises in France, the remedy appears not in the shape of an agitation for the reform of the civil service, but in that of a man on horseback with big spurs and a sabre.

The French experience is exactly like our own. When we give an office to one man to satisfy "claims," we disappoint ten others who think their claims are just as good as his. When the supply of offices gives out, the pressure of the unsatisfied claimants continues as strong as ever, and if an increase of places be impossible, "rotation" has to be resorted to—that is, the ins have to be dismissed to give the outs a turn at the public crib. Every one of these changes makes ten men discontented for the one whom it makes happy, and, what is still worse, it not only presents "politics" in the shape of a lottery full of small prizes to tens of thousands of the young, the shiftless, the unfortunate, but it diffuses through the industrious, the sober-minded, and the frugal a profound distrust of and disgust with the machinery of government.

We are more happily situated than the French. We have a better constitution, and we have what is, perhaps, better than the best constitution—strong political traditions, and a deeply rooted habit of government by persuasion. But the "spoils disease" is one which no political constitution can in the long run resist, any more than a physical constitution can in the long run resist incessant dram-drinking. Cocktails tell on some livers and kidneys much earlier than on others, but they tell on all sooner or later. Successful government by spoils is, in the present state of human nature, not possible for an indefinite period by any branch of the human family. Those who are most troubled by the difficulties which our immense accretions of untrained foreigners are introducing into our industrial life would do well to consider what the effect on them of open and undisguised government by bribery—for office-jobbing is simply bribery with the public money—is likely to be when they become fully acquainted with the possibilities which American politics opens up to men to whom politics is business, and who occupy themselves with public affairs as they would with pork-packing or coal mining—for revenue only.

MATTHEW ARNOLD.

Mr. Matthew Arnold's sudden death on Sunday will be a painful surprise to the whole English-speaking world. There was probably no name in current English literature better known to the present generation than his. When he made his first appearance, years ago, he had the advantage of being the son of a father who had been admired and respected as few Englishmen of this century had been, and he very speedily established claims of his own to distinction of a widely different sort. His father was a very orthodox Churchman—so

much so that he found it impossible to receive Unitarian pupils as such at Rugby, and he was haunted all his life long with the dream of a Church establishment which should really and truly include and be the State.

Matthew Arnold speedily cast off these traditions. He made his début in the world of letters as a poet, and it is as a poet if at all that he achieved enduring fame. But he is best known to the world at large as the apostle of pure criticism. Thousands have read his 'Culture and Anarchy' and 'Literature and Dogma' for ten who are familiar with his poems. His attacks on British Philistinism in Church and State were, in fact, the delight of the reading world twenty years ago, both from their audacity and the attractiveness of their style. It was a style with many tricks and catchwords, and considerably clarified by iteration, but it had a charm of its own from which very few at first, before it had become too familiar, could escape. No living author has, in truth, furnished a greater number of "familiar quotations" to the mob of writers and orators. His "sweetness and light," and "stream of tendency," and "something not ourselves that makes for righteousness," and his classifications of Hebrews, and Hellenists, and Philistines, are now so trite that we find it difficult to realize that twenty-five years ago nobody knew anything about them. His plan of literary construction was, in fact, that of the preacher. He was apt to take a text from some author, sacred or profane, as the key-note of his composition, and bring the reader back to it at frequent intervals, or flash it like a lantern every now and then on the dark places of his thesis. The tone of all his essays is essentially a pulpit tone. He preaches salvation, if not from eternal damnation, from vulgarity, from dulness, from gross tastes and gross pleasures, from ignorance, and blindness to the true joys of life.

What brought him most of his popularity as an essayist and social philosopher was undoubtedly his opportuneness. He appeared just as John Stuart Mill, Darwin, Tyndall, and Huxley had taken hold of the young men, and destroyed their interest in the theological discussions which perturbed the previous generation, without furnishing them with anything very solid in the nature of a solution of the moral problem of the universe. To tens of thousands who could not worship science, and had but a poor head for facts of any kind, and yet felt that they must give up their old religious belief, it seemed for a moment as if Arnold had hit on a way of providing something which would take the place of a creed, and cultivate the faculty of reverence, and keep alive the faith in the final triumph of righteousness. Not the least recommendation of his gospel—if gospel it could be called—was that it seemed especially intended for university men, and what may be called the world of culture. In fact, it made the work of grace just a little difficult in anybody whose educational opportunities had been at all limited.

In recent years Mr. Arnold has written a great deal on political questions, but it cannot be said that his excursions in this field were happy or successful. He was wanting in the faculty known as the political sense, the sense of the practicable, without which no man can philosophize on questions of government with any advantage to himself or others. He, therefore, always appeared in an unfavorable light when he came down from the upper air of social and religious speculation in which he usually dwelt, to criticise the politicians and politics of his time. His coming to America, too, as a lecturer was a mistake, and added nothing to his fame. He had no preparation for that sort of work, and was evidently very ignorant of the special needs of the audiences for which he sought, and very ill fitted to encounter the sort of treatment which American newspapers deal out to literary and scientific men who do not please their taste—something which he confesses somewhat pathetically in that last article of his on American civilization which has attracted so much attention in this country. But, even after setting apart his fame as a poet, which will last as long as the English language endures, it must be admitted that he has done some work as a preacher the effects of which are already felt by many who have never read his essays, and will probably continue to be felt long after the essays have ceased to be read. He had no disciples, and probably nobody could be found who ever attempted to live by him or under him; but he did undoubtedly, in many minds, although imperceptibly, exalt the duty of "seeing clear and thinking straight," and help many towards higher pleasures than those of the senses, and foster that interest in "the things of the spirit" which the very triumphs of the modern world tend to abate or extinguish. He was, in short, a man who, however slight the mark he may have left on the outward course of human affairs, has done well for his day and generation, in helping to keep alive the faith of the race in the nobler possibilities of human existence.

THE MUTATIONS OF THE INTERNATIONAL COPYRIGHT BILL.

THERE have been no less than five official prints of the "Chace" Copyright Bill, besides three unofficial texts, the latter being of interest and value in attempting to trace the various changes which have been proposed and accepted. To comprehend rightly these important alterations, it is necessary to know the contents of the original bill, as it was presented to the Senate January 21, 1886. This bill, numbered S. 1178, is four pages in length, notwithstanding that two of its paragraphs (containing but thirty-five words) are virtually sufficient to extend to foreign writers the protection now enjoyed by native authors. But this length is necessary (1) to express the special requisitions demanded of the foreign author in order that he may obtain a copyright, and (2) to set out certain restrictions put upon such copyright in his case. The present copyright law is extended to include the works of foreign authors by expunging from the Revised Statutes such qualifying words as "citizen of the United States or resident therein," and by repealing the section (4971) which legalizes the present disgraceful piracy of works of literature and art. This much of the original bill has remained unchanged (with the exception of some slight verbal alterations) in every subsequent print.

The remaining provisions, briefly set out and, for convenience, arbitrarily numbered, are: (1.) The right reserved to authors by the present law, to dramatize or translate their own works, is limited to apply only to such works as have been copyrighted in the United States. (2.) The prohibition of the importation of surreptitious copies of books, maps, and works of art contained in sections 4964 and 4965 of the Revised Statutes is erased, it being supposed, apparently, that such non-importation is provided for in another section of the bill. (3.) The author or artist who is "not a citizen of the United States or a resident therein," must send to the Librarian of Congress a printed copy of the title of his book or other article, and secure the registration of the same not later than fifteen days subsequent to publication in the country of origin. (4.) Two copies of the "best American edition" of the author's book must be deposited with the same officer, within three months after the date of recording the title above. (5.) In default of such deposit the "copyright shall be held void and of no effect," which is also to be the case (6) if the American publisher, after having printed a foreign book, subsequently abandons its publication. (7.) From the time the copyright of a book is recorded, and during its existence, the importation of the book is prohibited, and (8) officers of customs and postmasters are required to seize and detain all copies of any foreign edition which may be entered at the Custom-house or transmitted to the mails of the United States; and the Secretary of the Treasury and the Postmaster-General are empowered to make and enforce regulations to prevent such importation. In order that it may be known what books are subject to seizure, it is required of the foreign author (9) that he shall pay one dollar for having his title recorded (double the amount now charged the native author for the same service), this sum to go to defray the expenses of lists of copyrighted articles to be printed each week and distributed to collectors of customs and postmasters, and also to such other persons as may desire them at a cost of not more than $5 per annum. (10.) These lists are to contain, also, "the titles or descriptions of all articles on which copyright shall have expired or become void" (*vide* "5" and "6"), presumably in order to acquaint the above officers with the titles of books which may thereafter be allowed to be imported. (11.) The Librarian of Congress is to prepare the material for the above lists, and (12) is to receive for that service an addition of $1,000 per annum to his salary. (13.) The non-importation clause is not to apply, however, to non-copyrighted foreign books of which translations into English are copyrighted, but only to such translations. (14.) Each volume of a book when published separately, and each number of a periodical, is to be considered an independent publication; and (15) new editions of works heretofore published, containing alterations and additions, are to be deemed capable of being copyrighted. The first, ninth, and eleventh stipulations, relating to the reservation of the right to translate and dramatize, the payment of a fee of $1 for entry of title, and the preparation and distribution of lists of copyright articles, have not been changed in any subsequent issue of the bill.

When presented to the Senate, the bill was referred to the Committee on Patents, and during January and February, 1886, this Committee held various hearings in order to consider the views of the different people whose interests were affected. The result was an amended bill, favorably reported May 21, 1886, and numbered S. 2496, in which the

sixth stipulation enumerated above, the voiding of the author's copyright through abandonment by the publisher, is omitted, and the twelfth provision is changed so as to authorize the Librarian of Congress to employ an additional clerk at $1,200 per year; which two amendments have been included in all later prints of the bill. The foreign author, instead of being allowed fifteen days in which to secure the recording of his title, is required to record it not later than the day of publication abroad; and the words "best American edition" in the fourth stipulation are emphasized to "best edition printed in the United States." The important changes, however, occur in the fourteenth provision, where an amendment renders it impossible to obtain a copyright upon the volume or volumes of any work issued subsequent to the time when the bill becomes law, if the first volume has been published previous to that date; and in the fifteenth, altered so as to prohibit the obtaining of copyright upon new editions of works which form part of any series that was in course of publication when the act went into effect. These serious limitations upon the protection which the bill purports to secure to the works of foreign authors still remain a part of the final text of the bill.

As the Forty-ninth Congress took no determinative action upon the Copyright Bill, it was presented anew in the first session of the Fiftieth Congress, December 12, 1887, and again referred to the Committee on Patents. This third print (numbered S. 554) contained no alterations of importance. The date of enforcement, however, is advanced one year to July 1, 1888.

Shortly after this second introduction of the bill the American Publishers' Copyright League was organized with a view to coöperation with the Authors' Copyright League already established. The result of various conferences between these two associations was set out in an unofficial fourth edition of the bill (which may be designated as 554b), printed for the purpose of suggesting certain amendments to Senator Chace and securing his consent to them, as well as the approval of the representatives of the interests of Philadelphia. It is suggested in this proposed bill, that the prohibition of importation of unauthorized copies, repealed in the original bill, be reinstated according to section 4964 of the Revised Statutes, and that the penalty imposed in that section upon unauthorized reprinting, publishing, or importation, be also attached to unauthorized dramatization or translation. The third provision, concerning the recording of the title of works by an author not a citizen, is altered to require simply the *delivery* to the Librarian of Congress, or the deposit in the mails within the United States, of the title of a book or description of other articles intended to be copyrighted, and the interval of three months allowed for the deposit of the two copies of a book is done away with by the requirement of such deposit "not later than the day of its publication in the country of its origin." By this alteration, which secured simultaneous deposit of a title-page and copies of a book, the tenth provision (requiring the lists prepared for the use of collectors of customs and postmasters to include the titles of books on which the copyright had become void through a failure to make such a deposit of copies within three months after the delivery of title-page), was rendered nugatory, and that provision ought, therefore, to have been stricken out, but, by oversight, it was allowed to remain, not only in this print, but in every subsequent print except the last. The important amendment suggested in this issue of the bill is the modification of the absolute prohibition of importation to a stipulation of non-importation "unless the consent of the proprietor of such copyright shall first have been obtained in writing, signed in the presence of two or more witnesses," and limiting, accordingly, the seizure of copies to such as are imported without this consent.

But the various alterations suggested failed to receive the concurrence of the Philadelphians, though it is understood that Senator Chace endorsed them; consequently, after another conference held February 3, a fifth print (554c) was made containing further modifications. The thirteenth provision of the original bill, which had been uselessly reworded in the previous print, is now stated in the following concise and intelligent language: "In the case of books in foreign languages, of which translations in English only are copyrighted, the prohibition of importation shall apply only to the translation of the same, and the importation of the books in the original language shall be permitted." The non-importation provision is again modified, or rather extended, importation being prohibited except in the cases specified in section 2505 of the Revised Statutes, and except in the case of "persons purchasing for use and not for sale, who import not more than two copies at any one time." Section 2505 (the free list) allows the importation of books printed twenty years, books, maps, and charts for the use of the United States or for the Library of Congress, or two copies in one invoice, in good faith, for the use of any philosophical, literary, or religious society, or for any society for the encouragement of the fine arts, or for any college, academy, school, or seminary; also, professional books of persons coming into the United States, or books which such persons have purchased abroad for their own use not less than a year previous to arrival. "In each of which cases," however, according to the bill, "the written consent of the proprietor of the copyright, signed in the presence of two witnesses, shall be furnished with each importation." The eighth provision, also, is extended so as to authorize the searching of the belongings of persons arriving in the United States for books not authorized to be imported, and when such are discovered they are to be destroyed instead of being detained as previously provided for. This carefully hedged provision as to importation has been accepted by all parties conferred with, and is incorporated in the final text of the bill.

The provisions numbered "3" and "4" had appeared in the previous editions of the bill as a proviso to section 4956 of the Revised Statutes, but in this print that section is entirely reworded, with resulting important modifications, not only of the original bill, but of the present domestic copyright law, affecting not only the foreign authors but also native authors, artists, and publishers. (1.) The stipulation of the previous print requiring the deposit of copies "not later than the day of publication," is extended to works published originally in the United States; whereas by the present law such deposit of American books is allowed to be made "within ten days from publication thereof." (2.) While the requirement that copies for deposit should be "printed within the United States," had been, in all previous prints of the bill, confined to *books*, the wording is now changed to "book or other article," thereby including maps, charts, dramatic or musical compositions, engravings, and prints, and thus extending the stipulation which had previously been applied only to the works of authors, to the productions of artists as well. (3.) This stipulation of American manufacture, which before had been imposed only upon persons who were not citizens of the United States, is now made a condition binding on any one claiming a copyright, so that our native authors and artists are required to give up the privilege, which is theirs by the present law, of having their books, maps, or engravings made abroad if they choose (provided, of course, that they submit to the extortion of one-fourth of the value of their property by the tariff tax), and are compelled to print their works in the United States or forfeit their copyright entirely.

These important concessions having been agreed to upon the part of the authors and publishers (the artists do not seem to have been consulted), an effort was made to secure for the text suggested the adhesion of the typographers. But only the typographical unions of Cambridge would agree to support the bill, those of New York hesitating, and the unions of Philadelphia refusing. The result was yet another edition of the bill (554d), embodying the "typographical amendment"—the only alteration in the text of the bill—which requires that the "two copies of such copyright book or other article" deposited shall be "printed from type set within the limits of the United States." It was this text of the bill which was submitted for consideration at the hearing on March 9, and which the Committee on Patents were urged, with but a single dissentient voice, to report favorably to the Senate.

On March 19 Senator Chace reported an amended bill, which was renumbered S. 554, and which consisted of the text of the print "554d" engrafted upon his original bill, with amendments limiting the prohibition of importation to the term of the copyright, and extending the prohibition of unauthorized dramatization or translations to section 4965 of the Revised Statutes, where it can only apply, if at all, to musical compositions, the remaining part of the section referring only to works of art. The House print of this edition of the bill, numbered H. R. 8715, is the same text freed from typographical errors, and this last print may be accepted as the final text of the "Chace" copyright bill.

FERRY'S BALZAC.

PARIS, April 5, 1888.

ALL great men have had their witnesses who have made us familiar with the incidents of their lives. Very ordinary writers sometimes, and ordinary men, these witnesses render, nevertheless, a great service to literature. M. Gabriel Ferry has been one of these followers of famous people, and has published a book on Alexander Dumas, the father. He has just now given us another under the title of 'Balzac et ses amies.' Nothing that concerns the great author of the "Comédie humaine" is unimportant, and we have found some valuable documents in this volume concerning what may be called the genesis of his work.

Balzac was born in Tours on May 16, 1799. He made very good progress at the College of Vendôme, and afterwards began his law studies in Paris. His father was a very positive, serious man, who had been for a long time employed by the great army contractors. He preserved in his dress the fashions of the Directory, took great care of his person, and had calculated that by such care he could live a hundred years (he died by accident in 1829, at the age of eighty-three). He wished to make a notary of his son, and placed him in a notary's

office. Young Balzac had no taste for the law; he had literary tastes. He begged to be allowed to try a literary career for two years. The father consented with reluctance, and Balzac took possession of a room in the Rue Lesdiguières, No. 9, which his mother had chosen for him. He was now free. His family lived in a little country house at Villeparisis; he himself was in the great capital, and in his little garret he began, alas! a tragedy. His subject was Cromwell. "I have chosen the subject of Cromwell," he writes to his sister Laura (September 6, 1819), "because it is the finest in modern history." He worked at it during a whole winter, without other distractions than a few visits to the Jardin des Plantes. In April, 1820, the classical five acts were ended; Balzac read his tragedy before a sort of family council at Villeparisis. The final arbiter was to be a friend of his father, an ex-professor of the Polytechnic School. When the reading was over, the old professor declared solemnly that the author would do well to devote himself to anything he liked except to literature.

The young author was not too much discouraged; he abandoned the tragic muse, and began to write novels. It must be remembered that in 1821 the novel had not become, as it is now, one of the necessities of life. The First Empire had only known the sentimentalities of Mme. Collin; 'Anatole,' a novel by Mme. Sophie Gay, which would now be found unreadable, had given an hour's distraction to Napoleon at Fontainebleau the night before the famous day when he made his adieus to his Guard. The novels of that period are almost childish; under the Restoration, the Vicomte d'Arlincourt wrote a few novels, which are as ridiculous in style as in sentiment. The romantic movement was beginning when Balzac began to write. He composed in 1822 'L'Héritière de Birague,' 'Le Vicaire des Ardennes,' and some stories now quite forgotten. He signed himself "Horace de Saint-Aubin," "Lord R'hoone," etc. It may be said that in these first essays Balzac simply learned to write; he had not yet received those inspirations which afterwards revealed to him his own genius.

The first inspirer seems to have been a woman, Mme. de Berny, who lived with her husband at Villeparisis. She was a few years older than Balzac, and her physical and moral personality was afterwards to be found in the original and touching type of Mme. de Morsauf in the 'Lys dans la Vallée.' M. de Berny was much older than his wife, impatient, irascible, bad-tempered, selfish; Mme. de Berny was mild and submissive. Her almost maternal friendship was of great use to Balzac; she was to him for a long time a sort of Egeria. Balzac had an exalted affection for her; he wrote: "I was very unhappy in my youth, but Mme. de Berny repaid all with her absolute devotion. . . . I was, indeed, spoiled by this admirable woman." In a letter of 1836, he calls her an angel. When Balzac's parents had sold their little property at Villeparisis, Mme. de Berny had also left the place; she lived in Paris in winter, in summer at St.-Rémy in the department of the Oise. Balzac made many visits to St.-Remy; he wrote there the 'Célibataires' and the 'Curé de Tours.'

Mme. de Berny died in 1836, while Balzac was in Italy. He wrote, on hearing of her death:

"The person I have lost was more than a mother, more than a friend, more than any human creature can be to another. She strengthened me by her words, her actions, her devotion during great trials. If I live it is through her—she was everything to me. Though, for the past two years, sickness and time kept us apart, we were visible to each other; she reacted on me, she was my moral sun. Mme. de Morsauf, of the 'Lys dans la Vallée,' is a pale expression of the least qualities of this person. It is a distant view, for I have a horror of prostituting my own emotions to the public, and of what happens to me nothing will ever be known."

It is somewhat strange that, after such a strong expression of Balzac's sentiments, M. Gabriel Ferry should write in this vein: "Between Balzac and Mme. de Berny did friendship always remain Platonic? This idealism of sentiment is doubtful; evidently, the affection between this young and ardent man and this agreeable woman became love." Such was the delicacy of Balzac on the subject of his affections that Théophile Gautier, alluding to Mme. de Berny, says: "In the course of our intimacy, which lasted from 1836 till his death, Balzac only once spoke to me, in the most tender terms, of an attachment of his early youth, and he even only gave the Christian name of the person, the recollection of whom still, after so many years, brought the tears to his eyes."

Very different from Mme. de Berny was Sophie Gay. She had a salon; she belonged to the society of the Directory and of the Empire, and received the Liberals under the Restoration—Béranger, Benjamin Constant. Her daughter, the beautiful Delphine, recited verses in favor of the Greeks; everybody at that time was Philhellenic. Mme. Gay never had much influence on Balzac; she merely treated him as one of her lions when he became famous.

Celebrity did not arrive in a day. Balzac's father still wished him to go into some business, and in order to please his parent he tried a speculation—he became a publisher, issuing the works of Molière and La Fontaine in compact volumes. He bought a printing-office, and afterwards a type foundry. All his calculations were wrong, and he was on the point of becoming a bankrupt. He sold his establishment, and found that he still had a debt of 120,000 francs. This debt was the great trouble of his life, for he undertook to pay it off by his writings. Pending liquidation he went to Fougères, in Brittany, and wrote the 'Chouans,' one of the most extraordinary of his novels, and the first of his works which he signed with his own name. His life became a struggle for money: he threw himself upon every subject. After 'Catherine de Médicis,' a poor historical study, he wrote his 'Physiology of Marriage,' and the first 'Scènes de la vie privée.' He contributed articles to a number of reviews. "What is life?" said he to a friend who begged him to take some repose; "life is courage."

In 1830 he was able to take a little house during the summer in Touraine, on the Loire, and there he composed the 'Peau de Chagrin,' the book which gave him entrance to the Olympus of literature—a marvellous book, full of the most profound philosophy, illustrating the vanity of all human desires, and describing the malady of our time—the malady of wealth, of money. "No novelist," justly says M. Gabriel Ferry, "had introduced money in fiction in a form so modern, so real, so acute. The novelists of the eighteenth century, and those of the first part of the nineteenth century, had not occupied themselves with the money question." We know that the "question d'argent" has taken, in all modern literature, as important a place as it has in real life. Balzac introduced it, and with what force, not only in the 'Peau de Chagrin,' but in 'Eugénie Grandet,' in the 'Parents Pauvres,' etc.; he well knew the power of Mammon.

Balzac became acquainted at Mme. Sophie Gay's with Junot's widow, the Duchesse d'Abrantès. He certainly borrowed from her salon many of the traits with which he paints the surviving members of the Imperial Army and of the Imperial Administration, the men whom fortune had carried across Europe, and glory intoxicated for a few years, and who had afterwards been plunged into poverty and obscurity. The Memoirs of Mme. d'Abrantès had an immense success in their time. She was a very extravagant person, and in the latter part of her life had no other resources than what she gained with her pen.

Mme. Sand has always been considered as the type of Camille Maupin, a literary woman who reappears from time to time in the "Comédie humaine." She figures in the novel 'Béatrix,' written in 1844, "with her impenetrable eyes, her Isis beauty, more serious than graceful, rather sad and constantly meditating, with long black hair descending in braids on her neck, like the double *bandelettes* of the statues of Memphis." A very different type was the "femme incomprise," a type which Balzac invented under the monarchy of July—the woman full of unsatisfied aspirations, of lofty thoughts not understood in her own narrow circle, a goddess among men, an angel on earth. A whole generation was enamoured of this "femme incomprise" revealed by Balzac. His living model, when he created this type, was a Mme. Carraud, a name which often recurs in his work. She had been educated in the same convent as Balzac's sister Laura. She married an officer of artillery, a good, honest man, without any ambition, who lived in retirement at Frapesle, near Issoudun.

"In the order of the feminine affections of Balzac," says M. Ferry, "Mme. Carraud occupies a very distinct place; she comes between his sister and Mme. de Berny." She was, it seems, a remarkable critic, and Balzac liked to consult her, paying great attention to her observations. He stayed with her for some time every year, either at Angoulême or at Frapesle. In 1832 he was so exhausted by work (he had just finished 'Louis Lambert') that he was afraid of becoming mad, as he had a most acute neuralgia of the head. Mme. Carraud reassured him, and told him that if such a misfortune should happen, she would never abandon him.

In 1831 Balzac had a correspondence with an anonymous person who made observations on his works. After a time the mask was thrown off, and the critic proved to be the Duchess of Castries (who was a Maillé), the sister-in-law of the witty Duke of Fitz-James. Under the Restoration she had been one of the most admired beauties of the court. An accident on the hunting field had made her an invalid; her spine had been hurt, aud she always lay upon a sofa. Balzac became one of her habitués. She was a great coquette, and Balzac interested and amused her. He became a dandy, showed himself at the opera, at the Bois. The Duchess, working on his innate conservative feelings, made of him a stanch Legitimist. He was beginning himself to confound living creatures and the creatures of his own imagination; he writes for instance to Mme. Carraud from Aix, where he was staying at Mme. de Castries's: "I have come here to get much and to get little; much, because I see a graceful, amiable person; little, for she will never love me. . . . She is the finest type of a woman, a better sort of Mme. de Beauseant; but are not all these prettv manners formed at the expense of the soul?" Mme. de Beauseant is one of the types of the "Human Comedy."

The Duchess was to make a journey to Italy with her brother-in-law, Fitz-James; they in-

vited Balzac to accompany them. He started with them and left them at Geneva—he never said for what reason. Mme. de Castries returned from Italy in 1833. Balzac's visits to her became rarer. He wrote his 'Duchesse de Langeais' in 1834; the Duchesse de Castries affected not to recognize herself in this type, and paid him compliments. Balzac afterwards wrote to a friend: "It took me five years to detach myself, with my tender nature, from a nature of iron, a graceful woman—the Duchess I have spoken of to you—who came to me under an incognito, which, to do her justice, she abandoned when I asked her to do so. . . . This liaison, which, be assured, remained, by the will of this woman, most irreproachable, proved one of the great troubles of my life. . . . I alone know all there was in the 'Duchesse de Langeais.'"

AURELIO SAFFI.

BOLOGNA, March, 1888.

JUST as we remember him thirty years ago, save that his hair is white, and the tall, slim form is more bent than then, is Aurelio Saffi to-day. The type of an Italian scholar, book-lover, and thinker by nature, revolutionist by force of circumstances, conspirator through necessity, after devoting his youth and manhood to helping Mazzini create a country, he has dedicated the last fifteen years to narrating the life, and to expounding the work and writings, of his master. It is a labor of love and patience, and will, when terminated, stand forth a noble monument to the noblest man that Italy has ever given birth to—as noble a one as any nation on earth can claim for her own. The sixteenth volume is out; on the seventeenth, Saffi is hard at work. The method of the workmanship seems to me most excellent. Each volume contains the most important writings of Mazzini in a year or series of years; the biographical and historical preface to each volume furnishing the reader with a complete sketch of the successive periods and phases of the Italian *risorgimento*. The first eight volumes of Writings published by Mazzini himself ended with the attempt of the 6th of February, 1853, to drive out the Austrians from Milan.

Saffi, in his first *proemio*, dwells affectionately on his personal relations with his fellow-triumvir after the fall of Rome.

"He had moments of darkest gloom, during which, silent and solitary, he avoided the company of the nearest and dearest. But these hours of passionate solitude yielded to the courageous, workful tenor of his nature, and when in domestic intercourse his bright humor was in full vein, his ways and gestures and epigrams, his mimicry—perfect while offending no one—made us all merry. How heartily I used to laugh at his anecdotes anent his student life at Genoa, the tricks of a certain *farçeur* familiar to the exiles of 1831 in Marseilles and Paris, or his own manœuvres in eluding and bewildering the not too wide-awake police in Switzerland. . . . 'Shut your books,' he would say to me—I had not yet got rid of my student habits, hedged round with classical fences and delighting in laborious erudition."

There is no laborious erudition in Saffi's writing now, but a painstaking earnestness in tracing the long, rough, uphill road trodden by Mazzini and his little band, who almost all fell without even his Pisgah's view of the Promised Land. This sixteenth, which must be read with the fifteenth and former volume, is intensely interesting, as it embraces the last three years of Mazzini's life, and closes on his death-bed, telling all, concealing nothing of his latest attempt to raise the republican flag in the spring of 1870, when, as he believed and as it is now proved, Victor Emanuel had pledged his royal word to assist the French Emperor in his attack on Germany, by sending a strong contingent of the Italian army across the Alps instead of seizing the opportunity to take possession of Rome.

"The victory of the Empire signified French hegemony over the minor States of western Europe and in the waters of the Mediterranean, and would have rendered the new Cæsar of the Gauls the supreme arbitrator of our destinies; nor would our contribution to his success, tendered as by vassals to their lord, have facilitated our entry into Rome, nor the completion of our national unity. Moreover, given the case of Prussian victory, this policy, base in every sense, and above all anti-Italian, exposed us, in virtue of our complicity, to serious and well-deserved reprisals. Rome, said Mazzini in those days, must be liberated from Milan, Genoa, Bologna, Naples, Palermo."

And here we have the hour-by-hour story of the conspiracy, unknown in many of its details to ourselves and even to Saffi until he secured from each individual conspirator the special narrative. Ernesto Pozzi thus tells of a midnight visit paid by Mazzini to the members of the revolutionary committee in the house of Vivaldi Pasqua (a Genoese duke) on the 24th of March, 1870:

"A revolution was prepared in Pavia and Piacenza: Genoa, Milan, Como, Brescia, Bologna, Naples, Catanzaro, and other important centres had agreed to second the movement. Mazzini, passing by Milan, reached Genoa by the last train. At Genoa the Revolutionary Committee awaited him in Via S. Lucca, N. 6, in the upper story of Giacomo Vivaldi Pasqua's house. All the members of the Committee were present; Stefano Canzio (husband of Garibaldi's daughter, Teresita), Antonio Mosto, commander of Garibaldi's crack corps of Genoese sharp-shooters, lamed by a Franco-Papal bullet at Monterotondo, Pasqua, Federico Gattomo, Giovanni Della Casa, Osvaldo Gnocchi-Viani, Giovanni Fontano, Enrico Razeto, Luigi Canessa, and myself.*

"The conspirators, here and there distributed in groups according to their respective destination, awaited the pass-word; sentinels with hidden arms lined the road Mazzini was to pass from the station. The night was dark, but as each solitary figure passed under the gaslights, Canzio and myself recognized them as we visited the posts on our way to Via Lucca. The guards of public security and carbineers in couples wended their way unsuspiciously, as though nothing unusual was occurring in Genoa. The members of the Committee, all armed, came in one by one, waiting in breathless silence for the advent of our chief. We expected to see him arrive in disguise to avoid recognition by the Argus-eyed police. . . . A tap at the door of Pasqua's apartment made our hearts beat; it must be Mazzini, we knew. It was he in body and in spirit, the great magician! Reverently we moved to welcome him. He, with the frankness of a boy, greeted us with his divine smile, and shook hands with all, addressing each of us by name. He wore no disguise, just his ordinary black dress and paletot and low felt hat over his brows. A spare, erect figure, he might have been a philosopher just come out of his study without a thought that could disturb the dreams of a world-wide police.

"We returned to our posts, Mazzini seated in front of me; and as he took off his hat and his head became visible, it was clear that the hat alone was sufficient disguise. Mazzini's head is a *chef 'dœuvre*, the vast forehead and luminous eyes a marvel. Calm as a general on the field, he asked for the latest details of our preparations, for the last news from the principal points of attack, the names of the appointed chiefs. Then he gave us his news, quoting from a tiny note-book in which places and names were written in cipher, and surprised us by his intimate knowledge of every spot in Italy, the conditions of the populace, the opinions of parties. A tempest burst over our heads, the rain rushed in torrents on the roof, flashes of lightning, followed by loud thunderclaps, lit up the room. 'The ancient Romans,' said Mazzini, with a sort of sad, proud revolt against Nature herself, 'would have augured ill for our enterprise, but,' he added in tones of authority, '*God will be with us.*' And in undertones to me, whom he knew to be an unbeliever in divinity—'if God exists, you would say.'

"If our plans had succeeded, the news from Piacenza and Pavia ought to have reached us on that night! [They had failed, owing to one of the common errors of conspirators, and the movement in Genoa itself was suspended.] 'To meet again,' said Mazzini; 'all is not yet ended.' He would not leave Genoa. He, the man of love and of tempests, could not accept the idea that Rome and Italian unity, abandoned by monarchy, were also to be abandoned by the Italian people."

From Genoa he went to Milan. The resurrectionary attempts in Calabria, in the mountains of Lucca and at Como, were suppressed one after the other. Mazzini, despairing of the Continent, went, despite the protests of his friends, to Naples, and thence to Sicily, where, betrayed by a German spy (who enjoyed his fullest confidence, and who, while still in the pay of Louis Napoleon, fought bravely under Garibaldi during the campaign of 1866), he was arrested and imprisoned in the fortress of Gaeta. But meanwhile the monarchy, understanding the alternative—the crown of towers in Rome, or a crownless, shameful eclipse—"went to Rome," and Italy was spared the disgrace and the disaster of fighting for the author of the chassepot miracles of Mentana.

In this volume, which appeared before Garibaldi's Autobiography, Saffi publishes letters which anticipate his reply to Garibaldi's erroneous yet naïve attacks on the Mazzinians. In the next volume, he writes, "I shall tell of Mazzini's latest thoughts and dying hours."

Intent as Saffi is on this his *own* work, he is still the centre and guide of the thinking youth of Italy, and his English wife, Georgina Crawford, is a fitting helpmeet for her noble husband. The Crawfords were among the earliest friends of Italy, and Georgina has been a faithful Mazzinian in every sense. If the infamous police regulations for fallen women are abolished, to the Saffis (after Bertani and the Nathans) will merit be due, and their four sons, all educated at the University, bid fair to follow the steps of their parents. Aurelio Saffi is "free" professor at the University, and his lessons are thronged. When, yesterday, he came to see me, a commission of students from the Democratic Club entered. The conversation turned on the topics of the day—the famous agitation for the statue to be (or not to be) erected to Giordano Bruno; the most unsatisfactory discussion on the liberty of the press which took place lately in the Chamber of Deputies. Saffi's suggestions were all wise, and listened to with reverent attention. "Demonstrations, agitations are useful when they have a fixed and justifiable object. Because the Government is not our ideal, we ought not to offer factious opposition. It will be well if we get Bertani's sanitary code, Zanardelli's penal code, the abolition of the regulations," etc. Foreign politics were of course discussed, and, far more than I expected, the German alliance is increasingly popular. I say unexpectedly, because republican France, has always been very dear to Italian democracy. But what with the commercial treaty and the scares, and the rumored attack on Spezia, a suspicion is growing into a settled belief that France, imperial, legitimist, or republican, is jealous of United Italy, regrets the contribution to its formation in 1859, and would, if unable to destroy the new kingdom, enfeeble it to such a point as to make it dependent on France itself. Saffi and the thoughtful portion of the old Mazzinian party, being unitarians before all things, perhaps ex-

* As I trace these names, it just occurs to me that, with the exception of Mosto, who remained in Genoa to organize the expedition, every one of these "Mazzinian conspirators," including Ernesto Pozzi, accompanied or followed Garibaldi at the end of that year (1870) "to help republican France invaded and crushed." Is not this a fresh proof that Mazzinians and Garibaldians were one and the same—that thought and action were inseparable?

aggerate the possible danger. On the other hand, they see no danger in an alliance with Germany, especially if poor "Fritz" (so really liked by Italians, who also are charmed with his wife for her interest in social questions) should live for some years; then, in case of a war, there is the chance of getting back the Tyrol and Trieste, the unredeemed provinces of Italy. In my humble opinion, Italy need not have entered into an offensive alliance with any nation. Her interests on the Mediterranean are identical with those of England, and there is no doubt that the unwritten Anglo-Italian alliance is really stronger at the present moment than any parchment bond between Bismarck and the Italian Minister. He will do well to remember that Italians are not Germans, and that, while they may worship a Cavour, they would not tolerate a Bismarck in duodecimo for a moment. But Crispi is still on his trial, and if ever a man had a fair field and all favor, it is he. Saffi applauded his Vatican policy, which is his strong point.

At the end of our long interview, the students asked him if there was any truth in the rumor that the University centenary was to be celebrated in a church, and inaugurated by a Te Deum? "Not if we are to have anything to do with it," answered Saffi. "It may be held in a church which is municipal property, if there be no other safe building large enough; but no religious color can be permitted." Then, on the students' saying they wished to invite Bovio (the celebrated Professor of Philosophy at the University of Naples and head of the Democrats in Parliament) to hold a Democratic conference, Saffi said: "That is good, and I will sign the invitation as I signed that to the King. Let us avoid any appearance of party spirit in this commemoration of our dear old University."

Long may cruel death, which has devastated the ranks of the "Old Guard," leave us this true heir of Mazzini's spirit, the true interpreter of his life and work. J. W. M.

Correspondence.

JOURNALISTIC PURIFICATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The question of how to obtain the news in a form fit to be delivered at home, has troubled me not a little, as it has troubled thousands who have families with children growing up to the reading age. I can see no solution unless some of the technical journals—noticeably those devoted to architecture—furnish the model. Some of them publish two and one as many as three editions, differing in the number and costliness of illustrations, in the "supplement" form. Why cannot our dailies publish a regular edition which shall be such as decent people may read and have delivered at their homes without offence; then another edition with a supplement containing the "sporting events," lottery "ads.," the illustrations, etc.?

A really enterprising journal would find opportunities for contracts to deliver the regular edition at the homes and the supplements at the down-town offices, at a profitable advance on the usual subscription rates. Able editors might vie with each other in getting up these supplements so that bound volumes of them would sell. The more costly edition might attract wide attention under some such name as the "Sport's Own" or the "Prize Ring" edition, or, perhaps, without entire inappropriateness, might adopt the names in use by some of the architectural journals referred to, as, the "Imperial" or the "Royal" edition.

Yours, etc., A Fogy.

April 8, 1888.

PENSIONING SUBSTITUTES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the discussion of the various pension bills, one feature has, I think, been overlooked, which allow me to present. Its consideration may perhaps serve to convince even those who honestly advocate indiscriminate pensioning, of the injustice of putting on the same plane those who went into the war from patriotic motives and those who went into it for gain.

In 1863 and 1864 I served for the Government as examining surgeon for drafted men and substitutes in one of the largest districts of the West, and thousands of that class came under my eye and personal observation. It was at a period when State, city, and county bounties were plentiful, when the bone and sinew of the country was already in the field, when the Government ordered drafts from among all able-bodied citizens up to the age of forty-five, and when it may be said that every man passed by the surgeon and recruited into the ranks was, paradoxical as it may seem, an involuntary volunteer—that is, he was either a man who was forced into the ranks because he was too poor to buy a substitute, or he was a substitute who sold himself into the army for big money. I kept a private record at the time of the percentage of these two classes, which is now lost, but I venture to say from recollection that not 10 per cent. of the accepted belonged to the former class, and that 90 per cent. were substitutes.

The scenes which presented themselves at the examining surgeons' offices at those times were sometimes ludicrous (because of the attempted simulations), sometimes pathetic, but in the main disgraceful and disgusting. Dealers in substitutes were on hand with their stock in trade ready for inspection. These dealers (brokers they called themselves) sprang up like mushrooms—a sharp, conscienceless, unscrupulous class, ready for cheat, bribe, or any kind of deceit to sell their man. They scoured the lowest dives of the cities and towns for material. They watched all the steamboat landings for contraband and plantation negroes, such as poured out into the North and West from the rear of our advancing armies. They rented large apartment houses whereto they took these men, boarded them, gave them clothing, got them drunk, and made them sign a printed blank agreeing, for the consideration therein mentioned, to serve as substitutes. The consideration generally was small; if the man was rejected, the dealer lost his advances; if accepted, his profit was immense. In these houses they held them as prisoners until they could sell them. The market price for substitutes changed with the supply and demand, varying from five hundred to two thousand dollars apiece, and the brokers all over the country had a regular system of exchange in this commodity.

The substitutes offered were nearly all either foreigners recently landed, bounty jumpers, or negroes recently freed. The scum and the dregs of Europe, attracted by the bounties, dumped themselves into this country for sale into the army. The devices resorted to for hiding physical defects that would cause rejection were sometimes ingenious. The lying, especially as to age, was tremendous. As fast as a substitute was rejected by one surgeon, he was taken or sent by the broker into another district to a more facile officer, and there, in many instances to my own knowledge, accepted. The bribery and corruption in this traffic were scandalous.

As a rule, the white men presented (at least in my district) were unfit—though many were accepted—while the negroes generally had a splendid physique, except that, strange to say, the larger portion had a loathsome complaint, which, however, under instructions from the General Army Surgeon, if of a mild character, did not disqualify them from being accepted.

It would be interesting for a war statistician to ascertain from the enlistment records the number of men who entered the army as substitutes. It seems to me that the ardor, as to pensions, of the most patriotic G. A. R. man would cool down when it is proposed to put men who were sold into the service like cattle on a level with the honest, sturdy, noble volunteer who entered the ranks for his country's sake and not for the sake of money. I have no doubt that there are many still living who served as examining surgeons at the time of drafts, and whose experiences in this particular were similar to mine. Statements and discussions on that point might perhaps bring the facts here set forth so strongly before the public and Congress that, if not resulting in a halt to indiscriminate pensioning, it may lead to an adoption of the principle that the man who sold himself into service is not entitled to the same consideration as the man who entered it from patriotic motives. J.

ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS IN WOMEN'S COLLEGES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the *Nation* for March 20 appears a communication upon entrance requirements in women's colleges. May I be permitted to call attention to one or two suggestions of the writer which seem to me to be misleading?

The statement is made that "admission on certificate was followed by an eleven-fold increase of students at Smith." That certainly strikes one as worthy of remark, but sequences are not always consequences. Smith College began its work with one class of twelve students. In the fourth year, when three more classes had been added, it is true that there were 133 students in the institution. To give the credit of this increase, however, to the system of admission by certificates is entirely gratuitous, and would imply very small appreciation of the rapid growth of interest in woman's education. Each succeeding class has been larger as the public has learned to appreciate the value of higher education for women, and as the preparatory schools have become accustomed to send students to these colleges. The matter of certificates has probably had very little influence upon the numbers attending Smith, and we are confident that students have not on this account been admitted with any less thorough preparation. The standard of the College was never before as high as it is now, and the President and Faculty were certainly never more ambitious to keep it at the highest possible point, and fully on a level with the best institutions of the land.

The writer of the article referred to goes on further to say:

"An examination of the forms of certificates discloses how cumbrous the system is, how many exceptions to the rule prevail, how easily the instructor may shirk responsibility for a student's failure after she has entered college, and how numerous are the opportunities for abuses to creep in. Stated generally, certificates are now accepted from 'approved'

schools and individuals. This approval has been based upon actual experience in educating pupils prepared at the school, or a visit by one or more of the College Faculty, the recommendation of a trustee of the College, or a self-appointed committee of alumnæ, or even a mutual friend. These visits, it is said, have sometimes proved purely social in their nature."

These statements and implications are of considerable variety, and lead the writer to the conclusion (whatever may be the conviction of the reader) that it is a "baneful" system, fit only to be met by protests. Without proposing to discuss the question, it is fair to enter a reminder that the best educators of the older institutions are far from being all of one opinion, and that the system is not by any means confined to colleges for women. I am, furthermore, confident that it need not, and should not, result in any lowering of the standard for admission. I may add, inasmuch as Smith College has been especially alluded to, that, as a matter of fact, very rarely, under present usage, is a school added to the list of those from which we will accept certificates until sample examination papers, with the actual answers of the pupil, have been sent to the examiners, and in all cases valid evidence must be given that the full requirements have been met. I may add, further, that by no means have examinations been given up, and that we have every year opportunity to compare students who enter by the different plans, and have not been able to discover that students are more apt to come inadequately prepared under the one method than the other. Those who have to be warned or conditioned for poor scholarship after entering, come in quite as large a proportion from those who are examined as from the others.

There are many possible objections to any scheme which can be devised. All must depend in the end upon the members of the Faculty who have the responsibility of admitting the new students. It is, apparently, an opinion prevalent in some minds that the plan of accepting certificates is adopted with the simple aim of gathering students at the expense of the scholarship of the college, and that any such purpose would be thwarted by substituting examinations. It is manifest, however, that under either plan the college can degrade itself, if it will. Conscientious care can, on the other hand, with either system, protect and sustain the highest standard of scholarship. The students of all institutions are sure to come into comparison, and we are willing to accept the verdict of results.

HENRY M. TYLER,
Chairman of Board of Examiners.

SMITH COLLEGE, NORTHAMPTON, April 9, 1888.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It seems to me that a good deal of the discussion in your columns on admission to colleges by certificate has not shown a good grasp of the real question at issue. When there are three possible ways of accomplishing an object, it is not sufficient, in order to recommend a certain course, to show that it is superior to one of the others; it must be shown to be superior to both of them. This looks like a very simple rule of logic, but it has been very much sinned against in your columns.

The question is, in the first instance, not a question that concerns women more than men, since such important colleges as Michigan University and Cornell have adopted the plan of certificates. Hence I shall make use of the common pronoun *he* in what I have to say.

There are three ways, all in actual use, by which students may be admitted to colleges: (1) by an examination at the college, (2) by local examination, (3) by certificate. The first method, which has been the only one until recent years, is open to two plain objections. If the candidate comes from a distance, a considerable expense is incurred for the journey, which is money thrown away in case he proves unsuccessful; and the fatigue of the journey, the strangeness of his surroundings, and an incipient homesickness make the student more or less incapable of doing himself full justice. These are real objections to the first method. They are completely obviated by *both of the other methods*, and yet one at least of your correspondents seems to think that it is only necessary to insist upon these two objections with sufficient force in order to prove the desirability of admission by certificate. The only allusion he makes to admission by local examinations is to say that it "seemed undesirable." But the only interest in the discussion lies in the full and complete statement of the grounds for choosing either plan (2) or plan (3) in preference to the other; everybody is agreed—Harvard, Yale, and Princeton included—that plan (1) needs to be supplemented by at least one of the other plans.

The arguments in favor of the system of local examinations rather than that of certificates are these:

(*a.*) They relieve the teacher of a serious responsibility which there is no reason for his being required to assume. The distinction which his school acquires from having well-prepared pupils is even more marked if they pass good examinations than if they merely enter college on his recommendation.

(*b.*) They relieve the student of the anxiety of not knowing for a whole half-year whether he will be allowed to continue with his class or not, and they save him from the mortification of being, in a sense, expelled on account of insufficient preparation. There is far more publicity and disgrace attached to being sent home than to simply failing, in the first place, to pass an examination.

(*c.*) They furnish, from the nature of the case, a far more satisfactory test of the real acquirements of the pupil than can be had from the opinion of any teacher, however honest and capable he may be. It is impossible that the teacher in every school, taken at hazard, should have as exact an idea of what constitutes a sufficient preparation for entering upon a given study as the head of the department in the college in which that study is to be pursued.

(*d.*) They are not liable to abuse, as the other plan plainly is in the hands of dishonest and incapable teachers.

(*e.*) The most important reason in their favor is that they furnish a far more effective means of raising the standard of the preparatory school than the plan of admission by certificate. To pass the examination is a test that can only be met by a thoroughly good school; the privilege of getting students in by certificate is always open to the charge of favoritism. The local examinations might be taken by many members of the school besides those who are expecting to go to college, and they would thus furnish a general test for the school, and not simply for those students upon whom special pains have been expended. The Bryn Mawr circular expressly states that "the examination for matriculation will be open to those who wish to take it as a test of proficiency in elementary studies, but have no intention of entering the college."

Your correspondent, "M. A. W.," is of the opinion that the certificate system has been the cause of an improvement in the preparatory schools from the fact that the certificate system and the improvement have existed side by side. This sort of argument is one which it is very hazardous to make use of. There is every reason to suppose that the schools would have improved in any case, as they became more familiar with the requirements which the colleges made of them. The most that can possibly be shown by the facts is, that the *effect of the certificate system has not been so bad as to counterbalance whatever improvement would naturally have taken place in the schools in the same time.* It remains to be shown that a much greater improvement would not have taken place if the system of local examinations had been chosen instead. This is, again, a simple matter of logic, which, however the discussion may turn out, it is a pity not to see attended to.

Local examinations are not difficult to have well conducted. They are already held by Vassar at nine regular centres—Chicago, Cincinnati, Cleveland, St. Louis, Detroit, Louisville, Omaha, Denver, and San Francisco—and provision is readily made for special cases as they arise. The plan recommended by Mr. Beckwith of having a joint local examination-paper prepared which could be accepted by a large group of colleges (for both men and women) would seem to be an admirable one.

C. L. F.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The remarks of Mr. Beckwith in regard to the admission of students to college on certificate must have appealed to many teachers. If I can judge from my own experience, it is not agreeable to a teacher in a preparatory school to decide himself whether his pupil is fit to enter a particular college. Aside from the difficulty a teacher may find in keeping himself informed of the exact standard maintained at each college, many teachers feel that they are constantly liable to overrate the acquirements of their pupils. Furthermore, when a teacher comes to draw the line between those of his pupils who are prepared for college and those who, having studied an equal length of time, are, through lack of ability or of diligence, not yet fit to enter, he exposes himself to the suspicion of favoritism or prejudice. This is just what the Harvard examiners seek to avoid when they require the examination-papers to be signed with numbers instead of names, so that they do not know whose papers they are marking.

Mr. Beckwith's suggestion that a common entrance examination be given by a committee representing the New York and New England colleges seems worthy of attention. It would help to bring all the Eastern colleges up to the same level. As it is now, no one can tell how much a man's degree represents till he knows at what college he received it.

But even when the requirements for admission are nominally equal, we cannot tell whether two colleges are on the same footing unless we know how rigidly the requirements are enforced. The smaller colleges are constantly tempted to lower the standard of admission in order to let in more students. Some of the readers of the *Nation* may know what pressure is sometimes put upon instructors to pass men insufficiently prepared. This is done by the President or by trustees who want students, and do not realize the necessity of exacting a certain amount of technical attainments. Why do Americans always gauge the success of a college by the number of its students?

Let me say here a word about the results of admitting students inadequately trained to the Freshman Class. It must be remembered that a good teacher suits the pace to the average

ability of his class. If the class contains many poorly grounded members, he either has to go back and spend time in reviewing the elements, or, at any rate, he is forced to proceed with a slowness which needlessly keeps back the better prepared part of the class. These inequalities are particularly injurious where the class is too small to be divided into two sections.

As for the unfortunate youth himself who enters college with insufficient training, he goes through the first half of his course with, as it were, a millstone tied around his neck. In his case, how many of the professor's remarks fall on deaf ears, because he is not prepared to appreciate their force. I lost, I believe, half the benefit of the excellent instruction in Greek we received at the small college where I spent the first years of my student life. And why? It was because, although I had never been properly grounded in the elements of that language, I was yet suffered to enter college. It was no kindness to me, was it? Under such circumstances an ambitious student is likely to injure himself by overwork, while one of the ordinary sort becomes permanently discouraged, and goes through his tasks as a kind of drudgery in which he can never take any real interest.

C.

ANNANDALE, N. Y., April 15, 1888.

A QUESTION OF INDEBTEDNESS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Mr. Seligman's answer in the *Nation*, No. 1187, to the notice of his book in No. 1185, only strengthens the impressions and conclusions of the reviewer. At the outset he admits his great obligations to Gross, and yet he devotes a later portion of his letter to a denial of this fact. "I should be sorry to underrate my obligations in chapter i. to Dr. Gross," does not square with "It was only when the chapter had been substantially written that Dr. Gross's essay appeared." This self-same contradiction appears in Mr. Seligman's Preface, and hence the reviewer called the acknowledgments of indebtedness to Gross equivocal.

Mr. Seligman evades the issue when he denies that he blindly copied references, without consulting the works referred to; he was not accused of doing this. The real question is this: Did not Gross furnish Seligman with the clue to more of those references than the latter acknowledges? The few authorities which Mr. Seligman in his letter says are not mentioned by Gross, are, in part, actually to be found in the latter's treatise (*e. g.*, 'Historic Documents of Ireland,' Gross, p. 56); the others are, in great part, local histories substituted in Mr. Seligman's book for other, mainly superior, works cited by Gross on the same subjects. The contention of the reviewer was, that Mr. Seligman added no *important* references—none that advanced our knowledge of the subject by giving materials not presented by Gross. A sprinkling of new but unimportant references can be added to almost any treatise; but the former will not transform a compilation into a book of original research.

Mr. Seligman contends that the references common to the two books "are the common property of all scholars, and are mentioned almost without an exception in the works of Brady, Madox, Thompson, Stubbs, Merewether, and Stephens." The latter part of this statement we emphatically deny. In which of these authors did he find the references to the very important Southampton Gild Ordinances, the 'Historic Documents of Ireland,' Barrett's 'Bristol,' and the valuable passages relating to the gild in the 'Abbreviatio Placitorum,' 'Placita de quo Warranto,' Blomefield's 'Norfolk (Lynn),' etc., etc.? Mr. Seligman talks as though he and Mr. Gross both exhausted the printed sources independently. But this is far from being the case. The striking sins of omission in both works are identical—another strong ground for our believing that the one was based mainly on the other. In the following printed books Mr. Seligman will find much very valuable "common property of all scholars" which both he and Mr. Gross failed to discover: 'Record of Caernarvon,' 158–198; Battely, 'Antiquitates Sancti Edmundi,' 159–160; 'Chartae, etc., Hiberniae,' *passim;* Gale, 'Inquiry into Corporate System of Ireland,' Appendix; 'History of Guildford,' *passim;* 'Rotuli Hundredorum,' i., 332–334, 461, etc.; Lascelles, 'Liber Munerum,' part i; Devon. Assoc. for Advancement of Science, etc., Trans., xi., 191–212; Wilts. Archæol. and Nat. Hist. Soc., Magaz., iv, 160–174; and, above all, the reports of the Municipal Corporations' Commission of 1835. If Mr. Seligman will digest these references, he will be able to add some new sections to his book; and it may dawn upon his mind that in historical research the sources are like rich beds of ore—valueless until discovered and exploited. In original investigation on such a subject as the gilds, to bring together passages from widely scattered sources is half the battle; and he who does it ought to get full credit for his labors from his successors who write on the same subject and make use of his work.

Mr. Seligman's enumeration of the new arguments contained in his book is a confession of weakness. Sifted down it amounts to this: he actually differs with Gross on a single point—one which the latter advances, with much diffidence, as a conjecture. As for the relation between the gild merchant and the crafts (Seligman, pp. 58–60), that, we admit, is not given by Gross, who postponed his treatment of this subject for a future time. But the substance of it is to be found in Stubbs. Had the work of Mr. Seligman been one of exhaustive original research, he would have treated this topic in a fuller and abler manner. We reiterate that the kernel and substance of Gross's book is contained in that of Seligman, with only unimportant additions. This the latter practically admits in his letter and in the preface of his essay.

Mr. Seligman has this to learn, that if he prints an essay containing substantially the same materials and results (including many peculiar turns and ramifications of thought) as are contained in a work of original research printed four years before his own, he must be prepared to acknowledge his obligations to his predecessor fully and unequivocally. If he does not do this, he must expect either that reviewers will berate him, in most cases, more severely than did the critic in No. 1185 of the *Nation*, or that psychological societies will discuss the wondrous similarity of cerebral movement and cerebral sinuosities displayed by him and his predecessor.

THE REVIEWER.

LONDON, April 6, 1888.

Notes.

WM. R. JENKINS will shortly publish the first part of Prof. M'Fadyean's 'Comparative Anatomy of the Domesticated Animals.' He has just issued Victor Hugo's 'Quatre-vingt-treize,' uniform with his handsome reprint of 'Les Misérables,' and announces his intention to continue the series till it includes all of Hugo's novels. To his "Théâtre Contemporain" he has added Erckmann-Chatrian's "L'Ami Fritz."

Mr. F. W. Taussig's 'Protection to Young Industries' and 'History of the Present Tariff,' enlarged with new matter, will be consolidated into one volume of present interest and value, 'The Tariff History of the United States (1789-1888),' and published by G. P. Putnam's Sons. The same firm announce further 'A Sketch of the Germanic Constitution' to 1806, by Samuel Epes Turner; and 'The Present Condition of Economic Science,' by Edward C. Lunt. Their issue of Franklin's Works, edited by Mr. John Bigelow, is now nearly completed, and will be followed by a uniform edition of the 'Correspondence and Diaries of Washington,' edited by Worthington C. Ford.

Paolo Mantegazza's 'Testa; a Book for Boys,' translated by Prof. L. D. Ventura, is in the press of D. C. Heath & Co.

The fourth volume of 'Appletons' Cyclopædia of American Biography' has made its appearance (Lodge-Pickens).

Ticknor & Co. send us a new edition, revised, of Laurence Hutton's 'Literary Landmarks of London.' The book, though reduced in quality of manufacture as in price, is still both presentable and readable. Its arrangement is by authors in alphabetical order. The supplementary notes show what havoc time is making with the monuments extant when the first edition was published.

Mr. T. W. Knox's 'Pocket-Guide to Europe' (Putnams) renews itself with a list of cures, baths, and springs, having their several medicinal properties indicated; and with tabulated "Travel Talk" in four languages—English, French, German, and Italian. This is rather a vocabulary than a phrase-book. There are very few complete sentences, and the editor's imagination is very meagre. Ten nouns, one adverbial phrase ("on board"), and one interrogation ("Does the train stop at intermediate stations?"), form the complete linguistic outfit for "travelling by railroad and steamboat."

The success attendant upon their large-paper edition of Dean Stanley's 'Memorials of Westminster Abbey' last autumn, has encouraged Messrs. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. to bring out the work from the same plates in a popular duodecimo form, handsomely printed and bound in green cloth. The price now asked for the three volumes is as low as would be thought possible for such excellent make. The etched frontispieces have given way to process cuts, but in the case of the Poets' Corner this will hardly be accounted a loss.

'Alden's Manifold Cyclopædia of Knowledge and Language' (New York: John B. Alden) is avowedly an abstract in the main of Chambers and of Stormonth. It includes men of the time. The form is handy, and a single column is employed. The sparse illustrations have been borrowed from Chambers and from other sources. Vol. 1 extends from A to America.

Dr. C. W. Larison of Ringoes, N. J., whose independent phonetic labors we have frequently remarked upon, has just published 'Solomon'z Song, with an Introducshun and Nots,' in a type which we cannot imitate here. He has cast the Song in a dramatic form, with stage directions, as, "The Brīd stats," "The corus ov attendant virjinz appruvingli ecsclam," "The Brīd relates a sircumstans ov inattenshun tu her Brīdgrum," etc. The commentary is copious. Having made the above innovations, Dr. Larison might properly have gone further, and adopted the text and the poetic arrangement of the Revised Version, instead of following the old.

Miss Nina Moore has, with no little dexter-

ity, told in an attractive way, easily intelligible by children, "the story of the planting of Plymouth and Boston" ('Pilgrims and Puritans.' Boston: Ginn & Co.) She has drawn textually more or less upon the original authorities, and, by means of plenty of maps, portraits, and views, has made the narrative impressive at every stage. Finally, the notes reserved for the end of the little volume serve for a glossary and for precise reference to the sources and to collateral reading. We have thus a very well-conceived and well-executed text-book, useful to young and old.

For aids to French instruction we can also recommend 'Florian's Fables,' selected and edited by the Rev. Charles Yeld, with illustrations; Molière's 'L'École des Femmes,' edited by Mr. G. Saintsbury; and the first three books of Thierry's 'Récits des Temps Mérovingiens,' edited by G. Masson and A. R. Ropes. The last two works bear the imprint of the Cambridge (Eng.) University Press, but all, like the first, come to us from Macmillan & Co.

An American *Notes and Queries* is to be launched in Philadelphia on May 5, under the editorship of Messrs. William S. and Henry C. Walsh. The place of publication is 619 Walnut Street.

The second number of the *Journal of Morphology* retains the high place taken by the first, and likewise fulfils the hope we expressed when speaking of the first number, that more vertebrate material would be forthcoming. Of the five pages, the illustrated three treat of the development of the lamprey, the lizard, and the opossum, respectively, and are by Professors Scott and Osborn and Mr. Orr of Princeton. The editor discusses, under the rather new term, "oökinesis," "The Kinetic Phenomena of the Egg during Maturation and Fecundation," and the number concludes with "Some Observations on the Mental Powers of Spiders," by George W. and Elizabeth G. Peckham, so interesting and instructive that it is almost ungracious to remark that the paper relates much more to the senses than to the "sense," and that Physiological-Psychology is very far from pure Morphology. The admirable "summary" of one of the papers accents the lack of that important feature with the others. Mechanically, the number is nearly perfect, but on p. 378 occurs "septæ for septa," and the contents of No. 1 has "philogenetic" for phylogenetic.

The second number of Dr. Stanley Hall's *American Journal of Psychology* has three leading articles—one "On the Relation of Neurology to Psychology," by Henry H. Donaldson; the second, "Insistent and Fixed Ideas," chiefly the story of a single case of insanity, by Prof. Edward Cowles, and "A Critique of Psycho-Physic Methods," by Joseph Jastrow. Book reviews and notes in abundance fill out the number.

Weeks have elapsed since we ought to have acknowledged receipt of the Proceedings of the American Society for Psychical Research for December (Boston: Damrell & Upham). A tilt between Mr. Edmund Gurney and Prof. C. S. Peirce occupies a large space in it. Miss Alice C. Fletcher treats at length of the supernatural among the Omaha tribe. There are the usual reports of committees. Perhaps the most curious paper is that by Dr. William James on the "Consciousness of Lost Limbs."

A second series of papers has begun to be issued by the Department of Philosophy of the University of Michigan, led off by Prof. John Dewey on the "Ethics of Democracy"; Prof. Alexander Winchell on "Evolution and its Speculative and Religious Consequences," etc. (Ann Arbor: Andrews & Co.).

The interesting observation is made by Dr. Underwood, Customs Medical Officer at Kiukiang, China, that the comparative immunity of the Chinese in that region from typhoid fever, notwithstanding most of the factors favoring it are present in abundance, may be attributed to the fact that "cold, unboiled water is rarely or never used when tea can be had." This piece of practical wisdom others than Chinese might bear in mind in dangerous localities. At Seoul, Corea, more than 6,000 deaths from cholera occurred in six weeks in 1886, in a population of 150,000, but none in the European community of 56 persons. Protection was attributed by Dr. Allen to general cleanliness and the use of only boiled and filtered water for drinking, cooking, and the toilet, and the non-purchase of food in the Corean market. The number of the foreigners is too small to carry great weight, and it is probable that other differences in life contributed to their exemption. But the water lesson, so far as it goes, is as applicable at home. These memoranda occur in the Thirty-third Medical Report, published by the British Inspector-General of Maritime Customs in China.

In a reprint from the *Medical News* of September 5, 1887, Professor Leeds of the Stevens Institute describes an investigation of an epidemic of typhoid fever at Mt. Holly, N. J., which is a fresh illustration that drinking water polluted with animal putrescence is the most common cause of such outbreaks. But much more important is the apparent discovery that minute quantities of alum (a half grain to the gallon) will sterilize the water by the precipitation of the bacteria with the organic matter when of peaty nature, or with alkalies previously added, the whole precipitate being removable by filtration. If this is confirmed, and the reputation of the reporter leaves no reason to doubt it, a very important agent has been added to the resources of preventive medicine.

Mr. Francis Parkman has lately apprised the Massachusetts Historical Society of the discovery in France, by the Abbé Casgrain of Quebec, of a mass of papers collected and arranged by Gen. Lévis, Montcalm's second in command, that relate to the American campaigns in which they participated. They fill eleven volumes, and have great historical importance.

The library of the late Baron S. de la Roche La Carelle, which is to be sold in Paris from April 30 to May 5, offers an especial attraction to collectors who affect fine bindings. Accompanying the large-paper catalogue sent us by Charles Porquet, 1 Quai Voltaire, are heliogravures, in black and white and in color, of the more beautiful specimens—Bibles and prayer-books, the Latin and Greek classics, histories, belles-lettres, science, and theology. These plates are themselves a valuable possession for the connoisseur. Some of the most famous private libraries in France have, in their breaking up, contributed to M. de La Carelle's, now in its turn to be dispersed. We must add mention of the Baron's etched portrait, the frontispiece of the catalogue. A sketch of his career as a bibliophile is furnished by M. Quentin-Bauchart.

In reviewing a novel by an American authoress, the Milan *Perseveranza* pays homage in dubious typography to "W. D. Flowel," "Mark Zwain," and "Francis Burnett." It is both just and natural to attribute these little slips to the printer, and not to the writer (except as a bad penman).

Those who, for the sake of the man or as a landmark in the history of American book-illustration, would be glad to own a likeness of the late Felix O. C. Darley, need seek no further than the gallery of Mr. F. Gutekunst, Philadelphia. The phototype portrait which he has just issued (in cabinet size) is both a very pleasing memorial of a genial man and artist of much individuality, and an admirable example of Mr. Gutekunst's permanent photographic process.

The Executive Committee of the Trustees of the American School of Classical Studies at Athens, with Prof. Lowell at their head, make an appeal for an endowment fund of one hundred thousand dollars. It appears that Dr. Charles Waldstein's acceptance of the permanent directorship in October next depends upon the raising of this endowment before August 1. Our readers are already aware of the principal facts in regard to the comfortable housing and the brilliant field work of the School. Subscriptions may be sent to the Treasurer, 67 Mt. Vernon St., Boston, or to Prof. Charles Eliot Norton, Cambridge, Mass.

—Messrs. Henry Holt & Co. write us that the statement in our recent review, 'Some New German Grammars,' that "Prof. Joynes . . . has once before worked over a grammar, viz., Otto's," is erroneous, "Prof. Joynes not having had to do with the revisions of 'Otto's German Grammar.'"

—To librarians desiring to extend or complete their collections of the publications of French societies we commend the 'Bibliographie des Sociétés savantes de la France,' by Eugène Lefèvre-Pontalis, recently issued in delightful typography from the Imprimerie Nationale at Paris, in a quarto volume of 142 pages. This work is published by the Department of Public Instruction, under the immediate superintendence of the Comité des travaux historiques et scientifiques. From the preface we learn that there are no less than 655 societies of various kinds, exclusive of the numerous associations for the encouragement of agriculture and horticulture, which are omitted, in 197 cities of France. Paris naturally takes the lead, 142 literary, artistic, or scientific associations holding their meetings in that city. There are 12 additional societies in the French colonies, 9 in Algiers and its provinces, 2 in Cochin China, and 1 in the island of Réunion. The publications of all these learned bodies, to the end of 1886, number about 15,000 volumes, and the present annual increase to this literature the author estimates as something like 500 volumes. An examination of the catalogue shows that the Paris societies alone have issued more than 4,700 volumes. The greater part of the institutions enumerated have come into existence in the fifty years between 1830 and 1880, but not a few of them are of considerable antiquity, no less than six dating from the seventeenth century. The Académie Française came into existence as early as 1635, but its first publication recorded, the widely known 'Dictionary,' did not appear until 1694; the seventh edition of it being published in 1878. The National Academy of Sciences, Arts, and Belles-Lettres of Caen is only seventeen years younger than the Paris Academy, having been founded in 1652. The Bordeaux Academy dates from 1662, the Paris Academy of Sciences from 1666, and the Academy of Nîmes was founded in 1682. The Académie des Jeux Floraux of Toulouse is stated to have existed in the fourteenth century under the name of "Collège du gai savoir et de la gaie science," and to have been reorganized in the fifteenth century by Clémence Isaure. In the month of September, 1694, letters patent were received from Louis XIV. under the present title, and two years

later there was published the first little volume of the series entitled, "Recueil de plusieurs pièces d'éloquence et de poésie," which extended almost without break to the year 1790, and was followed by the "Recueil de l'Académie," an unbroken series from 1806 to the present time, forming altogether a collection of 157 volumes. All six of these societies are still flourishing, but the Royal Academy of Painting and Sculpture of Bordeaux, which was founded in 1690, closed the first term of its existence in 1709. It was revived in 1769, but finally dissolved in 1793. Twenty-seven new societies are recorded as having been founded in 1881, twenty-one each in 1882 and 1883, twelve in 1884, four in 1885, and seven in 1886.

—This catalogue seems to be a most conscientious piece of work. Very few entries are to be discovered in which the facts aimed to be supplied are not fully and clearly set out. Care has been taken to indicate all indexes to series or parts of series of society publications, whether such indexes are separate volumes or are contained in certain volumes of the series. The peculiar arrangement of the work—primarily an alphabet of the departments of France, and under each name of a department a sub-alphabet of the towns in which societies are located—is not entirely the most convenient for a foreigner not thoroughly familiar with the geography of France, and it would have been an aid to the latter had there been added an alphabetical index of the names of the societies.

—'Auf Anlass des Volapüks' (Berlin: Robert Oppenheimer) is the title of an attractive brochure of forty-six pages, by Hugo Schuchardt, in which the author touches upon a number of linguistic questions. It was not so much Volapük itself, he tells us, that prompted him to write, as the hostility to it manifested by scientific linguists. He admits that many of the objections to Schleyer's language are reasonable, though he is not at all certain that it may not be best to let well enough alone (*das Bessere der Feind des Guten sein mag*). The root of this hostility he finds in one thing: Volapük is an artificial language. He instances as a sort of Volapük the "corrupt" Portuguese in which, 300 years ago, Chinese, Malays, Tamuls, and Hindus did business with each other, and which has maintained its existence to a considerable extent down to the present day, and that, too, in a tolerably uniform condition. This language was not gradually developed from the original Portuguese. "The Portuguese who landed on the shores of India came as Volapükists," and broke up their language for the natives, with the sole object of making themselves readily understood. From such a language Volapük is distinguished only by its broader basis and its well-laid plan. The author emphasizes the pressing need of a world-language, which he considers "the crown of all our international arrangements." Not only so, but he looks upon such a language as a scientific desideratum. Disagreeing entirely with Whitney, "who characterizes the thought of such a language as utopian, its realization as undesirable," he holds with Sayce that a world-language is "the dream of linguistic science," and holds with Sayce and Max Müller that such a language is a perfectly practicable thing. In the author's opinion, the Aryan type of language has been unduly exalted. It has come to be looked upon as "the rose among languages," but, like Milton, Schuchardt evidently feels the thorns more than he sees the rose. "Anomaly is not an accident in the Aryan languages, it is much rather a part of their very nature"; and in the discussion of these points he touches upon many an interesting linguistic problem. The classics come in for a word; and we find a pupil of Kallimachus-Schneider, Rost, Marquardt, Ritschl, and Jahn, throwing his influence against Latin and Greek. Systematic grammars he dislikes, and longs for an Ollendorf in the Cymric, Irish, Magyar, and Basque languages, which last, by the by, is looked upon by K. Hannemann as the most perfect of languages, and as suitable to become the world-language.

—In the Preface to the second volume of 'Deutschlands Geschichtsquellen im Mittelalter' (3d ed., Berlin, 1887), Professor Ottokar Lorenz of Vienna has declared war against the whole army of learned German historians—against all who have adopted the critical canons elaborated and expounded by such leaders as Ranke and Waitz. The great focus of German historical erudition, the 'Monumenta Germaniae Historica,' is ridiculed. The choice of sources printed in that collection, their arrangement, and the critical principles employed in editing them, are vehemently assailed. Here are a few of his utterances: "In the case of many of the Italian sources, one carries away the impression, that, to be consistent, they ought to print the whole of Muratori in the 'Monumenta.'" "It is simply incredible in what haphazard sequence the sources [in the 'Monumenta'] are arranged. Neither a geographical nor a chronological clue guides us through the labyrinth. . . . North and South, Italian and Slavonic, spiritual and temporal territories are mingled, as in a kaleidoscope, in these great unwieldy folios." "I am convinced that, if the method employed [in editing these sources] were placed, for examination, before a commission of exact philologians of the present day, they would there find in great part the very reverse of what the philology of to-day requires." Professor Lorenz thinks that they would condemn most of the "useless stuff" printed in the 'Monumenta' to be thrust into a great waste-paper basket. "As regards the critical value of any information, too much stress must not be laid upon the proof of the time of its origin. . . . In reality it makes no difference, as regards the fact, whether contemporary information concerning it exists, or not." "Looking at the matter as a whole, we must regard it as settled that the more recent informant knows a fact better [than an earlier one], or, at least, can know it better." Professor Lorenz's fire has been returned from at least three quarters: W. Wattenbach in the *Neues Archiv der Gesellschaft für ältere Deutsche Geschichte*, vol. xiii. (Heft 2); L. Weiland in Sybel's *Historische Zeitschrift*, vol. lviii, pp. 310–335 (a very caustic and logical rejoinder); and, most recently, O. Holder-Egger, 'Die Monumenta Germaniae und ihr neuester Kritiker' (Hanover: Hahn'sche Buchhandlung, 1887). Every rational historian must agree with them in their conclusions, that the words of Lorenz contain very little truth, that he is fighting with windmills, that, in fact, the adoption of his views would undermine the foundations of historical learning. Some may go even further and conclude that the eminent Vienna professor is *non compos mentis*.

THE ORDNANCE SURVEY.

The Ordnance Survey of the United Kingdom. By Lieut-Col. T. Pilkington White, R.E., Executive Officer of the Survey. London: Wm. Blackwood & Sons. 1886.

THERE are few objects produced by what may be considered scientific labors that are more universally used and presumably appreciated than maps, and yet the number of untechnical persons, even among the most educated, who can determine the relative value of the various maps that are published, is small indeed, especially in this country. This arises partly from an ignorance of the delicacy and minute exactitude required in surveys of large areas, and partly from the want of familiar use of the finer kinds of maps that are found in older countries. There are, roughly considered, two methods of making maps. The one which is generally employed in a new country, and is the result of individual enterprises or needs, consists in making surveys of individual parcels of land, and, when they have become sufficiently numerous, combining them together to form a map of a larger area, township, county, State, or Territory, as the case may be. The other method, which must necessarily be carried on by the general Government of the State or country involved, pursues the opposite course of first determining the larger outlines of the area to be mapped, the exact position of characteristic and evenly distributed points, and of afterwards filling in the intermediate spaces, with a detail and exactitude only limited by the amount of labor and money it may be found advisable to expend thereon.

The former method is the one generally employed in a country where land is plenty and money scarce, such as ours was a hundred years ago, and is one which for a time answers the required purposes; but it is also one which in the very nature of things involves an accumulation of errors; hence, the greater the area involved the greater these errors become. As the country becomes more thickly populated and richer, and lands consequently more valuable, the loss which accrues to the community at large from the absence of an exact definition of boundaries, both natural and artificial, increases in two-fold ratio, and it is only a question of time, and of the relative intelligence of the people as represented by its lawgivers, when the second method shall be employed, and it be legally declared the duty of the general Government to provide the very best and most exact basis of maps by a general triangulation of the whole country conducted on a uniform system.

It is in some such condition as this that the United States finds itself at the present day, and it might be well for those of our legislators who have cavilled at the time and expense involved in the general and local surveys undertaken at various times and places in this country, to study the experience of our mother country, as set forth in this little volume of Col. White's, which gives a brief and, so far as may be, a popular account of the Ordnance Survey of Great Britain—a survey which has served as a model for those which have been undertaken since its inception by the various governments of Europe. Its name is in one sense a misnomer, since it has no longer even a nominal connection with the Ordnance, having always been carried on by the Royal Engineers, and having received this name because up to 1855 it was under the direction of the Board of Ordnance, a sort of quartermaster's department of the British Government, which was done away with, owing to the inefficiency it displayed during the Crimean war. Its inception is ascribed by Col. White to two engineer officers of the army, who, after the battle of Culloden, became convinced of the need, as a war measure, of a topographical map of the Scottish Highlands. It was not, however, till towards the close of the eighteenth century that the primary triangulation, the necessary substructure of any systematic survey, was ac-

tually commenced, and this great work was finally completed in 1852, some sixty or seventy years after.

The cadastral maps based upon this triangulation have followed in due course, but with increasing scale and minuteness of delineation as their value became more generally known by actual use of those already finished, until now the whole kingdom is mapped on a scale of six inches to the mile, and the more thickly settled counties and towns on a larger scale, the principal being the so-called twenty-five-inch scale, on which an acre covers a square inch of map surface, and the still larger 127-inch scale used for cities. It were impossible to enumerate all the many practical uses which these maps subserve. A cadastral map is one made for governmental purposes of land valuation and assessment, and Col. White states that 450,000 of these maps have been furnished to the Boundary Commission alone, to say nothing of those supplied to the many other Government boards and commissions, including the Geological Survey, of whose work it constitutes the indispensable basis. Moreover, under the admirable system adopted, by which certain reputable private firms are appointed Government agents for their sale, any private person can procure whatever map he wishes at a fixed price sufficient to cover cost, generally a few shillings. They are bought in enormous quantities by the general public, and their value as an educational factor alone is worth many times the cost of the survey. The number of employees of the Survey in 1885 Col. White gives as 3,240 persons, exclusive of temporary aids, such as taping boys, etc.

It may be well to consider, in this connection, what progress we have made in this country towards procuring such a map, since it is not, as some seem to think, a scientific luxury, but a practical necessity, the want of which involves to the community at large an actual annual loss far greater than its cost, enormous though this may seem when the area to be mapped is compared with that of Great Britain. The probability of our being involved in another great war seems so remote that many might question its necessity for strategic purposes, but the same argument might have been used only a short time before the late civil war; and yet how much blood and treasure might have been saved to the nation had our armies been provided with correct topographical maps of the Southern States, only those actually engaged in the conduct of their operations can realize.

There is no want of scientific ability for carrying on such a work, and of individual push and energy we have more than sufficient. A large amount of money has been spent both by State and general Governments for surveys of various kinds, and yet the results, as far as maps go, have been most inadequate and disappointing, consisting of various detached and mostly incomplete pieces of work, wanting in correlation and uniformity of system, and, such as they are, often unobtainable by the general public except through political favoritism.

The greatest work of scientific mensuration that has been undertaken in this country has been the Coast Survey, which has reflected great credit on the scientific corps that has carried it on. Within a comparatively few years its scope was widened by act of Congress, and it was authorized to extend its triangulation into the interior of the country through such States as should have a geological survey, and it became thenceforward the Coast and Geodetic Survey. The triangulation done under this authorization has been necessarily very irregular and unsystematic in its development.

Soon after the war, Clarence King, then only about twenty-six years of age, conceived the bold project of carrying a topographical and geological survey across the Rocky Mountains, taking in the belt of country to be opened up by the recently authorized Pacific Railroads. In spite of the discouraging prognostications of older scientific men, who said that Congress would never vote the funds for such a gigantic project, and that it was impracticable to carry on such a work in the arid regions of the Great Basin, his youthful enthusiasm and personal influence succeeded in obtaining a generous appropriation from Congress, which was continued year after year, and towards the end without any personal effort on his part. With the aid of a corps of scientific assistants, he so successfully accomplished the laborious task that in less than ten years the form of these mountain regions, hitherto standing on the maps as a great blank, marked "the American Desert," was mapped with an accuracy of detail entirely unknown in the thickly settled regions of the East. After two seasons' experience had proved the practicability of such work, the emulation of the officers of the Engineer Corps, under whose able chief Mr. King had been directed to work, prompted them to start a systematic topographical survey of the entire Western United States on the same general system as that outlined by Mr. King, but giving greater prominence to the topographical aspect of the work as one of military necessity. This was called the Wheeler Survey, from the Engineer officer in charge.

When Mr. King's field work was completed, his topographers were joined to the so-called Hayden Survey, which had hitherto carried on geological reconnaissances in that country without maps, and under their direction the beautiful topographical map of Colorado was produced. Two organizations were now occupied in preparing a general topographical map of the Western United States, supported by annual appropriations. Unfortunately, in spite of the great area, their work frequently overlapped; the zeal of either to outstrip the other overcame discretion, and each accused the other to Congress of doing bad work. Congress, unable to decide on the technical merits of either case, referred to the National Academy of Sciences the question whether it would not be to the advantage of the public that the geological and topographical work of these surveys should be consolidated each under one head. The recommendations of the Academy in regard to the geological work were adopted by Congress, these various surveys were discontinued, and in their place the United States Geological Survey was organized on a permanent basis, as a bureau of the Interior Department, in March, 1879.

That portion of the recommendations, however, which related to the topographical work, and which involved the consolidation of all Government organizations for mensuration of the country, the Coast, Lake, and Land Office Surveys, as well as those above mentioned, ran counter to too many personal interests in the existing Government organizations, and was stricken out from the bill before it was passed. Thus the bill in its mutilated condition provided for a geological survey, but neglected to provide for the indispensable basis of such a survey, the making of a correct topographical map of the country, while discontinuing those already in progress. The first director of the Survey, Mr. Clarence King, construed this action of Congress as an intimation that the immediate preparation of a general geological map of the United States was not desired, and directed his investigations to regions of which maps already existed or could readily be prepared. A few years after, however, the statement was distinctly made by Congress, in the annual appropriation bill, that the making of a geological map of the whole United States was one of the duties of the Geological Survey. The present director, Prof. J. W. Powell, construing this statement as an authorization to provide the necessary basis for such a map, immediately instituted a topographical survey of the whole country, compiling on a uniform scale the material already prepared by previous surveys. He also secured in some cases the coöperation of State authorities in the preparation of maps of individual States, and pushed this branch of his work so vigorously that at the present time the topographers attached to the Geological Survey outnumber its geologists.

The propriety or advisability of having two such gigantic undertakings as the topographical and geological surveys of the whole of the United States (an area, excluding Alaska, of over three million square miles), conducted by a single organization, might be questioned. It might be said that one and the same man could hardly conduct impartially, and to the best advantage, two kinds of scientific work, each requiring the very highest degree of technical ability and experience in its particular department as a guarantee of the accuracy of its results. It might be further objected that the magnitude of the undertaking is in itself a danger to a Government scientific work, since the very numerous salaried positions involved offer great temptations to bring these positions under political influence; and no good and honest scientific work can be done which is not perfectly and entirely free from any suspicion of political influence or favoritism. The best answer to any such criticisms will be the success of the work itself, and if Director Powell is permitted to carry out this great undertaking on the plan set forth by his chief topographer in a recent number of *Science* (July 29, 1887), he will have made one of the most important contributions of the century to the industrial and educational development of the country as well as to its geological study.

It may be reserved for another generation of geologists to reap the full benefits of his labors, but, were these maps accessible to the public as soon as completed, immediate practical benefit could be derived by those inhabiting the areas already surveyed, and the reproach that the school maps of this country are inferior to those of the rest of the world, might be rapidly removed. According to Mr. Gannett, 120 sheets of the map, covering an area of 250,000 square miles, or 1-12 of the United States exclusive of Alaska, have now been engraved at an average cost of $3 per square mile. Unfortunately, under the existing laws, these maps are destined exclusively to serve as the basis of a geological map, and no provision is made for their publication except as illustrating geological memoirs. Many years may elapse ere the geological mapping of these regions, necessarily a much slower work, is completed and the maps are issued. Even then they will be available only for geologists.

A leading member of Congress, when urged some fifteen years since to introduce a measure providing for the sale of Government scientific publications on the plan so long and successfully in operation in Great Britain, declined to do so, on the ground that the feeling of members of Congress, that it was beneath the dignity of our Government to enter into commercial trading, would render its passage impossible. Since that time it has not seemed to the majority of

Congress undignified for our Government to buy silver at 85 to 90 cents per 412½ grains and sell it for $1.00. Moreover, provision has actually been made in the law creating the Geological Survey for the sale of a limited number of its memoirs at cost of publication. This provision, so much desired by that large class of scientific men who, through want of political influence, had been unable to obtain such publications, works a certain injustice to the members of the Survey itself, since, no provision being made for the cost necessarily attending the sale and distribution of such memoirs, it has to be taken from the amount appropriated for scientific work, and no corresponding pecuniary advantage can inure to the Survey, as all sums received from such sales must be covered into the Treasury of the United States.

It seems, therefore, that a great benefit would be conferred upon the community at large by the passage of a bill providing for the sale not only of these maps, but of all Government publications which may be of interest to the public at large, at cost of printing and material used; and, further, that a given number of responsible booksellers at the principal centres of population should be designated as Government agents to conduct the details of such sale, and authorized to add a reasonable percentage to the cost sufficient to remunerate themselves for the labor and expense involved. This increase of cost to the public would be more than offset by the increased facility in obtaining such works, and the members of the various Government departments from which they proceed would be relieved of an irksome and often ungrateful task.

SAINTSBURY'S ELIZABETHAN LITERATURE.—II.

A History of Elizabethan Literature. By George Saintsbury. Macmillan & Co. 1887.

MR. SAINTSBURY'S remarks upon Shakspere will seem to some extreme in their praise; yet on the whole they strike us as containing many of the best observations in the book. Even here, however, he seems not to comprehend a position he is attacking. We are not arguing for the correctness of the German claim, that it was they who taught the English to understand Shakspere; but it is surely just to have it fairly stated. They—at least those of them entitled to speak with authority—have never taken the ground which is here vehemently assailed. What they maintain is, not that Germany taught England to admire her greatest author, but that it was Lessing and his school who were the first to point out that Shakspere was not an inspired barbarian, and that the qualities in him which his countrymen were wont to apologize for were the very ones of which they ought to be proud. It is no reply to this to say that Ben Jonson and Dryden admired him and that Pope and Dr. Johnson edited him. Ben Jonson said, also, that "Shakspere lacked art." In that brief sentence he compressed the criticism about the poet which was dominant in England for nearly two centuries. It can be found more or less plainly manifested in the writings of all the authors who have just been mentioned. From that idea the German school has always been free; and it early set out to show that art was the quality by which Shakspere was supremely characterized. Its claim to have originated this view of the poet may or may not have foundation in fact; but, before being denied, it deserves at least to be comprehended.

We have no space to comment upon several other points which betray errors of conception if not errors of fact. It remains to say a few words about the treatment of the period as a whole. It is a period of preëminent interest in English literature, and the difficulty of discussing it satisfactorily is necessarily increased by the limited scale on which the work is planned. Mr. Saintsbury has still further increased this inevitable difficulty by adopting the theory that, in order to understand the literary history of a period, "it is necessary to study the minor as well as the major illustrations of it"—which of course can only mean studying a small portion of the minor illustrations of it. He has therefore given much space to the inferior men whom the literary resurrectionists of later days have from time to time dug up, but have never succeeded in reviving. Yet, with all this, he has failed to indicate the grand central characteristics which mark the period he describes. Perhaps it would not be unjust to say that he has failed to see them. In that period the literary aspirations of men found their expression in the drama, just as in the age of Anne and the first Georges they did in the essay, just as they now do in the novel. The drama was the national literature. Its weakness and its strength were alike due to that fact. Everybody tried to write for the stage who could write at all, just as everybody now tries to write a novel. The result was, at times, as distressing in the one case as it is in the other. But the drama had this advantage as a national literature over both the essay and the novel, that it could make use of the double vehicle of prose and poetry, but especially of the latter. In the hands of a man of genius it could reach the highest elevation, for it could embody itself in the highest form of literary expression. But from poetry the novel of this century and the essay of the last have been practically divorced.

Because the Elizabethan drama, as the national literature, voiced the feelings and aspirations of the time, the result inevitably followed that everything which sought to interest or to influence men was apt to take upon itself that form. Politics, religion, personalities, atrocious crimes—every event that was talked about or thought about—was brought upon the stage. The period cannot be understood without having this fact clearly in mind; but there is nothing in this volume to show that Mr. Saintsbury has ever heard of it. He has devoted three pages, for instance, to "Gorboduc," and yet has not observed that this so-called first English tragedy is nothing but a pamphlet in disguise, that its aim is primarily political, and only in a limited sense literary. Its object was to persuade the Queen to marry, and to settle, by the results of marriage, the succession to the throne. It was a matter of supremest consequence to English Protestants at that time to have an heir apparent of the right faith while such an heir presumptive as Mary Stuart was in existence. If other proof were needed of the fact, the speech of the Counsellor *Arostus*, with which the tragedy closes, would settle the question decisively. The character of the piece was naturally decided to a great extent by the political motives that prompted its composition, and not by any conscious attempt to introduce into our tongue tragedies modelled after Seneca.

The fecundity of the Elizabethan drama, with all that results from it, was likewise due to the fact that it was the national literature. Of this Mr. Saintsbury has scarcely taken note. Yet it was something inevitable in a period when everybody wrote for the stage, when plays had no run whatever in the modern sense, and when (originally, at least) they were never even acted on successive nights. Most of the literature of this sort has perished, but there is plenty of proof that its production was enormous. This is something that implies much more than it says. Mr. Saintsbury looks down in a superior way upon the harmless drudges who delve in what "some moderns call the 'Bio-Bibliographical' side of the matter"; but if he had taken the pains to consult so common a work as Henslowe's 'Diary,' he would have seen clearly many things which he now sees dimly or does not see at all.

Take the case of Decker, a dramatist he admires. By collating the references in the work just mentioned, he would find that between the beginning of 1598 and the end of 1602, that author produced ten entire plays of his own, wrote in conjunction with others twenty-nine, and made additions to and alterations in half-a-dozen more. Thus, during the space of four years, he was concerned to a greater or less extent in the production of about forty plays; yet of these forty, if we can judge from the titles, only four appear to have survived. This is far from being a singular instance. The faults of the Elizabethan drama are largely due to the fact that it was almost always written hurriedly, written against time. To that is due much of the crudeness and imperfection that mark it—not anything peculiar in the character of the men or of the period. But the subject is too vast to be much more than indicated in this place.

Of Mr. Saintsbury's critical estimates we purpose to speak only in general terms. These touch matters upon which no two persons will ever agree, and each has a right to his preferences. There is much, however, found here that will exact respect even when it does not command assent. The author's views are those of a man who not only has a firm faith in his opinions, but has generally good reasons to show for his faith. There are paragraphs and even long passages which strike us as of the highest merit, and that, too, when with the views set forth we should have no sympathy. But here, as elsewhere throughout the work, there is another side to the shield. Against the places mentioned are to be set Mr. Saintsbury's occasional mighty admirations for petty men and petty productions, his capacity as a professional critic of finding inimitable what the rest of the world looks on as being simply endurable; and, worse than all, that bias of judgment which is the result of importing politics into literature. The death of King Charles secretly troubles Mr. Saintsbury's head as much as it avowedly did Mr. Dick's. It leads, perhaps unconsciously, to extravagant statements, and gives to some of his remarks a tone unsuited to literary history. The current critical jargon which does so much valiant duty for ideas, reaches perhaps its highest possible climax of absurdity in speaking, as is done in this volume, of Milton's "middle-class Philistinism" (p. 389). Such a phrase recalls the wish expressed in Wordsworth's famous sonnet that Milton were living at this hour, and leads one to feel the truth of his words, "England hath need of thee"—for she has become a fen of stagnant literary waters indeed.

It is necessary to talk plainly in this matter, because it is evident that Mr. Saintsbury has little idea of the toleration of which no one stands more in need than himself. There is sometimes a sad, and sometimes a scornful, pity expressed for those who do not share his sentiments. Of course, you are ignorant, or, if not ignorant, you are dense, or some other one of those epithets in the use of which the bumptiousness of literary criticism finds supreme delight. For Mr. Saintsbury takes himself

very seriously. He possesses plainly the fullest conviction that when he has spoken, the last word has been uttered. Very rarely does he admit the existence of any lingering doubt in his mind that he has penetrated to the inmost citadel of truth. Once, indeed, he does seem to hesitate—but it is for a moment only. This is in his remarks upon the question whether the primacy in English poetry is to be accorded to Spenser, or Milton, or Shelley. Shakspere is, of course, excluded from consideration, or, in Saintsburian speech, he is put aside as "*hors concours*" (p. 93). In regard to the comparative merits of these three he confesses that the reader has a right to demand his opinion. He recognizes the momentous consequences of his decision. But while he feels the gravity of the situation, he meets it manfully. He has, as he assures us, "no intention of shirking the difficulty." Therefore, after balancing the merits of the three poets, he determines upon the whole to give the palm to Spenser. To most of our frivolous race, all this will seem supremely comical. There are those, possibly including Mr. Saintsbury, who will look upon it as an act of "derring-do," worthy of the Red-Cross Knight himself. Shelley is too great a genius to be made permanently ridiculous by the antics of his unskilful admirers, whose performances have already largely contributed, and are likely long to contribute, to the gayety of nations. This, serious as it purports to be, is perhaps the most entertaining of any yet produced. We frankly confess to a suspicion that nobody would have noted the absence of Mr. Saintsbury's opinion on the matter if he had left it out, and that nobody will be much impressed by it now that he has put it in—unless it be some outraged fellow-devotee of the Shelley cult.

JAMES'S MANCHURIA.

The Long White Mountain; a Journey in Manchuria. By H. E. M. James. Longmans, Green & Co.

MANCHURIA, a name unknown to the natives, and coined by the French geographers from the vague term Manchau, was that part of the Chinese empire lying north of Corea and China proper, and between Mongolia and the Pacific Ocean. The Russians have helped mightily to make the term definite, and to rectify the frontiers with a science of which they are masters. First securing Siberia, they succeeded, during the Crimean war, in planting outposts on Chinese soil, and then, in 1860, claimed the occupied territory, which was in area as large as France. Ignatieff, seizing his supreme opportunity when China was helpless and the British napping, added this vast domain to the Czar's empire. China lost her outlet in the north Pacific, while Russia gained new seaports, and Corea a dreaded frontager. Manchuria now means that portion of the Chinese empire between Mongolia and the Russian maritime province of Primorsk; or, in Chinese view, the three provinces of Shing-King, Kirin, and He-Lung Kiang; that is, about one-half of the old region.

For ages Manchuria has been the breeding-ground of nations. In this land of mountains, rivers, glens, and grassy plains, fertile, healthful, and well-watered, have originated those various peoples called Ta-tars, or tributary tribes. Here have dwelt the ancestors of the Coreans and Japanese, the Huns, Turks, and Manchius. Once vassals of the Middle Kingdom, they have turned successful rebels or victorious conquerors. With almost the regularity of a law of nature, the roving and scattered tribes, acting under some obscure impulse, would consolidate and move southward into China, westward into Europe, or eastward into Corea or Japan. In different ages, and speaking varying dialects, these emigrants from the north Asian highlands would take or receive different names; though each wave of humanity was but another overflow of the same geyser-like spring whose rhythm forms the ethnic history of the oldest continent. Despite the Great Wall, first built to keep back these hordes, China has been again and again invaded, conquered, and governed by foreigners. In every case, however, the pen and letter have been in the long run mightier than the sword and spear. China has been able to tame, civilize, and educate her oppressors, and more than once overthrow the alien and reinstate a native dynasty. The last outburst from the north was that of the fierce Manchius who in 1644 conquered the whole empire and people, and imposed on every head that mark of subjugation, the queue. The Chinese, in turn, educating and civilizing their conquerors, have imposed their language on their rulers, and are now about to absorb all Ta-tar land. In this way, Manchuria has been alternately filled and depleted. Unlike previous movements, the emigration is now from the south. The new north-land is, to the crowded Chinese empire, what Manitoba and Australia are to Great Britain. So great is the pressure of population and so valuable the farms, that "the neutral strip" of fifty miles bordering Corea, unoccupied and palisaded off for 200 years, is now blooming with gardens and grain fields, while Chinese towns of brick and wood on the Yalu enjoy a good river trade. As the Chinese farmer rises at two A. M., works till dark, and goes to bed after supper in order to be in the field at the first croak of the raven, the waste "no-man's land" of a century ago is now a granary. Under the plea of abolishing the increasing brigandage, China was in 1874 just to Corea and generous to herself, and, in imitation of Russia, added this strip to her territory.

Of the three Manchurian provinces, Shing-King and Kirin are the most fertile, and abundantly stocked with horses, cattle, swine, and grain. The latter condensed into pork is transportable on the hoof, and the droves of pigs going southward are a noticeable feature of the roads. About one-third of the grain is further reduced in the still, and, as whiskey, serves to keep society from becoming too quiet. Evidently, from what one gathers from Mr. James's account, a railroad, when built, will pay dividends. The area of Manchuria is about 260,000 square miles, equal to Austria-Hungary, and larger than Texas. Its population is reckoned at from 20,000,000 to 30,000,000. Partly because of the immediate pressure and even menace of Russia, and partly from the sentimental necessity of holding inviolate the ancestral home of the imperial dynasty, the Pekin Government keeps this frontier most carefully guarded. The forts are armed with Krupp's cannon, and the rifles are of the latest and costliest pattern. Yet along with breech-loading repeaters, often rusty, the soldiery still cling to the bow and arrow; and the extravagant use of banners—survivals of the old lines of beaters and archers in the royal tiger hunts on the mountains—impedes soldierly movements, and furnishes jest to the Cossacks. Outside the towns and cities, despite the generally settled life and safe condition of the roads, the brigands are still able to earn a fair living and occasionally death by cangue and mutilation. Better roads, coinage, and government are still needed.

This information, with a clear, compact, and informing résumé of recent Chinese history, domestic and foreign, is furnished in the first six chapters of the work before us, which really comprises two books in one. The author, H. E. M. James, of the British Civil Service in India, is evidently accustomed to obtain and handle statistics and present them in readable form. His style is pleasing and straightforward, and combines qualities which make his book the best on the subject. A thorough-going "Britisher," he is very apt to build morality on revenue, and heartily believes in and defends the opium trade. He is fond, too, of flings at Americans, of whom he has the usual knowledge gained in *Punch*, in English novels, and possibly in the hotels and on railway cars.

At chapter vii he begins the story of his journeyings, and we enjoy the flavor of personal adventure. After years of desk-work in Bombay, he was fortunate in securing a fellow-traveller in Lieut. Younghusband, and the two resolved on exploring a land which they suspected the map-makers dreamed of rather than surveyed. Further, the Long White Mountain, the centre of Chinese and Corean myth and poetry, had never been ascended by a European. Their journey, in 1886, was made on pony and mule. Concerning the latter beast, Mr. James has much to say. One familiar with men and mules on the Raritan and Lehigh tow-paths will declare that between these and the Manchiu variety there is surprisingly little difference. Geographically at antipodes, they possess those original and peculiar touches of nature that make the whole world kin. Of course there is a difference in the Englishman's and Yankee's way of telling a funny thing, but the mule in Mr. James's pages amply corrects any tendency to dulness. Despite midges and gadflies outdoors, and mosquitoes and cockroaches inside, the travellers, in full physical health, and well fortified with insect-powder, enjoyed every hour. Like ships that in strange seas sail over islands, cities, and land which the unrevised map declares ought to be just there, but which are not, the travellers easily and unconsciously passed over the "chains of snowy peaks, from 8,000 to 10,000 feet high," which even the maps of the Royal Geographical Society still preserve on paper. They found, instead, chains of volcanic hills from 3,000 to 8,000 feet high. This highest figure was reached only by the lordly peak called by the Manchius Shan Alin, by the Coreans Pék-tu (White Head), and by the Chinese Chang-peh Shan, or Long White Mountain. In addition to its interest in physical geography, legend locates here the miraculous origin of the founder of the imperial Manchiu dynasty. A pure virgin, bathing in the Dragon-Prince's pool in the crater-top of the mountain—of which a beautiful colored picture is given as the frontispiece of the book—conceived from eating the red fruit dropped by a magpie, the bird now held sacred by the Manchius. To the child born of this virgin, the sons of Heaven trace their line. From this pool also, according to tradition, issue the rills which form not only the Sungari, but also the Tumen and the Yalu, which, if true, makes Corea an island. Despite having lived on Manchurian pork and beans, and thus economized, the travellers' provisions failed, and for their stomachs' sake they were obliged to take the back track without fully solving this problem. The adjective "long" in the mountain's name refers either to time or distance, and that of "white" most probably to the general color of the rocks and gravel rather than to the snow which covers the ever-white peak only a portion of the year.

The author's journeys into the other provinces, and into Russian territory bordering the Pacific Ocean, allowed him to study the Cossacks, and especially the Coreans, who in late years have so numerously emigrated across the Tumen. His narrative, besides great interest to the student, the would-be traveller, and the missionary, has value to military men. His powers of observation are excellent, and his very interesting paragraphs on religion, superstitions, archæology, natural resources, household equipment, inn and caravansary life, mule behavior, and many other subjects, tempt us sorely to quotation. Meeting most of the Scotch and French missionaries, he gives his sympathetic judgments of them and their work, and in crisp sentences the results of his conversations with them. As a popular and accurate description of Manchuria, we heartily commend this book, which, in mechanical outfit, has a dress worthy of its sterling contents. Print, paper, binding, map, illustrations, index, and furnishings are of the best.

THE DICTIONARY OF NATIONAL BIOGRAPHY.

Dictionary of National Biography. Edited by Leslie Stephen. Vols. XII–XIV. Conder–D'Eyncourt. Macmillan & Co.

THE reviewer has often to contrast his own slowness in reading, pondering, and expressing judgment, with the rate at which a work like this Dictionary is put through the press. Certainly we should have been prompter with these volumes if we had had anything further to say in praise of one of the best edited, as it is one of the most useful and important, enterprises of the kind known to our day and generation. We have, we believe, turned every leaf of the series thus far, stopping to read and to enjoy, and we have grounds for saying that the editor and his staff have maintained a remarkable evenness of execution and justness of proportion, and above all a spirit of simple truthfulness which becomes the more impressive the more one makes himself acquainted with the contents. Doubtless we owe a great deal of this excellence to Mr. Stephen himself, in whom these literary and moral qualities are conspicuous, and whose articles (collectively, the best in the Dictionary) are models for all his colaborers. He has known, we may be sure, how to exclude what was irrelevant or inflated, and to insist on the compactest rendering of essential facts, without barring out characteristic and enlivening anecdote such as abounds in these volumes, and makes them companionable for the idle as for the serious hour.

We have heretofore called our readers' attention to the fact that this Dictionary not only supplies for the great British worthies biographical sketches unsurpassed in length, or in authority, or in literary grace, by those in the best cyclopædias; it also most properly and helpfully records the lives of a vast middle class whose names either never get into the dictionaries at all, or are inadequately and briefly dismissed. One cannot exaggerate the help thus afforded the student of every branch of human activity, and particularly of English literature. Nowhere else, for example (annotations apart), exists such a convenient and satisfactory biographical complement to Pepys's and Evelyn's Diaries, to Boswell's Johnson. We have also pointed out the interest which Americans have in this Dictionary, especially in the case of the founders of the several colonies, but also all along the line down to the present time. Not only are we concerned with the Rev. John Davenport, the head of the New Haven settlement; with Stephen Day, the first New England printer; with Thomas Danforth, Deputy Governor of Massachusetts and first treasurer of Harvard College; with Copley, the artist, and his more renowned son, Lord Lyndhurst (both native Bostonians). Dampier, too, "that bold sea-rover," who took a breathing spell between his piracies in Virginia; Captain Cook, who skirted our Pacific coast; General and Admiral Cornwallis, our foes in the Revolution; the Royalist De Lanceys; the Earl of Stair, who opposed in the Lords the making war on the colonies; Dr. Thomas Cooper, friend and follower to America of Priestley, and defendant in one of our famous state trials as the libeller of President John Adams; Sir John Compton, who got into diplomatic hot water for recruiting soldiers for the Crimean war in a land lately bent on buying "Hungarian bonds"; "Fanny" Wright (Mme. Darusmont), an original experimenter in slave emancipation, and forerunner of woman's rights; George Frederick Cooke, the actor, whose body lies buried in this city; Sir Samuel Cunard, son of a Philadelphia merchant—these and many others touch our history in various memorable ways. Shall we not add Darwin to the list, through his American friendships, and notably with Asa Gray?

The first volume of this Dictionary was published in 1885, but a wise discretion has permitted the introduction of persons whose death occurred after that date. Thus, Samuel Cousins, the engraver, died in 1887. It is curious to observe that Edward Dutton Cook, here commemorated as having contributed the dramatic and theatrical lives in A to the first two volumes, died in 1883, before they appeared. The greatest names in the three volumes before us are Anthony Ashley Cooper (first Earl of Shaftesbury), the poet Cowper, Cranmer, Cromwell, George Eliot, Cruikshank, Curran, Dalton, Darwin, Sir Humphrey Davy, Defoe, and De Quincey. Of minor importance, if not all less known, are John Douglas Cook, founder of the *Saturday Review*; Sir Wm. Fothergill Cooke, joint inventor of the telegraph with Wheatstone; George Crabbe; John Wilson Croker; Crompton, inventor of the spinning mule; Cruden, of the Bible Concordance, whose career was a very singular one; William Cumming, the pioneer in modern ophthalmology; Dallmeyer, the optician; Grace Darling; Thomas Day, author of 'Sanford and Merton,' and perhaps the most amusing character not devoid of nobility to be met with in these pages; John T. Delane, editor of the *Times*; and the Chevalier D'Éon. Mr. Stephen has reserved for himself Cowper, whose name he remarks that the poet himself pronounced Cooper, whose letters he regards as the best in the language, and whose poetry, he thinks, has been best judged by Sainte-Beuve; Crabbe, in whose favor, intellectually considered, he cites some eminent and weighty admirers, including the late Edward Fitzgerald, yet seems to approve his "system (less common than might be wished) of periodical 'incremations'" of his voluminous MSS.; George Eliot, who is rather briefly treated, but with marked discrimination; Defoe; and De Quincey, on whose best work and his English style Mr. Stephen bestows the highest praise. All these articles can be read with the greatest profit, and should be accessible in every library in the land—to say nothing of "every gentleman's library," whither this Dictionary should find its way, even if merely in recognition of so laudable and costly an enterprise.

We have not examined these latest issues for errors, but we will instance one in the sketch of the eminent philanthropist, James Cropper, whose death occurred in 1840, not, as stated, in 1841.

What I Remember. By Thomas Adolphus Trollope. Harper & Bros. 1888.

MR. TROLLOPE is not quite an octogenarian; but, as he says, he has "lived a long time," and his memory has stored up a great deal of interesting information gleaned from many lands and in contact with many distinguished persons. He has had no adventures and shared in no great events; his life has been essentially a private one, with considerable literary work in it and a large portion of social enjoyment; he owes more to his circumstances than to himself for what makes his recollections worth publishing, and hence the subject of this volume is not so much his own autobiography as the people and the things he has observed. The controlling influences of his own career were his parents. His father made the earlier years gloomy with his misfortunes and his bad temper, though the son speaks of him always with respect for his strong qualities and with affectionate condonement of his weaknesses; and his mother made his literary future possible for him, and gave it direction. We already know the family from his brother Anthony's account; and, while he endeavors to soften the harder lines of that narrative, and particularly to mitigate the passages descriptive of his mother's last years, he leaves us with substantially the same impression of the character of the family. Mrs. Trollope was the capable head of it, and after her journey to America had proved profitable in the unexpected way of making her famous, she was its real support. The sketch of her, however, writing novels on a diet of green tea and laudanum, attending meanwhile to her dying son and her impracticable husband, is one that excites commiseration; and, after the worst of her ills were gone by, her journeys in search of material for volumes of travel, and, finally, for a place to settle in for the remainder of her life, are far from being cheerful to contemplate. The life of her son was happier. Probably, even in what seems to us his dreary school days at Harrow and Winchester, and his hardly more fortunate sojourn at Oxford, he had more pleasure than the reader would think possible; and after he had failed to find his calling in pedagogy, and had settled on the career of a literary hack in Florence, he thought himself very well off. He was twice married, and in the retrospect regards his lot as a felicitous one; and this contentment with what he has been and has enjoyed, diffuses through the pages a cordial and optimistic spirit which is the chief ingredient in the pleasure his story affords.

The narrative is principally made up of unexciting anecdotes, and the best of these are about eccentric persons, notable in their little communities, but not known beyond them. Trollope was a traveller, in a sense, for most of his life, since he spent it mainly in Italy, and naturally saw many people in whom only his eyes took interest. From America he brought back little or nothing except a hospitality for things American, but in Paris he saw Chateaubriand and in Vienna Metternich, and in Italy he formed acquaintance with Dickens, the Brownings, George Eliot, Lewes, and Garibaldi. He brings to mind the curious state of literary Paris at that time when his mother wrote of Victor Hugo, "I might say that of him France seems to be ashamed," and he testifies to "the absolute truth of the above representation of the prevalent Parisian feeling at that day respecting Victor Hugo." He repeats the remark of Metternich that "the most unpleasant part of the circumstance connected with dealing with Napoleon arose from the fact that he was not a gentleman in any sense

of the word, or anything like one," and adds that of course Metternich was not thinking of the matter of birth. He prints several letters of the English nobilities mentioned above, but they have no interest, intellectually or personally. A jaunt with George Eliot into the mountains north of Florence, and some glimpses of Mrs. Browning, are the best he has to relate, and the singular fact that Landor, of impeccable English, dropped his aspirates, is the only striking reminiscence of that great literary name. Garibaldi he saw once alone, when the General made an early morning call on him before he was up, and he describes the appearance of the hero in his red shirt, gray trousers, and foraging cap, with great particularity, even to the fine lines round his eyes and the steady far-away gaze of their clear blue orbs. They talked of Italy, "of course": "'As for the priests,' said he, 'they ought all to be put to death, without exception and without delay.' 'Rather a strong measure,' I ventured to say. 'Not a bit too strong, not a bit,' he rejoined warmly. 'Do we not put assassins to death? And is not the man who murders your soul worse than the man who only kills your body?'" Afterwards he saw Garibaldi at the end of his career in Palermo, when he was borne through the crowded streets on a litter, and all the people stood silent for fear of exciting him with their shouts. But of the Italian Revolution he has really very little to say.

The reader of these pages, however, as has been indicated, must not look for anything very novel, exceptional, or striking. It is a book of gossip, of conversation made public, memories of the ways and the look of old London, and the unreformed schools, of Paris and Brittany, Vienna in the days when the city wall protected aristocratic society, of Florence and Lucca and Modena in the times of the Grand Dukes, with their queer little courts and receptions at which the guests, even the English, filled their pockets with fowls and hams and jelly with busy and open hands, the Americans alone refraining; and all this world is far enough away now to have the attraction of manners gone by. One bit that is of literary interest here we find in connection with Sir George Musgrave, whose character is admirably drawn. He is the owner of the Luck of Edenhall, and, though a careful man, insists on his guests handling freely the magic goblet, in order that the "Luck" may have some meaning. A footnote informs us that he once "picked a crow" with Longfellow for representing "the 'Luck' to have been broken, which Sir George considered a flight of imagination quite transcending all permissible poetical license." Other similar trifles there are which we might readily select, but we have given a taste of the plums, and the reader can better suit his own palate for himself. He will not weary in Mr. Trollope's company if he makes modest demands, and has an interest in human nature in its eccentric and grotesque forms—especially if he is a judicious skipper.

Addresses (Educational).—Uppingham School Songs and Borth Lyrics.—Poems and Translations. By Edward Thring, (late) Headmaster of Uppingham School. London: T. Fisher Unwin.

By the death of Rev. Edward Thring, the distinguished Headmaster of Uppingham School, England has lately lost the most conspicuous figure which has appeared in her school world since the time of Arnold. He is the only English schoolmaster of the present generation who can be said to have exercised a distinct influence on educational thought outside of England. His 'Theory and Practice of Education,' reviewed in these columns five years ago, has had a wide circulation in America. Though based on English experience, its vigorous dealing with the fundamental problems of education appealed to earnest thinkers everywhere, and many an American teacher would acknowledge a deep debt of gratitude to Mr. Thring's pages for stimulus and inspiration. What he preached about school work and organization in his books, Thring tried to realize in actual fact in the great school which he created, and over which he ruled for more than thirty years. Of the scope and direction of his work at Uppingham not much has hitherto been known in America, but an article on the subject is, we understand, soon to be published by one of our foremost popular magazines, and doubtless in due time some record of his strenuous life, with its aims and accomplishments, will be given to the public.

From the preface written by his daughter, we learn that the manuscripts for the three new volumes of his writings which are the subject of this notice, were placed in the hands of his publishers only a few days before he was seized with the illness which proved so suddenly fatal in October last. We are also told that the two volumes of verse were more particularly intended for the boys, past and present, of Uppingham School. Part of this verse has something more than a local significance, to which reference will be made hereafter, but a wider interest will be felt in the seven addresses on educational subjects which make up the larger volume. One of these, written by request for the Teachers' Association of Minnesota, and read before that body, will have a special interest for American readers. Two deal chiefly with the question of women's education, and the other four with general aspects of the great teaching problem. In all these addresses, teachers will find much strong and stimulating food for thought. They are not calculated to induce complacency with accepted methods and popular ideals of education. Thring's whole life was a fight against cramping tradition on the one hand, and, on the other, the tinkering interference of State-appointed amateurs with the skilled teacher and his original power. None was more ready than he to cast aside the deadness and narrowness of old systems, but to have the dead hand of official routine applied to the schools of a country seemed to him a greater danger still. To him, all true education is life acting on life; and throughout these addresses we find a steady protest against influences which in school work hinder the freedom of this action. Too much external control, too much inspection, with its fixed patterns and standards, excessive competition, the idolatry of prize winning, the stuffing of the mind with mere masses of knowledge—all these interfere with the healthy development of life power.

"Like all other high arts, life must have free play or there can be no teaching." "Teaching and examinations are deadly enemies as soon as examinations cramp the liberty necessary for teaching." "A few fragments of knowledge, acquired at the cost of blunted hope, and loss of power, and false ideas of life, and no skill, and no eye for skill, are not worth the cost."

Mr. Thring points out that in a busy, democratic century, which will be satisfied with nothing short of universal education—a century, too, which has seen a greater expansion of the facts which make up the sum of human knowledge than all previous ones put together—the educational problem takes new forms, and that we cannot rightly deal with it unless we have regard to its actual data. This is the pregnant way in which he summarizes them for the teachers of Minnesota:

> "All are to be taught,
> And knowledge is infinite.
> And life is short,
> And average brains are weak,
> And few have time to spare,
> And time is short even to them."

To grapple with this problem, he urges that we must first "smash up the idolatry of knowledge," and let the aim of our education be primarily to call out thought and strengthen mind—in his opinion a higher and entirely different process from putting in knowledge and heaping up facts. We cannot make every mind a comprehensive receptacle of knowledge, but we can and ought to give to the average mind intelligent skill in the use of its own powers. Mr. Thring lays great stress upon the necessity that honor to lessons should be shown by the rooms in which they are given. "Life and death," he says, "can depend on a room. Christianity itself cannot lodge large families in one room in a civilized country and remain Christian. The Christianity either breaks up the one room into many, or the one room breaks up the Christianity." So, after describing the ordinary schoolroom with its shabbiness, its "walls bare, unsightly, and grimy, or grimly austere with maps and blackboards," he adds that "it is hard to escape something of the pig if lodged in a sty. The schoolboy has not escaped, and never will, till 'Honor to Lessons' is the first article in the nation's secular creed. Everything that meets the eye ought to be as perfect, according to the work and workers, as human skill can make it." In this connection a strong plea is made for more attention to pictorial teaching, with its power of leaving vivid impressions, and suggestions are given for making the decoration of schoolrooms serve high educational purposes.

Perhaps we could not better illustrate the prevailing spirit of these vigorous addresses, which we trust will find many American readers, than by quoting one final passage: "The true definition of a teacher is, 'one who sows seeds of life and fosters them.'" It was in trying to realize this definition in his own life work that Thring became the greatest English schoolmaster of the present generation.

We have only space left to refer very briefly to the volume of verse entitled 'Uppingham School Songs and Borth Lyrics.' Matthew Arnold, in one of his critical essays, remarks that "the future of poetry is immense." The volume before us certainly suggests one vast field of influence which our poets have left as yet almost untouched. The man or woman who could cast the occupations, trials, temptations, and dreams of the schoolboy's life into the furnace of poetic thought, and give us songs glowing with true poetic fire, and strong to stimulate and inspire the young, has before him a whole world which even genius might well feel proud to conquer. Mr. Thring's efforts in this direction are an interesting study. The high and pure sentiment which marks all his verse is seen not to be incongruous with hearty sympathy for the boisterous energy of youth.

Wedded to the music which he cultivated so assiduously as a part of his school system, these songs must have had a healthy and inspiring influence on the boys for whom they were written. As we have said before, most of his verse in these two small volumes is of local interest, but in the attempt to idealize the round of school life, as in many other things, he was a pioneer, and one whose example is worthy of study and emulation.

Impressions de Théâtre. Première Série. Par Jules Lemaitre. Paris: Lecène & Oudin.

M. LEMAITRE has here collected some of the dramatic feuilletons which he contributes every Monday to the *Journal des Débats.* A second series of the same papers is to be published about this time, and even then the two volumes will be only a selection from the *Lundis* which have been appearing without interruption since the latter part of 1885. A few of those in the present volume belong to that year, two-thirds of the remainder to the next, and the other third to 1887. The feuilletons are grouped according to subjects and without regard to dates; they are seldom reprinted entire, but the portions given seem to be republished as they at first appeared, without alterations or additions. Even in their original form, many of these papers were not so much dramatic criticism as fine and delicate literary appreciation of the authors and the works under consideration, and a few lines at the end were all that M. Lemaitre gave to the theatrical performance which was the occasion for his remarks. Frequently the greater part of the feuilleton was occupied by a criticism of some newly issued volume or article, which, whatever its subject might be, became dramatic under his treatment.

When M. Taine published his two famous chapters on Napoleon in the *Revue des Deux Mondes,* and later when Prince Napoleon replied to them by his volume, 'Napoléon et ses détracteurs,' M. Lemaitre made one of his most amusing and most dramatic *Lundis* about each publication. These were as sparkling and lively as if some comedy had given rise to them, and at the same time they were full of profound literary penetration and judgment. He not only presented the two writers under the most unexpected and varied aspects, but lightly and without pretension made some of the most sensible and brilliant criticisms upon them that have been brought out by M. Taine's daring portrait of the great Emperor. M. Lemaitre always writes from a literary and philosophical point of view. He compares a play of George Sand with one of Alfred de Musset acted upon the same stage in September, 1887, and the theme of his argument is in the differences between the romantic and the poetic drama. He writes concerning the ballet—there is a group of half-a dozen articles with this heading at the end of the volume—and behind the dramatic critic there appears at every turn the artist, the poet, the scholar, and the philosophical thinker. The wealth and variety of M. Lemaitre's critical faculty is nowhere better shown than in these last papers. The one on the Ashantees at the Jardin d'Acclimatation, dated September, 1887, is perhaps the most brilliant, and excited the most comment at the time; but all, with their half-paradoxical method of presenting new views or old ones under new and fresh aspects, are full of matter for reflection.

This many-sided critic has his limitations and incapacities which are not the least interesting revelations of his personality. Some of the feuilletons in which he treats of Shakspere show this in a very marked degree. The one on the adaptation in French verse of "Much Ado about Nothing," which has recently been represented for some months at the Odéon, is an instance. In these, however, he confesses that he is judging from an entirely French point of view, and it is at least doubtful whether he really feels as incapable as he represents himself to be of appreciating what seems to escape him.

The Voyage of the Fleetwing. By C. M. Newell. 12mo, pp. 443. Boston: De Wolf, Fiske & Co. 1888.

IT is an old remark that the matter of a good book is more important than its style, but Captain Newell would have done well to remember that without an effective style the best matter is thrown away. Here is abundant material—the adventures of an old-fashioned whaling cruise; but the author has told his story in a manner which does it great injustice. Similar scenes are described with wonderful power and felicity in Herman Melville's 'Moby Dick,' the classic story of whaling adventure; and it is with work like this that Captain Newell's present story (as well as an earlier one covering similar ground, and called 'Pehe Nui') must challenge comparison. As a story of exciting adventure based upon large experience of whaling life, Captain Newell's 'Fleetwing' has great reality; but its effect is sadly marred, not to say destroyed, by faults of obscurity or excess in the telling. Least of all can a story-teller afford to dispense with the literary element in his work. 'Peter Parley's Universal History,' after fifty years of use in American schools, remains in great demand; it is now a popular text-book in Japan, and is one of the most profitable of school-books, and why? For a reason not very generally known, namely, that 'Peter Parley's History' was written in chief part by Nathaniel Hawthorne. And if style tells in the school-book, much more does it tell in a story. Captain Newell's recital of perils and adventures is full of life and go, but it lacks the one thing needful; boys will read it, but the crudity of its style will close its pages to maturer readers. It is only those who already have knowledge and interest in the subject that he describes who will take an interest in the book.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbot, Gen. H. L. Defence of the Sea-Coast of the United States. D. Van Nostrand.
Allen, W. Governor Chamberlain's Administration in South Carolina: A Chapter of Reconstruction in the Southern States. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $3.
Ballard, H. H. Three Kingdoms. Handbook of the Agassiz Association. Writers' Publishing Co.
Bankside Shakespeare. Edited by Appleton Morgan. New York: Shakespeare Society.
Beecher, W. C., and Scoville, Rev. S. Biography of Henry Ward Beecher. Chas. L. Webster & Co.
Bigelow, J. The Complete Works of Benjamin Franklin. Vol. VII. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $5.
Blackwell, Prof. J. S. Manual of German Prefixes and Suffixes. Henry Holt & Co.
Boggett, Wm. Key to the Mysteries of Water, Electricity, and Heat. London: Trübner & Co.
Booth, Rev. H. M. The Sunrise, Noonday, and Sunset of the Day of Grace. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $1.
Buck, J. H. Old Plate, Ecclesiastical, Decorative, and Domestic. Gorham Manufacturing Co.
Cameron, Mrs. H. L. A Life's Mistake: A Novel. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 25 cents.
Chaucer, G. The Knightes Tale. Clark & Maynard. 12 cents.
Cook, Rev. J. Sermons Preached in St. Andrew's Church, Quebec. Montreal: Dawson Bros.
Custer, Mrs. E. B. Tenting on the Plains. Chas. L. Webster & Co.
Dabney, Prof. R. H. Causes of the French Revolution. Henry Holt & Co. $1.25.
Deighton, K. Shakspere's Much Ado about Nothing. Macmillan & Co. 60 cents.
Dimsdale, M. S. Livy. Book XXI. Cambridge, Eng.: University Press; New York: Macmillan.
Dods, Rev. M. The Book of Genesis. A. C. Armstrong & Son. $1.50.
Dove, P. E. Domesday Studies. Vol. I. Longmans, Green & Co.
Drummond, J. Philo Judæus; or, the Jewish-Alexandrian Philosophy in its Development and Completion. 2 vols. London: Williams & Norgate.
Ellis, Rev. G. E. The Puritan Age and Rule in the Colony of Massachusetts Bay. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $3.50.
Erckmann-Chatrian. L'Ami Fritz. Wm. R. Jenkins. 25 cents.
"Good Form" in England. D. Appleton & Co. $1.50.
Greene, W. B. Cloudrifts at Twilight: Poems. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.25.
Hare, A. J. C. Days near Paris. Geo. Routledge & Sons. $2.50.
Henderson, I. Agatha Page: a Parable. Boston: Ticknor & Co. $1.50.
Hood, E. Paxton. The Throne of Eloquence: Great Preachers, Ancient and Modern. Funk & Wagnalls.
Hood, E. Paxton. The Vocation of the Preacher. Funk & Wagnalls.
Horsford, E. N. Discovery of America by the Norsemen. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Hughes, A. Geography for Schools. Part I. Practical Geography. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 60 cents.

Fine Arts.

THE ACADEMY EXHIBITION.

THE sixty-third annual exhibition at the Academy of Design contains 598 works in all. Only seventeen or eighteen of these are sculptures. The current exhibitions of American art are all alike in this respect, consisting almost entirely of pictures, and what few examples of the sculptor's art they may include are placed at random in the picture galleries, and are not even thought important enough to have a separate department in the catalogue. The present Academy exhibition, however, though the display of sculpture is comparatively meagre, shows a marked advance on its predecessors, in the superior quality of at least three of the pieces of sculpture which it contains. We refer, of course, to Mr. St. Gaudens's two works, and Mr. Warner's excellent bust of Mr. Alden Weir. The latter, which is here shown in bronze, was exhibited in plaster some years ago, if we mistake not, at one of the exhibitions of the Society of American Artists. It is well worth seeing again in its present form, in which its simplicity in the treatment of details and its fine ensemble are admirably expressed in the severer material. Mr. St. Gaudens's appearance as an exhibitor at the Academy is the most promising sign of the long-looked-for improvement in this the oldest and best-known of American exhibitions; and the presence of his two works, "Bust of General Sherman," No. 597, and "Portrait of a Lady—Medallion," No. 598, is of itself enough to make the sculpture exhibition a notable one. The distinguishing characteristic of the bust of Gen. Sherman is virility. It is, above all else, manly, firm, and vigorous. Granting that the sculptor was fortunate in his model, the treatment of this head calls for particular notice as to the way in which the characteristic is expressed. Here, as in the Lincoln, the sculptor has had to deal with a head which in no way suggests the classic ideal, and which has yet such a strong personality, such an individual style, that it produces very much the same impression of grandeur in looking at it as one receives from some of the antiques. In this treatment of an American type Mr. St. Gaudens was eminently successful in the Lincoln, which differs, however, from the bust of Gen. Sherman in having the whole figure with its fine, large lines to give it a reposeful feeling—one of the best things about it—while the head of Gen. Sherman is all moving energy. The firm-featured visage of the soldier, even in such details as the wrinkles in the brow and the creases in the weather-beaten cheeks, and the stiff beard and hair, is reproduced with fidelity; yet details are so well subordinated to the ensemble that a breadth of mass is obtained which is rare enough in portrait busts to be especially mentioned here. The simple handling of the collar, and the excellent effect given by the half-raised lapels of the military coat, set the head off well, and the pedestal, with its laurel bordering cleverly incorporated in the design, is fitly proportioned.

In the "Portrait of a Lady" Mr. St. Gaudens has made a delicate relief in marble of a lady with a bridal veil. The figure is about one-third life size and three-quarter length, and is tastefully framed in a wooden plaque of creamy white, which accords with the colder tones of the marble. In these days of mere prettiness and over-elaboration of stuffs, which are such prevalent vices in what sculpture comes to the United States from Italy, it is worth noting that in this work of Mr. St.

Gaudens, in which he has to deal with just such a subject as nine out of ten Italian sculptors of our time would be sure to make a botch of, he has treated his subject with a simplicity that forms its greatest charm. It is conceived and carried out in harmony with the tenets of the modern French school, with a certain delicate grace of his own which always makes itself felt in Mr. St. Gaudens's work of this class.

"Portrait of a Lady," No. 260, "Venetian Street," No. 213, and "Venetian Interior," No. 219, are three works by John S. Sargent. It is Mr. Sargent's first exhibition at the Academy, and it is a most brilliant début. Those who remember the portrait of a young lady in black with a rose in her hand, exhibited by Mr. Sargent at the Society of American Artists in 1883, or the two portraits of an elderly gentleman and lady in the Society's exhibition at the Metropolitan Museum in 1886, and retain the impression of quiet dignity made by contemplation of them, will perhaps receive something very like a shock at the first glance at the "Portrait of a Lady" at the Academy. The other portraits were reserved; this one is aggressive. In the former works, ease and grace were united with the most skilful painting; in this later one we find restlessness and a sort of brilliant dash, with painting quite as skilful as before, but with less of absolute truth to nature. The head, which is the principal thing of course, is quite the best part of this portrait, for the arms are none too well drawn and none too well modelled, and, like the chest, have more of the false brilliancy of chalk or powder than the clear luminosity of a white skin covering palpitating flesh. But the head is fresh in color and thoroughly alive. One may not like over-well the treatment of the whites of the eyes, which are startlingly white, nor the cherry-red *tache* of the under lip, and one may object that simplicity is in these parts of the painting of the head pushed too far; but it is well to remember that the artist must have determined to sacrifice something of subtlety in order to obtain such brilliancy of effect. Brilliancy is the quality which best describes this portrait, and it is a brilliancy most becoming in this intensely modern piece of work. It has the air of modernness which pervades the drawing-room without a trace of the studied ceremony of the court; it is an attractive head that grows more and more real and living as you look. Considered purely from the point of view of the technician, it is one of the very cleverest things of the year's art.

Of the two Venetian pictures, though there is much delicacy of observation and subtile painting in the picture of the street, with its graceful figures, of the girl, whose pink dress is partly covered by her clinging black shawl, and the men at the doorway, we find more solid merits than these in the "Venetian Interior," No. 219. This picture of a sombre room, with its group of girls stringing beads in the foreground, is the work of a veritable artist. It is so essentially a work that appeals to those who are capable of appreciating art purely for its own sake, that it seems out of place on the Academy walls, where there is so much that is disturbing by comparison. Admirable in its quiet color scheme, full of atmosphere, and delightfully painted throughout, it is one of those pictures whose charm never fades and of which one can never grow weary.

Mr. Chase, whose absence has been remarked for a decade at the Academy, makes a strong and representative exhibition this year. One portrait, a charming head of a young lady, in a dress of pink, which is notable for sympathetic drawing and delicate contrasts of color, is "Portrait of Miss B.," No. 214, and another, a seated figure of an elderly lady seen in profile. Dignified, of excellent style, and showing the artist's appreciation of quiet tones and his ability in harmonizing the figure and the costume, with the accessories, in a complete ensemble at its best, is the "Portrait of Mrs. G.," No. 337. Besides these are three small out-of-door works of scenes in the neighborhood of Brooklyn, excellent in the rendering of things as they are and the picturesqueness of the suburbs of the city: "Rotten Row—Brooklyn Navy-yard," No. 112; "Summertime," No. 298; and "Peace Scene—Fort Hamilton," No. 350.

"Portrait of Mr. John Gilbert," No. 381, by J. Alden Weir, is an excellent canvas, and one of the best portraits Mr. Weir has exhibited of late. And "Portrait," No. 12, seems to possess fine qualities of color, and to be a complete and artistic picture of a lady in a costume in which a dusky yellow is the principal color note; but it is placed in the most garish light in the galleries, and suffers from juxtaposition with some of the canvases which, of all those that might be found in the exhibition, are least suited to the subtle tonality of Mr. Weir's work. There are numerous portraits in this exhibition, more than fifty in all, and, as is usually the case, some of the best work on the walls, as well as some of the worst, are to be found in them. There is good drawing and painting in the small portrait of a gentleman, No. 540, by Montague Flagg, and much solidity of modelling and unity of effect in "Portrait of Prof. Barker of the University of Pennsylvania," No. 405, by Thomas Eakins. "Portrait of Miss Dora Wheeler," No. 286, by Amanda Brewster, is the only out-of-doors effect in portraiture worthy of mention in the exhibition, and it is placed so high that its sterling merit can be but half appreciated. It is simply painted and agreeable in color, and of excellent style. "Portrait of Alexander Hamilton," No. 156, and "Portrait of a Lady," No. 456, are characteristic works by Eastman Johnson, and "Portrait of Mr. David Dudley Field," No. 114, by Robert Gordon Hardie, is an excellent full length in the "official" style in which the painter has successfully followed the somewhat conventional methods of some of Bonnat's work. A three-quarter length of a lady in black, "Portrait," No. 310, by Frank Fowler; a three-quarter length of a lady in a gown of dull orange hue, "Portrait," No. 582, by W. M. J. Rice; and a portrait of a lady with a fur robe and long gloves on her hands, "Portrait of Mrs. E. M. H.," No. 362, by Wyatt Eaton, may be fitly mentioned together with these in closing a somewhat long but excellent list. It is one of the best features of the present exhibition that room has been found for so many good portraits, and a convincing sign of progress in Academy traditions.

Quite the most remarkable picture in the exhibition, and the one which is most impressive as the work of a strongly individual talent, is "Eight Bells," No. 370, by Winslow Homer. This picture of two seamen on the deck of a coasting vessel, quadrant in hand, taking the noon-day observation, the figures painted in sunlight with a heavy blackish sky of breaking clouds, and the rolling waves green and white-capped, forming the background, is painted in Mr. Homer's usual robust manner. The effect of the glinting sunshine as it flashes on the wet timbers of the ship and the wet oilskins of the sailor men is realistic to a degree, and has a rare look of truth. Compared with his "Undertow" of last year, it possesses all the qualities that made that picture so remarkable, yet in both composition and the purely technical side of painting it is a distinct advance on it. Mr. Homer now stands in a place by himself as the most original and one of the strongest of American painters.

In marked contrast to the rugged and at times heavy technique of Mr. Homer's work is the delicate and elegant composition by Mr. H. Siddons Mowbray of a receding group of fairy figures floating gently and with rhythmic movement over a grassy meadow that stretches away to distant hills gilded by the rays of the setting sun, "Evening Breeze," No. 433. To the task of thus depicting ideal figures and investing them with the look of motion in the air, Mr. Mowbray has brought his well-known talent as a draughtsman, and has painted these dainty sprites in the most charming arrangement of harmonious tints. It is a bit of dreamy fancy "materialized" on canvas with a technical precision that is delightful to behold, and it is safe to say that nothing more charming in imaginative art has been seen at the Academy.

Mr. T. W. Dewing, whose work is nothing if not refined, contributes a small picture of a lady in a yellow dress. The figure is seated in a chair, and is seen in profile. "Lady in Yellow" (No. 417) is the title, and the picture contains nothing further than what is indicated in the name. Even the chair is almost hidden from view by the ample skirt of the flowing yellow robe. With so simple a subject, however, Mr. Dewing has made one of the best pictures of the exhibition. Its charm lies in its very simplicity, and the artist has brought all his skill to bear in the expression of the charming head. It is drawn with admirable delicacy, and is tender and full in color. It is impossible to describe the charm of the well-poised little head and the sweetness of the gentle face.

Mr. Robert Blum brings from Venice a striking picture of "Venetian Bead Stringers," No. 355, which represents a half-dozen girls in many colored dresses sitting at work in a court-yard, a white wall with green shutters on the windows behind them. The picture has many excellent qualities, and is notably good in drawing. It is brilliant and gay in effect without being gaudy, a fault it might easily have if the subject were painted by a less cultivated colorist than Mr. Blum. The picture abounds in good *morceaux*. "Their Pride," No. 364, by Thomas Hovenden, is quite the best of recent pictures, with subjects taken from negro life, painted by this well-known artist. It is an interior with a number of figures, and these, as well as the room and its furniture, are broadly and solidly painted. The effect of atmosphere is well felt, and the canvas is a complete one as regards composition and arrangement of light and shadow. Other prominent figure painters worthily represented in the various galleries are J. Carroll Beckwith, who contributes an excellent "Head," No. 142, which is well constructed and luminous in painting; Edwin H. Blashfield, whose picture called "Improvisatrice," No. 442, shows a three-quarter-length figure of a girl with an antique stringed instrument in her hands; Francis D. Millet, whose single figure of a young woman in Greek costume of white standing on a marble terrace, with her delicately outlined head in relief against dark-foliaged trees in the background, makes a charming picture, and is called "On the Terrace," No. 297; George De F. Brush, who exhibits a well-conceived composition depicting a scene of Aztec life and customs, called "The Sculptor and the King," No. 222, which is remarkable for accuracy of drawing and careful execution; Francis C. Jones, whose picture, "The Favorite Grandchild," No. 261, is a well-painted interior with three figures,

in which the light is cleverly disposed; Irving R. Wiles, whose "Shady Lawn," No. 205, is a study of out-of-doors effect on landscape and figure marked by much truth of observation; Will H. Low, who contributes in "By the Fountain," No. 488, one of the few nudes in the exhibition, and one which is both refined in sentiment and soundly painted; Herbert Denman, whose small picture of a single figure of a young girl, "The Window Seat," No. 211, is a fresh and delicate bit of color; and William T. Dannat, who exhibits a strongly painted study of a Spanish girl in black, "Castanet Player," No. 277.

In landscapes there is a large and on the whole excellent showing. Mr. Inness is represented by one of the best of his recent works, "A September Afternoon," No. 449, a handsome canvas, powerful and subdued in color, and of the finest decorative quality with its rich tones of browns and pinks, and its puissant notes of deep blue in the sky. Mr. Gifford is seen at his best in a winter landscape of a frozen river, snow-covered hills, and dull gray sky, "On the Harlem." No. 311, and Mr. Tryon shows some of his most subtle qualities of painting in "A Pasture, October," No. 152, and a fine effect of sky and water in "Clearing after a Storm—New Bedford Harbor," No. 204. "A Rhode Island River," No. 138, by R. W. Van Boskerck, a large canvas with a river whose tree-covered banks are reflected on its surface, and a summer sky with warm tinted clouds, is strong in color and effective in its ensemble. "The Late Moon," No. 223, by Kenyon Cox, is an effect of moonrise on the shore of a lake, in which the peculiar orange light of the moon when it comes above the horizon only when the night is half gone, is excellently rendered, and in which the midnight sky of blue, tinted by the reddish golden light of the moon, is truthfully painted. "November Woods," No. 538, by Ruger Donoho, a wood interior with dead leaves thickly scattered among lichen-covered rocks—a realistic and straightforward piece of painting; "On the Moors," No. 410, by Robert A. Eichelberger, a simply composed and soundly painted picture; "A Winter Morning in the Catskills," No. 504, by Dubois F. Hasbrouck, a realistic transcript of morning sunshine on the snow in a pine wood; and "White Frost," No. 23, by H. G. Dearth, a well-painted effect of early winter, are other landscapes which should be mentioned among the good things in the exhibition. Mr. Shurtleff exhibits a picture called "In October Woods," No. 148, which has superior qualities of color, and is of his best work. Mr. Murphy, with "The Yellow Hour," in which we find the harmonious color scheme and the enveloping atmosphere which characterize his landscape work; Mr. Crane, with "Morning in June," No. 525, a bright and freshly painted picture, full of sunlight, and with a luminous and atmospheric sky; and Mr. Dewey, with an excellent work, "A Pasture Lot," No. 365, are well represented, and Mr. Edward Gay is seen at his best in a large picture of "Waving Grain," No. 526, in which the effect of light inundating the rolling fields, and the sunshine glittering on the billowy expanse of standing wheat blown by the wind, is realistically given. "On the Bozen Kill," No. 529, by Walter L. Palmer, is one of those effects of sunlight on snow which Mr. Palmer has been painting lately, and is one of his best; and "Westchester Hills," No. 400, by Homer D. Martin, is a large landscape in which the painter has been notably successful in the treatment of his subject by simple means and breadth of handling. "Evening," No. 141, and "Morning," No. 191, by Horatio Walker, are two pictures of landscape and cattle which deserve special notice, and "Fox Hounds," No. 434, by H. R. Poore, is a group of dogs which are excellent in character and remarkable for frank and direct methods of painting.

The pictures are much better hung than is usual at Academy exhibitions, and the general effect of the galleries is as complete and harmonious as it is possible to attain when the incongruous elements which necessarily compose the exhibition is taken into consideration. Both the Committee on Selection and the Hanging Committee are to be congratulated on their success in making the present exhibition the best the Academy has ever held.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 26, 1888.

The Week.

THE opening speech of Mr. Mills, Chairman of the Committee of Ways and Means, on the Tariff Bill, on April 17, was a clear and incisive statement of the leading issue now before the country. Mr. Mills opened his argument with a sledge-hammer blow at the fiscal policy which the Republican party, by successive steps, has fastened upon the country, whereby the whole burden of the national Government has been thrown on consumption as distinguished from property and income. The internal-revenue taxes that have been successively repealed were taxes on property. Thus have been thrown off from time to time—first the tax on manufactures, then the tax on income, then the stamp duty, then the taxes on corporations, on patent medicines, on perfumery, on bank deposits and bank checks. "In 1883 they finished this magnificent shaft, which they have been for years erecting, and crowned it with the last stone, by repealing the internal tax on playing cards and putting a 20 per cent. tax on the Bible." This is epigrammatic, but it is also true to the letter, and is illustrative of the whole course of Republican tax and tariff legislation, the whole aim and drift of which has been to put the burden on the backs of the people as consumers, and not as property-owners. This is the issue that the Republicans have to meet in the coming campaign. The "pauper labor" argument with which they seek to meet these facts was likewise handled by Mr. Mills in a masterly manner, by showing that the rate of wages has very slight relation to the tariff, but is governed by the law of supply and demand.

Judge Kelley, who was promptly put forward by the high-tariff men to answer Mr. Mills, made the fatal mistake of descending to particulars. The Judge's strong point is mouth-filling oratory of the "hi-falutin" order, like his famous appeal a dozen years ago for the silver dollar as the money of Abraham, Isaac, and Jacob—the money with which the cave of Machpelah was purchased. Such an orator is almost sure to make a fatal slip the moment he comes down to the level of facts and figures, and Judge Kelley's latest speech is no exception to the rule. To take a single illustration: he cites Kentucky as a State which suffers from the slavery of the whiskey trust, and to establish his point says: "In 1880 the number of her people above ten years of age who were reported by the census as unable to read and write, was more than one-half her total population. That number was 606,578." Any person who has ever given any attention to the statistics of illiteracy will recognize at a glance that there is some frightful blunder here, and become curious to learn how it was made. The census gives the number of persons above ten years of age in each State "returned as unable to read," and the number "returned as unable to write." The latter class, of course, always includes and exceeds the former, since a good many people can read who cannot write. For Kentucky the totals are: "Unable to read," 258,186; "unable to write," 348,392. It is obvious that the number unable to read *and* write is also 348,392; but Judge Kelley, applying a peculiar high-tariff method of computation, says: There are 258,186 persons unable to read and 348,392 unable to write; to find out how many cannot read *and* write, add the two classes, and you have 606,578.

The division on the Fishery Treaty in the Senate Committee on Foreign Relations, and the refusal of the majority to discuss it in open session, serve to relegate that question decisively to the domain of party politics, along with the general tariff question. This is the place where all competent observers were sure that it would fall, sooner or later. Rejection of the treaty is now part of the Republican creed and platform, while ratification is equally part of the Democratic creed and platform. This we cannot fail to regard as a misfortune to the nation, but it was inevitable from the moment that the fishing interest was consolidated with the other interests protected by the tariff. As a two-thirds vote of the Senate is required to ratify any treaty, it is almost certain that the Fishery Treaty will be rejected. But a majority vote can put fish on the free list, and this is what is sure to follow in the course of a very few years if tariff reform gets a fair start in the present Congress. Meanwhile, the irritation that has existed during the past two years respecting the fishery dispute has been much quieted by the negotiation, and it will consequently be much easier to keep the peace than it has been heretofore. For so much we ought to be thankful.

The Democratic majority in Louisiana proves to be so overwhelming that there is not the slightest doubt as to the result, and consequently there is no chance for another controversy such as raged in 1876 and would have followed a close contest now. It is agreed on all hands that a fair election was had in New Orleans. "The election in this city was absolutely free and fair," says the *Tribune's* correspondent. The same correspondent says that the majority for the Democratic State ticket in New Orleans is about 16,000, which is almost exactly the same as at the corresponding election four years ago. At that time the Democratic State ticket had 45,000 majority in the whole State, and it is said that this time the figures will reach 65,000. It is claimed by the Republicans that in many parishes outside of New Orleans the Democratic managers at the polls swelled the majorities for their party by fraudulent counts, and there is every reason to credit the charge, for such cheating has long been the habit of both parties in Louisiana; but there is not the slightest reason to doubt that the Democrats carried the State by a substantial majority on an honest count.

The best feature of the election is the defeat of the notorious ring which has long controlled and disgraced New Orleans. The victory was due primarily to the Young Men's Democratic Association, which organized the fight, and secondarily to the Republicans, who expected partisan advantage as well as the public benefit in fomenting the division among their opponents by refraining from nominating a ticket of their own and by supporting the bolters. The result shows that the most downtrodden and ring-ridden community can throw off the yoke of the bosses if it really tries, and that the worst evils finally work their own cure. If the charges of ballot-box stuffing in the country parishes are true, that evil also must be left to run its course until it becomes so bad that local sentiment insists upon a reform. This will never be brought about by Northern demagogues legislating at Washington.

The Ohio Republican Convention on Thursday went through the motions of adopting a resolution "presenting" John Sherman for the Presidency, and directing the four delegates-at-large elected to the National Convention to use all honorable means to secure his nomination. By skilful management, any open outbreak of the strong opposition to Sherman's nomination, which lay just below the surface, was suppressed, and the Senator must have drawn a long breath of relief when he found that a controversy over his candidacy had been avoided, even if he does not feel very enthusiastic over the sort of support which he received. The Convention also made nominations for the State offices to be filled next fall, and adopted a platform which must, of course, be accepted as Mr. Sherman's idea of the appeal which the party should make to the country in the national campaign. It consists of three important planks—a demand for legislation regarding Southern elections of the "Force Bill" sort; an appeal for the maintenance of the present war tariff, with denunciation of any suggestion of tariff revision as "free trade"; and a call for extravagant pension legislation. That a candidate for President should suppose that the country can be carried on such a platform, shows most amazing blindness to the signs of the times.

We suppose it will amaze our diverting but over-serious friend, Mr. G. W. Smalley, the London correspondent of the *Tribune*, to hear that his florid account on Sunday of the regret which Englishmen would feel in parting with Minister Phelps, is likely to injure Mr. Phelps, but it is nevertheless true. If Mr. Smalley could get away a little oftener from his Norfolk

estates and his duties as a county magistrate, and visit this country more frequently, and mix with the inhabitants in a familiar way, he would discover that nothing damages an American Minister in London so much with a certain class of our politicians as the news that English society likes and respects him; that he is a welcome guest and orator at public dinners, and that his opinions have weight with cultivated Englishmen and women. The kind of American representative they would like to see in London is a brutal fellow who knows nothing worth mention, reads no books, and takes no part in conversation except to boast of American products, or to remind the company of the Revolutionary War and the cruise of the *Alabama*, and spends his leisure roving round London in search of pumpkin pie, pork and beans, and buckwheat cakes. Consequently, whenever any testimony comes over the sea that the man who represents the American people in London is considered by the best judges in that capital a gentleman and a scholar, their eyes roll in patriotic frenzy, and they begin to clamor for his dismissal as a disgrace to the nation. For the truth must be told —Mr. Lowell alluded to it sorrowfully in his recent address—one of the consequences of the appearance of "Labor" in our politics is the notion that "the true American" must be removed as short a degree as possible from the aboriginal inhabitants of the country, in dress, manners, and mental outlook.

There are to-day 2,500 men, formerly in the employment of the Chicago, Burlington and Quincy Railroad at large wages, living in idleness, with families to support and on the borders of destitution. The company has filled their places, and the business of the road is going on as usual, and the community is rapidly forgetting them, while they are trying to console themselves by the childish delusion that they are out "on strike," or, in other words, that they are exerting some kind of pressure on the company. In a week or two more they will probably wholly disappear from the public gaze, break up their little homes, and scatter all over the country in search of "a job," leaving their wives and children to bear the heartache of hope deferred, and to see their savings vanish in procuring a scanty subsistence. Now, these men are not the victims of their own folly solely. Their sufferings are due in large part to the encouragement given by the press, by philanthropists, and social philosophers of various persuasions, to the extraordinary doctrine that when once you get into another man's service, you have a right to stay in it as long as you please, on terms fixed by yourself, and to worry him into acceding to these terms by damaging his business in any way that will not expose you to criminal prosecution. There is only one claim in the history of mankind equal to this in absurdity, and that is the claim that, having got a man into your service, you have a right to keep him in it as long as suits you, on terms fixed by yourself, and to flog him whenever he tries to leave it. The latter was known as slavery of the laborer, but the other is slavery, too. It is just as much slavery to have to hire a man against your will as to be hired against your will. Everybody who resists compulsory employment is really defending human rights just as much as the man who resists compulsory service.

A very amusing correspondence between the Rev. Dr. MacArthur of the Baptist Church and Father Young of the Paulist Fathers has just been printed. It appears that Dr. MacArthur wrote an article in a religious magazine—the Chicago *Standard*—in which he said he had been told, "in a prolonged conversation with a prominent priest connected with the Paulist Fathers," that one difficulty in introducing congregational singing (into the Catholic Church) was that "the great majority of their people could not read the hymn if it were printed and placed under their eyes." Father Young "called his attention" to this, and asked him if he wrote it. Dr. MacArthur would not say till he saw the magazine. Being shown a copy of the passage taken from the magazine, he said he could not tell whether the copy was correct, but if Father Young "had any correction to make," the editor would doubtless insert it, and he, Dr. MacArthur, had "the highest respect" for all Paulist Fathers. Being shown the magazine itself, he admitted that he wrote the article, and said his assertion about the story told him by the "prominent priest" was true, and that he had once said the same thing himself about the colored Baptists of the South, and was ready to publish Father Young's denial next week. Being asked to name the Paulist Father who told him the story, he omitted to do so, but "modified his statement" in the Chicago *Standard* by "saying that an official of the Church by implication contradicts the truth of the statement," and at the same time "thanked God that the days of the Inquisition were over." Father Young must see by this time that he had to deal with a practised "journalist." No professor of the art in any seat of learning could have met the attack more dexterously. Nothing, for instance, could surpass the attempt to distract the enemy's attention by throwing him "the colored Baptists of the South" to be gored, or the final introduction of the Inquisition, with its attendant horrors, so as to associate Father Young in the minds of the audience with that detestable institution and occupy them therewith, while Dr. MacArthur was making his escape.

With the death of Dr. Agnew, there passes from the scene the last survivor, except Prof. Wolcott Gibbs, of the once famous U. S. Sanitary Commission to which army and nation were so much indebted during the war. Mr. George T. Strong was the first to go; he was followed by Dr. Bellows, then by Dr. Van Buren, and now by Dr. Agnew. The only other active worker of the organization on the Atlantic Coast now surviving is, we believe, Frederick Law Olmsted, the Secretary, at present resident in Boston. Prof. Newberry of Columbia College was prominent in it, but in the West, and Miss Louisa Lee Schuyler of this city conducted an auxiliary organization formed by women. All but the members of the parent body have vanished, and, strangely enough, they have all died of somewhat similar diseases. Dr. Agnew was, we think it may be safely said, the most active and energetic of them, and, though the youngest, his counsels were certainly not the least valuable. A better citizen New York has not had for many a day—one more public-spirited, more willing to pay with his person in all attempts to promote the general welfare, wiser in conception, more vigorous in action, or more sympathetic with everything which makes for purity, order, and progress. The pity of it is that he has been cut off when his experience was ripest, his influence greatest, and when men whose patriotism was elevated and stimulated by the war are becoming very scarce.

However well Mr. Chamberlain may be getting on with the Tories, his success with his own old party seems to be very moderate. He is known in England as the inventor of the caucus, which he was the first to introduce into Birmingham under the name of the "Liberal Association," or the Two Thousand, the members of which are elected from the various wards of the city. At the recent election his Unionist candidates were beaten out of sight, and the Gladstonians now hold the Association by a large majority. This was more than Mr. Chamberlain could bear, and he announced that he would withdraw from the Association altogether, and set up another of his own, which would be more select and contain only really nice men.

Mr. Chamberlain has, since he got home, disposed of American opinion on Gladstone's plan for Home Rule in amusing but characteristic fashion. He says, in very odd English:

> "I mixed with representative men of all parties, of all classes, and of the different nationalities of which the people of the United States is composed; and with very few exceptions I could find hardly one who approved the policy of Mr. Gladstone or the bills which he introduced."

He added that the small minority, the "hardly one with very few exceptions," did not understand it. A better way than this of disposing of people who do not agree with you does not exist. But we venture to assert that this was also true of those who agreed with Mr. Chamberlain. We are very certain that "hardly one of them, with very few exceptions," understood the Gladstone bill or the Irish question either. The story, let us say, would be more credible if Mr. Chamberlain could get the majority of the Liberals of his own town to agree with him about the Gladstone plan. A majority of these, too, whose opinions on the Irish question are to him vastly more important than those of Americans, do not concur with Mr. Chamberlain. Can it be that they also do not understand the Gladstone plan?

Bradlaugh, the English Radical, has made a good reputation within a very short time as a man who "knew what he was talking about," by his carriage of his Oaths Bill in the House of Commons, and by his maintenance of charges of corruption which he brought against the Corporation of the city of London. But in accusing Lord Salisbury of giving a check to promote Radical meetings in Trafalgar Square when the Liberals were in power, he has overshot his mark, and has been mulcted in $1,500 of damages, besides costs. He was already heavily burdened with debt on account of the costs in the litigation arising out of his attempt to keep his seat in the House without taking the oath, and has no means of livelihood except lecturing, and, had not some of his colleagues immediately come to his relief, he would have been in a bad way.

M. Leroy-Beaulieu has a trenchant article in the last number of his paper—the *Économiste Français*—in which he enumerates the several causes that have brought about the pending crisis in France. Some of them are very ludicrous, but some in a startling way remind us of things we have seen in this country. Speaking of the duration of the various Cabinets since 1880, he says they used to last eighteen months, then a year, then six months, then a quarter; and they have now got down to thirty and fourteen days. While they are in office, "the little men," as he calls them, of course cut all sorts of capers. There was one wag (*jovial garçon*), he says, who used to amuse the Chamber a good deal by his drolleries; so he very soon was made Minister of a little Department of Agriculture, which was constructed especially to please the farmers, who were complaining bitterly of low prices. As soon as the wag got into office, he found that the Administration of Forests, which has existed in France for 200 years, and is charged with the protection of the forests, was prosecuting vigorously a large number of depredators on the public domain. Of course, they complained bitterly, and as they had votes like other people, the wag accommodated them by abolishing at one stroke of his pen the whole forest service. How vividly this recalls the savage attack made in the Senate by James G. Blaine in 1877 on Secretary Schurz under exactly similar circumstances. Mr. Schurz was engaged in saving the Government timber lands in Montana from wholesale devastation by private plunderers. Instead of supporting or encouraging him, Mr. Blaine came to the rescue of the thieves, and abused Mr. Schurz roundly, reminding him that he was of foreign birth, and that the country he was born in was smaller than Montana. Now, if our Constitution had been like the French one, Schurz and the Cabinet to which he belonged would in all probability have been driven from office in order to gratify the criminals.

M. Leroy-Beaulieu's remedy for all this tomfoolery is that the French voters should do what is done in England, and America, and Belgium when the party in power mis behaves—turn it out and put the other party in. As the Radicals have made a dreadful failure, the proper thing to do now, he says, is to turn the Government over to the Conservatives and let them try their hand. The trouble is, however, that the Republicans are afraid that if the Conservatives got into power they would restore the monarchy; so, for want of anything better, they are thinking of trying Boulanger and a "revision of the Constitution." Many of them fancy that if they can only get rid of the Senate, they can never be unhappy again. This, too, bears a striking resemblance to the state of mind of the Republicans in this country before 1884. They were prepared to put up with everything from the Republican jobbers sooner than try the other party, because, they said, as sure as the Democrats got into power they would repudiate the national debt, pay the rebel debt, compensate the slaveholders for their slaves, abolish the tariff, and establish "British free trade." As long as this delusion lasted, all healthy political progress was impossible. The election of Cleveland broke the spell, and restored the old Anglo-Saxon remedy for the abuses of power to its former place in the popular mind.

The ministerial crisis in Holland, which has found its solution in the formation of a Mackay Cabinet, was a natural consequence of the recent elections, the first held under the revised Constitution and the new electoral law. The principal changes made in the existing law were, first, a considerable reduction in the property qualification and the admission of large classes as electors, independent of any property qualification; second, the abandonment of the system of large electoral districts. Except in a few cities, no district now elects more than one member. The result of these changes might have been easily foreseen. In the south the Catholic clergy is supreme, and a solid phalanx of Ultramontane members was returned. In the north the small farmers, who constitute a large proportion of the new electors, are almost to a man adherents of the "anti-revolutionary" or strict Protestant party. In order to oust the Liberals from power, the leaders of that party, sacrificing all their traditions, formed a close alliance with the Catholics, who in many districts form a strong minority. Their lack of political principle did not stop even with this. They did not hesitate to make common cause with the Socialists, as was shown by the publication of a circular of the Central Committee which was intended to remain secret. The demoralizing spectacle was given of a party whose fundamental principle is devotion and loyalty to the House of Orange, voting solidly for a man, Mr. Domelu Nieuwenhuis, who had been recently sentenced to a term of imprisonment for seditious speeches and treason, in order to secure the support of the Socialists in other districts.

The combined Clericals were successful in the rural districts, and had it not been for the fact that the Liberal party, waiving all dissensions, made a stubborn and organized fight, they might have made great gains even in the large cities, because among the lower middle class, which for the first time exercised the electoral franchise, they have a large number of adherents. As it is, the Liberals were victorious in Amsterdam, Rotterdam, Utrecht, Arnhem, Dordrecht, and Leyden, and the majority of the combined but antagonistic Clericals over the united Liberals is a narrow one—54 to 46. Moreover, as the elections for the Senate (the members of which are elected by the States of the different provinces) have resulted in a victory for the Liberals, so that in that body they now have thirty-four seats out of fifty, the tenure of office of the new Clerical Cabinet may not perhaps be a long one.

The message of President Diaz at the opening of the April session of the Mexican Congress is, in the main, as dull reading as the proverbial annals of a fortunate nation. Its most important items bearing upon American relations to Mexico are the announcement of a great success of the parcels-post system, instituted last July, and the statement that a convention has been signed between the two Governments for the submission to their respective Congresses of a project to admit, mutually, natural products free of duty. Two matters of great public interest in Mexico, to which allusion might have been most properly made in the message, are conspicuous by their absence. One is the absorbing political question of Presidential reelection, and Gen. Diaz's personal attitude upon it. He passes it all by in absolute silence. This might be interpreted, in view of the seven distinct and solemn declarations against reëlection which he has publicly made in the past eleven years—the last one no longer ago than his message to Congress of April, 1885—as but the dignified silence of a man whose position had been made known with sufficient clearness. More probably, however, it is a natural reluctance to eat his own words unnecessarily; that action can be much more gracefully performed after the "spontaneous demand of the country" has made itself heard, as it is expected to do next fall. The other important matter of public concern about which the President omitted to speak, except in the vaguest terms, is the new national loan. He simply said that the Treasury would lay a copy of the contract executed in Berlin before Congress at an early day. This is in keeping with the obstinate silence of the *Diario Oficial* on the same subject, and does not exactly foretoken the great triumph of finance which we have heard so much about. Meanwhile it appears that the national bank is pressing the Government for payment of its many loans, or, possibly, only of defaulted interest on them, and has secured an executive order that, beginning with the 1st of May, 20 per cent. of all duties is to be paid for in certificates to be bought of the bank.

SENATOR SHERMAN AND THE FOUR PER CENT. BONDS.

In his recent speech in the Senate replying to Senator Beck's attack upon his positions on the silver question—a reply which we consider perfectly successful at all points—Senator Sherman made a digression in order to show that he was not responsible for the outstanding 4 per cent. thirty-year bonds. His argument was, that the Refunding Bill (the Act of July 14, 1870), as reported by him in the Senate and as passed by that body, provided for the issue of $400,000,000 of 5 per cent. bonds to run ten years, the same amount of 4½s to run fifteen years, and the same amount of 4s to run twenty years; but that the House substituted for this a bill of their own, reported by the Committee of Ways and Means, providing for $200,000,000 5s to run ten years, $300,000,000 4½s to run fifteen years, and $1,000,000,000 4s to run thirty years, and that the Senate was obliged to accept this amendment or lose the bill altogether.

A careful examination of the proceedings and speeches in Congress while the bill was pending will show that there was no real controversy between the two houses respecting the time that the bonds were to run, although what Mr. Sherman says about the measure as it originally passed the Senate, and as it was amended by the House, is true. The point in controversy was as to the rate of interest, the House insisting upon 4 per cent. as the rate of the greater part of the issue, while the Senate favored higher rates. Senator Sherman, in presenting the report of the Conference Committee to the Senate (*Cong. Globe*, 2 sess. 41st Cong., p. 5531) did not lay any stress upon the duration of the bonds as a point of disagreement between the two houses, nor did Chairman Schenck when he presented the report to the House.

What is more to the purpose is the fact that when Mr. Sherman became Secretary of the Treasury in the year 1877, he found a contract in force entered into by his predecessor, Secretary Morrill, with August Belmont & Co. and their associates, known as the "bond syndicate," for the sale to said syndicate of $300,000,000 of 4½ per cent. bonds having fifteen years to run and maturing in 1891. The contract contained a clause authorizing the Secretary of the Treasury to terminate it at any time after March 4, 1877, by giving ten days' notice to the syndicate.

It is sufficiently indicative of the ideas held by Mr. Sherman, both while the bill was pending in Congress and afterwards, that the first step taken by him as Secretary was to stop the issue of 4½ per cent. fifteen-year bonds, and to substitute 4 per cent. thirty-year bonds in their place. All the facts are set forth in the document entitled "Specie Resumption and Refunding of National Debt" (House Ex. Doc. No. 9, 46th Cong., 2d sess.). Mr. Sherman first communicated his views on this point in a letter dated April 6, 1877, addressed to N. M. Rothschild & Sons, London, stating in a general way that he desired to sell only 4 per cent. bonds for resumption purposes (p. 15).

April 27, Mr. Sherman wrote to L. P. Morton, New York, a member of the syndicate: "After all, the 4 per cent. loan is the loan which we ought to seek to place upon the market, and which I hope the syndicate will be able to do by the 1st of July" (p. 27).

May 14, Mr. Sherman wrote to August Belmont, New York, proposing the withdrawal of $100,000,000 of the 4½ per cents and the substitution of 4 per cents in place thereof (p. 39). This does not appear to have been a formal notification of withdrawal as provided for in the contract. Hence some confusion, which arose later on.

May 17, Mr. Sherman wrote to L. Von Hoffman & Co., New York: "My purpose is to place upon the market as soon as practicable the 4 per cent. thirty-year bonds authorized by the Refunding Act, *which I regard as the most desirable security ever offered, both for investors and the Government*" (p. 41).

May 23, Mr. Sherman wrote to August Belmont & Co., New York, that it was his understanding that $100,000,000 of the 4½ per cent. bonds which the syndicate were entitled to take under the Morrill contract had been withdrawn, and asking whether Belmont & Co. so understood it (p. 44). Belmont & Co. replied under date May 26 that they presumed that the proposition would be agreeable to their London associates, but that the Secretary would see the propriety of awaiting their answer, which had already been requested (p. 46).

June 20, Morton, Bliss & Co., New York, as members of the syndicate, wrote to Mr. Sherman asking when and in what manner the notice of termination of the Morrill contract, including the right to take the remaining $100,000,000 4½ per cents, had been given. Mr. Sherman replied, June 21, that he had stated to the syndicate orally, at an interview held on May 11, his intention to withdraw the $100,000,000, and that if any serious opposition had been expressed, he should then and there have given the ten days' notice required, but as the suggestion seemed to be acquiesced in he did not do so. Finding subsequently that there was nothing in writing on the subject, he had written his letter of May 23 to August Belmont & Co. to remove any grounds for future misunderstanding (pp. 85-86).

The point of all this is, that Mr. Sherman stopped the sale of $100,000,000 of 4½ per cents having fifteen years to run, which had been contracted for before he came into office, and substituted a like amount of 4 per cents having thirty years to run. That his motives were patriotic and right in every way is fully conceded, but the argument made at this time to show that he exercised superior discernment in 1870, when the Refunding Bill was passing through Congress, and that his own wise purposes were overruled by the House Committee of Ways and Means, while technically true, is really an afterthought. Both Mr. Sherman and Mr. Schenck desired to save ½ per cent. per annum interest on the bonds, and both underestimated the element of time which, as matters have turned out, made the 4½ per cents the more desirable of the two classes of bonds for the Government. The total amount of interest to be paid on a 4½ per cent. 15-year bond is 67½ per cent., on a 4 per cent. 30-year bond 120 per cent. The syndicate people and the investing public made the same error of judgment. They were all as greedy for the 4½ per cents as the Secretary was reluctant to issue them.

THE BRITISH-AMERICANS.

In the meagre report which is all that we have seen of Mr. Goldwin Smith's address to the Canadian Club on Wednesday week, he appears to have given the British-Americans resident in this country some very good advice in the matter of getting themselves naturalized and taking an active part in American politics. If the stories be true which the British-American Association told him about the numbers which such naturalization would add to the electorate—90,000 votes in this State, and 40,000 in Massachusetts—its importance, both to Americans proper and British-Americans, can hardly be overrated. The latter would, if they acted together, control every election both in New York and in Massachusetts. If, for instance, they voted with the Republicans, they would overcome the majority with which our Democrats always "leave the city," and destroy that constant Democratic leaning which makes New York an uncertain State.

That British-Americans—that is, the Englishmen, Scotchmen, and Canadians resident here—would, as far as temperament and character go, be very valuable additions to the voting body in the United States, there is no question. They are for the most part sober-minded, industrious, and law-abiding men, who mind their own business carefully and let that of other people alone. They have, too, in a very high degree, as Mr. Goldwin Smith pointed out in his lecture, the political sense which has made England the political model for so many successful and unsuccessful "nationalities." That they have a fair readiness for political jobbery, the history of British politics reveals clearly enough, but it has always been held in check by their eminent capacity for, and eminent success in, lawful and honorable modes of making money. Consequently, an Englishman or Scotchman will hardly ever take to "politics" as a livelihood as a matter of choice, or until he has tried and failed in everything else. He is by nature, too, a very indifferent intriguer or "manager." He loves open-handed methods, and, in spite of considerable natural pigheadedness, is probably more amenable to argument than any other politician in our day. Votes are still sometimes changed in the British House of Commons by speeches, and we do not know of any other legislative body of which that can be said.

But there is apparently some danger that if the British-Americans follow Mr. Goldwin Smith's advice, and "take out their papers," they will do it under a misleading and somewhat mischievous influence. We do not know, of course, whether he inserted in his address to them the whack at Gladstone and the Irish with which he enlivens nearly all his utterances, and which we verily believe finds a place of honor in his morning and evening prayers. But

that hostility to Gladstone and the Irish colored his advice in some way or other we have little doubt; and that it is having an unfortunate effect on the minds of those British-Americans who are promoting this naturalization movement, we think is equally true.

We have reached this conclusion in part from a perusal of a few numbers of the *British-American*, a weekly journal started and published in Boston as the organ of the movement. We find it almost wholly given up to abuse of the Irish and the English home-rulers. Hardly a rational word does it contain about the politics of the country with which the British-Americans are invited to throw in their lot. Indeed, no one would suppose from reading it that there was any good reason why Englishmen living in America should become American citizens, except a desire to "get even" with the Irish, and punish American politicians for paying any attention to them. Now, we feel sure this characteristic of the movement will, if not got rid of, make most native Americans feel that the British-American voter would be anything but a useful element in American politics. The hostility between the two Irish factions, the Orangemen and the Catholics, has already disgusted them a good deal, and has inflicted on this city one bloody riot. The addition of another faction—an English anti-Irish faction, charged with the special function of following up the Irish and making things hot for them on the stump and at the polls—would certainly not be a cheering phenomenon for the thoughtful American patriot. What he seeks of all things is the deliverance of the American soil from adjourned European rows and scrimmages. What makes him most dislike the Irish is their importation into American politics of Anglo-Irish issues, with their accompanying hates, and jeers, and denunciations, and curses. He will therefore not welcome a British-American contingent which proposes to itself as its chief political duty, the justification to the American of the Cromwellian policy in Ireland in the seventeenth century. The American public is very weary of the Irish question, and, if it cannot have rest about it, at least craves that the shindy may not be aggravated by the appearance on the scene of 130,000 fresh combatants.

We think the very best advice that Mr. Goldwin Smith could give the British-Americans—and it may be that he has given it to them already—would be to prepare for American citizenship by cultivating their interest in the really important questions of American politics, such as the tariff and taxation, the civil service, municipal government, and electoral reform, and popular education and temperance, and let the Irish and Gladstone alone. In such questions we fear they now have very little interest, and know very little of them. The best thing they can do with their Boston organ is, to make it discuss them intelligently, both for their own enlightenment and to give Americans a taste of their quality. If they show the American public that on these questions they will powerfully reinforce the friends of economy, order, and progress, they will as citizens be very welcome indeed. As English "Unionists" or "Imperialists" they will not be worth to the United States the cost of naturalization, small as that is.

THE STATE BOARD OF ARBITRATION.

The Legislature in 1886 passed a law providing rules for the arbitration of disputes between employers and employees, on the familiar principle of the voluntary submission of the matter in controversy to arbitrators chosen by the parties. The same law provided for the appointment of a State Board of Arbitration, to whom appeals might be taken from the decisions of the local boards, such State Board to consist of three persons at a salary of $3,000 per year each, with a secretary at a salary of $2,000. A year passed by without any result except the payment of the salaries of the Commissioners and their secretary. The Board began to wear the look of superfluity, and even of drollery, for want of occupation. So the Legislature the following year added to their duties by passing a new law, providing that "whenever a lockout or strike shall occur, or is seriously threatened in any part of the State, and shall come to the knowledge of the Board, it shall be its duty, and it is hereby directed, to proceed as soon as practicable to the locality of such strike or lockout, and put themselves in communication with the parties to the controversy, and endeavor by mediation to effect an amicable settlement of such controversy." If their services are not wanted, however, they are authorized in their discretion to "inquire into the cause or causes of the controversy." It is not stated what they are to do after they have made their inquiry, but the presumption is that they are to say something about it in their next annual report. The last report of the State Comptroller shows that the cost of the Board of Arbitration for one year was $14,552.83. The gains appear to have been nothing, either in dollars and cents or in any other sense.

It appears to be the practice of the Board to search the horizon for strikes and lockouts very much as astronomers search the heavens for new comets. When they "pick up" one, they jump on the cars, and put themselves as speedily as possible in the vicinage of the controversy, and hang out a sign, "Arbitrating done here." If nobody brings in a job, they set to work to investigate the matter in controversy, and then disappear from sight until they pick up a new one. The presumption is that this series of manœuvres is helpful to Labor, but evidently it cannot be so unless Labor is helped by the payment of $14,000 per annum out of the State Treasury. One of the members of the Board of Arbitration must be a Democrat, and one a Republican, and the third must be selected "from a bona-fide labor organization of this State." If Labor derives any benefit from the Board, it must be from the payment of the salary of the third member. This is hardly sufficient compensation for the share paid by Labor, in its character as occupants of houses subject to taxation, for the expenses of the Board.

The antics of the Board, of which we are having a fresh example at this time in connection with the boycott and lockout in the brewing trade, are in pursuance of law, and very strictly so. If they are ridiculous, they are so because the law under which they were appointed is ridiculous. There does not appear to be any occasion whatever for any such board. The principles of arbitration are well settled in the nature of things. Arbitration, as the term applies, is the voluntary submission of a controverted matter to the decision of an impartial umpire. That the umpire may be impartial, and that his decision may have binding force, it is necessary that he be chosen by the parties. The State cannot compel brewers, for example, to hire men whom they do not want, or to hire anybody on terms that are not satisfactory, nor can it compel men to work on terms not satisfactory to themselves. The State may properly provide the rules under which arbitration shall be conducted, and may also rightfully enforce the decision so reached, as in any other case of contract. This was the scope and intent of the law of 1886. The addition of a State board having appellate jurisdiction was a superfluity, and even worse, because it entailed delay. After a dispute has been submitted to arbitration upon fair agreement as to the subject-matter and the persons who shall decide, an appeal to somebody else is manifestly superfluous, a mere dilatory proceeding, and must tend to lessen the number of cases submitted to arbitration. Probably this feature of the law accounts in part for the fact that it has been a dead letter. When the further provision was added that the State Board should make excursions here and there like travelling tinkers looking for jobs, and offering their services to parties who do not want them, and then prying into people's private affairs, the law became a mere conduit for the distribution of a certain sum of public money to politicians.

THE CONSTITUTIONAL POSITION OF PRUSSIA IN THE GERMAN EMPIRE.

The many serious questions of home and foreign policy which were raised in Germany immediately preceding and following the death of the late Emperor have again turned general attention to that unique creation of Bismarck's—the New German Empire. It is safe to say that no one can understand German politics or comprehend Bismarck's system of government who does not study them in close connection with this remarkable confederation.

German publicists and jurists have spent much time and ink in discussing the question whether the new Government is a *Bundesstaat* or a *Staatenbund*, *i. e.*, a Federal State or a Federation or League of States. Much bad blood has been stirred up, and more than the usual number of exclamation marks placed after quotations from writers of opposite views—with the satisfactory result, however, that there is now a pretty general agreement that it is a *Bundesstaat*. That there was this difference of opinion is not strange. Our own Federal Government was at first generally accepted as the type of a *Bundesstaat*, and it is no wonder that, with it before them as a model Federal State, many were inclined to put the German Empire in a different category; for many as are the similarities between the two

systems, the differences are almost, if not quite, as many, and are certainly more striking.

The difference of origin was noteworthy and significant for the character of the new States. Our own Government arose from the initiative of a body of delegates who took it upon themselves to act for the country as a whole, and, as a matter of fact, assumed the functions of a national Government, and did not, either in the form of treaties or of a constitution, have any legal authority for their acts until long after they had committed the country to a step from which there could be no retreat. When, later, a constitution was formed, its preamble began with "We, the people of the United States, . . . do ordain and establish."

The German Government sprang from a formal treaty between (nominally at least) free and independent States. According to this treaty a convention was to be called, consisting of representatives of the people, to which a constitution before agreed upon by the diplomatic representatives of the State governments should be submitted. If this should be accepted, it was to become the constitution of the confederation. As a fact it was accepted after numerous modifications to which the governments agreed, and it thus became law. But in its preamble it was expressly stated that the rulers of the different States (kings, dukes, senates of the free cities, etc.), concluded an eternal alliance, and the title of the President of this confederation was changed to German Emperor in the Constitution of 1871. Both Constitutions, then, that of 1871 as well as that of 1867, were based upon formal treaties. Thus Germany is a league or confederation in a different sense from that in which our own Federal Union may be said to be one.

But in the Constitution itself there is a recognition of a very different relation from that which exists in our own system. The upper house, corresponding in some respects to our Senate—the Bundesrath or Federal Council—is composed of diplomatic representatives of the various State governments. The members are appointed by the governments, are subject to their instructions, may at any time be recalled, and are accorded in Berlin by the King of Prussia the usual diplomatic protection and privilege granted to foreign ministers. Speaking generally, with some important exceptions, noted later, this Council is the executive authority of the German Empire. It is intrusted with the oversight of the administration of all laws. In this work the Emperor and the Chancellor, with his departments, are its agents. While it cannot pass any law without the consent of the Diet (Reichstag), it may make all regulations necessary for carrying out the laws, and is in general regarded by German jurists as the seat of sovereignty of the Imperial Government.

In this confederation, moreover, many of the States possess peculiar privileges which practically give them a veto power on legislation in certain cases—a circumstance which heightens very much the general impression of its being a League of States instead of a Federal State. The financial system, is in its chief outline, rather that of a society or group of States in which the expenses are paid as far as possible from the income of common property, and the deficit then made up by assessments. The administration of the imperial laws is largely in the hands of the separate States. Some of the States are allowed to have diplomatic representatives at foreign courts and to make treaties with foreign States on certain topics. Some are not subject to the Federal excise on beer and brandy, and have their own postal and telegraph system. All may make agreements with other States of the empire, and may levy customs duties, equivalent to their own excise taxes, on goods imported from other States where the excise does not exist. There are numerous other provisions of the same sort, making altogether quite a different form of federal government from our own.

In general it may be said that in the German system the State Government, as such, plays a much more important rôle in its relations to the Federal Government than in our system. In many more cases the central authority works through the States and addresses itself to their governments. If Alexander Hamilton was correct, then, in his implied definition of a federal government as one which acts immediately on the individual citizens, and not mediately through the State governments, and thus distinguishes it from a league or confederacy, which acts only on the States as its subjects, then the new German empire is a *Staatenbund*, and not a *Bundesstaat*. On the other hand, if the definition of a Federal State which Woolsey hints at in his 'Political Science,' and which German jurists have fully developed, be correct—viz., a union of States with a will of its own distinct from the mere sum of the wills of its constituent States, and with the power to enforce this will against a recalcitrant member, whether it acts on States or individuals—then the German Empire should be included in this category.

Now, how has it come that a government for which Alexander Hamilton—no mean judge—would, on general principles, have predicted a complete failure, has proved itself on the whole such a success? It will be remembered that Hamilton in the *Federalist* tried to make out that no federal government could hope to succeed which attempted to lay its commands on States as such and to enforce them against the will of the latter.

The answer to the question is to be found in the overwhelming power of Prussia in the present German Empire—a power which is not only practically recognized, but constitutionally guaranteed in the most solemn manner. A recent German writer on constitutional law has emphasized this fact very happily—though it must be said much to the disgust of some of his contemporaries—as follows: "The German Empire (or Constitution) is the legal form according to which Prussia rules in non-Prussian territory. The share of the other States is really merely a limitation of Prussian initiative" (Otto Mejer, 'Deutsches Staatsrecht,' 1885).

How true this is will be understood after a glance at the constitutional position of Prussia in the empire. In the first place, the Prussian King is *ipso facto* or *ex-officio* German Emperor. It is true that this circumstance is perhaps not so important as it may seem at first glance, since the Emperor, as such, has only a very limited veto power, unless Laband's interpretation of the Constitution noted below is correct, according to which it is his duty to pass on the constitutionality of a law. Even then, if in his judgment the law is constitutional, he must promulgate it, however much he may be opposed to it. He may, however, veto absolutely as Emperor any law altering existing laws relating to the army and navy, and although he cannot prevent legislation on other subjects, still, as the chief executive of the empire, he practically possesses great power.

There were in 1871 twenty-five States in the German Empire represented in the Federal Council. In order to recognize, to some extent at least, difference in importance among the States, some of them have more votes than others. Each State has at least one vote, but Saxony and Würtemberg, for example, have 4 each, Bavaria 6, and Prussia 17, the total number being 58. All questions are decided by majority vote (with exceptions noted later), and each State must cast its votes as a unit. This follows naturally from the diplomatic character of the representation.

Prussia has the Presidency of the Council. It has also the chairmanship of all the important committees, and the functions of these committees are more important by far than those of similar committees in our Senate. Prussia has a solid seventeen votes on every question—thirty constituting a majority—and it must be a rare occasion when it should not be able to get thirteen more from some quarter or other. But with these seventeen it can prevent all amendments to the Constitution, since they are rejected if there are fourteen votes against them in the Federal Council. Moreover, in certain important matters of legislation Prussia has a veto, and in all cases of a tie vote that side wins on which the votes of Prussia are to be found.

As if all this were not enough, Prof. Laband has put an interpretation on the Constitution which places in the hands of Prussia still another advantage. By the Constitution it is made the duty of the Emperor to prepare and publish the laws which have been passed by the Council and Diet. But, says Laband, if he thinks the law is unconstitutional, he should not publish it, and without publication by the Emperor it is not binding. This gives Prussia—for we must not forget that the Emperor of Germany is first of all King of Prussia—a practical veto on all laws which could in any way threaten its supremacy in the empire. Whoever rules Prussia and Prussia's King, therefore, will rule Germany, and there is no more danger of a dissolution of the German Empire, except by the interference of a foreign Power, than there is of the dissolution of the State of New York.

EAST END MISSIONS.

LONDON, March, 1888.

MR. BESANT is less a prophet abroad than in his own country. Here, it is true, his claim to the original idea of a palace for the people has been disputed. But the Philadelphia *Press* (Feb. 26, 1888) would take from him even the credit of having written his most famous and successful story:

"The many people," it says, "who have read James Payn's novel, 'All Sorts and Conditions of Men,' remember the People's Palace which the heroine reared for the poor of London. The novel made such an impression in London that the novelist's palace in the air became a reality in Toynbee Hall, which was opened in the jubilee year for the poor of the Five Points in East London."

It would be scarcely possible for so short a paragraph to contain a greater number of mistakes. If Americans are interested in the work of philanthropists in the East End of London, it would be as well if it were reported to them accurately.

Public attention is just now attracted to this work. It is all but a year since the People's Palace was opened, so that there has been time to test its value and influence. At this season the annual exhibition of pictures is held at St. Jude's Schoolhouse, which is under the direction of Mr. Barnett, the Warden of Toynbee Hall. These two institutions are looked upon as the principal factors for good in East London. Though they differ in many ways, both have for aim to elevate and refine the workingman. The People's Palace nominally proposes to do this by amusing him; Toynbee Hall also provides for his amusement, but relies above

all upon the good effect of his association with the educated and rich who make it their home. The latter is, in fact, a nineteenth-century monastery. It was established, it will be remembered, as a memorial to Arnold Toynbee, one of the first workers, according to modern methods, in the East End. To it came Oxford and Cambridge men, not on any special mission, "but simply to share the life of the surrounding population, to become good citizens of East London, giving freely and naturally to those around them of whatever is best in them, whether in mind or character, and learning in their turn, as they undoubtedly will learn, to help their new neighbors and the new conditions of life in which they find themselves."

Much has been said of their self-sacrifice. People speak of Toynbee Hall, lost in the wilds of Whitechapel, as if it were a Grande Chartreuse or a Monte Oliveto. The fact is, that it is in a far more convenient and central neighborhood than many fashionable West End suburbs. It is in East London, it is true, but on the very borderland of the city. Within a five minutes' walk are two underground railway stations from which Charing Cross can be reached in fifteen minutes. On Whitechapel Road are to be had omnibuses to almost all parts of West London. To the visitor to Toynbee Hall it is evident that its residents do not by any means live the life of the people among whom their days are spent. The house is comfortable, if not luxurious. However, as has been explained, "the idea is that the poor should see something of the life of the cultured and wealthy classes, of the rest and refinement and art and ornamentation of good homes." Whether this insight into pleasures beyond his reach will do the workingman any positive good is more than doubtful. After drinking tea in the pretty drawing-room of Toynbee Hall, he will hardly be more reconciled to his own conditions of life. That he may be benefited negatively, and in a manner somewhat different from that intended, is probable. Discontent in his case would be an advantage. All who have really worked among the people of the East End agree that their own apathy is their greatest enemy. They are too contented, a clergyman, who spent six years of his life as rector of a church in Stepney, has explained. A Socialist, who often holds open-air meetings in the East End, has told me that the indifference of the people—more pronounced in the younger generation—is the stumbling-block to all who would better their condition.

It is difficult to believe that the Toynbee Hall men, whose position and habits and occupations are so radically different from those of the workingmen, will ever be received by them on terms of friendly intimacy. Common work or common idleness is the bond that holds men together in all walks of life. But that this would-be friendship is theoretical; that caste distinctions are not shaken off when the threshold of Toynbee Hall is crossed, is but too plainly shown on occasions such as that of the formal opening of the picture exhibition in St. Jude's Schoolhouse. The show is supposed to be primarily for the people of Whitechapel, or rather of the East End. They had not even a single representative at this year's opening ceremonies. These, indeed, were held at an early hour in the afternoon, which made it quite impossible for workingmen or women to be present. The lower room of the schoolhouse was filled, but with the people who flock to West End private views. Through the large windows, beyond the platform, I could see workingwomen, busy about their daily duties, and ragged children coming and going on the balconies and stairways of the opposite row of tenement-houses. The contrast I thought significant. Mr. Holman Hunt, who opened the exhibition, delivered an address which would have been unintelligible to a genuine Whitechapel audience. It was principally taken up in showing that all modern art—except, presumably, his own—is bad, and that of all this bad art, that of the Continental schools is the worst. It was funny afterwards to find in places of honor in the rooms up stairs pictures by Carolus Duran, Munkácsy, Favretto, Tito, Van Hannen, which brought out in painful relief the crude color and labored technique of two of Mr. Hunt's pictures, lent by him to the exhibition. In concluding his address, he complimented Mr. Barnett and the Toynbee Hall men on the good work they were doing in bringing art to the people, from whom, in its greatest days, it has always sprung. Whether, however, they are going about it in the right way was made questionable by the speech that followed. It is better, we were assured, to show the people pictures which can contribute to their instruction, no matter how badly painted they may be, than pictures technically good but without a subject. In other words, the art education of the people upon whom all hopes for art rest, is begun on a false basis. Assuredly the result of such training will be to make their second state worse than their first. They are having prepared for them the difficult task, not only of learning, but of unlearning.

But in East London even amusement must serve a moral or intellectual purpose. People are to look at pictures, not merely for pleasure in them or to be taught something about art, but to be intellectually or morally regenerated. The catalogue of the St. Jude exhibition is a model of ingenuity in discovering rare thoughts, intentions, and aspirations in the simplest picture. The same desire to consider everything from a moral and sentimental standpoint was manifested that same afternoon in the treatment of decorative art. We were taken into the dining-room of Toynbee Hall and shown its decorations. They have been executed by workingmen and boys under the guidance of Mr. Ashbee. The latter is an architect, and was a pupil of Messrs. Bodley and Garner, who have just erected the abomination, called a reredos, with which Dean Church, to his lasting discredit, has allowed them to ruin the interior of St. Paul's Cathedral. What I saw of the work, done under Mr. Ashbee's guidance, proved that, unfortunately for the British workman, he is a worthy pupil of his masters—architects who will be remembered by after generations because of their vandalism. The walls were painted in dark red, apparently in imitation of a Morris wall paper. The frieze consisted of a row of gaudily painted shields set on a staring white ground. Mr. Ashbee said nothing of the merit of the work or the methods of his system of teaching. He dwelt instead on the fact that it was all "love-work," the men and boys having devoted to it their leisure hours and presented it as a gift to Toynbee Hall. The only other point upon which he insisted was that the painting on the walls was freehand—hardly a virtue when the work could have been better done and time economized by stencilling, as even Mr. Morris would admit.

However, the good accomplished by the picture exhibition as a means of recreation cannot be overestimated. It is kept open on days and at hours when workingmen are at leisure—exactly the days and hours when the British Museum and National Gallery, Bethnal Green, and South Kensington Museums are closed. Admission is free. No one is hurried or interfered with. The season for it is well chosen. Later the people enjoy their Sunday holiday out of doors in the open green spaces of which there are so many in London. But just at present, though the days grow longer, they are no less gray and gloomy and wet.

The directors of the People's Palace have had the same good sense. The Queen's Hall, the only part of the building finished as yet, is also opened on Sunday, though even in the East End there is much opposition to this sensible measure. The Palace but partially realizes Mr. Besant's ideal. In his story the Palace of Delight was given to the people; they were to be its managers and guardians; they were to do with it as they chose, to originate its amusements and organize its classes—if classes were wanted. The real Palace, while it has no monastery attached to it, is in the hands of trustees who do not consult the workingman even when his interests are most vitally concerned. A veto has been passed against beer, but his opinion on the subject has not been asked. The workingman, in Mr. Besant's book, could drink his glass comfortably as he smoked his evening pipe. Still, much calling for praise has been accomplished since (less than a year ago) Whitechapel hung out the flags of the Metropolitan Board of Works and welcomed the Queen to the hall named in her honor.

The Palace is much further east than Toynbee Hall. The road to it from the city is wide and airy, lined with shops, with here and there a quaint old almshouse or substantial eighteenth-century residence. You see little or nothing to suggest the utter misery now associated with the name of East London. Indeed, not anywhere in the East End have I seen squalor and degradation greater than that of Drury Lane or Westminster slums. It is depressing because of its vast extent. Nowhere else are you so conscious of the large majority of those who live to toil and toil to live. At the Palace gates, as at Toynbee Hall, there is nothing to pay. This being the case, it is to be regretted that the walls are placarded with notices of classes and lectures and concerts for which a fee is asked. The fee is usually small, but its conspicuous advertisement doubtless frightens away many a workingman. The Hall within is large, light, and pleasant, but decorated most vilely. I believe classes for the minor arts have already been started in connection with it. Instructors should at once impress upon students the vileness of these decorations. To give the people bad models, to surround them with what is artistically worse than worthless, is a poor way to cultivate their feeling for art and beauty. Recreation at the Palace has not yet assumed the importance Mr. Besant meant to give it. Those who wish to be instructed have a better chance than those who wish to be amused. The principal means of recreation are the library and music; and fortunately both are available on Sundays. An organ recital is given at 12:30, an hour when morning service is over and public houses are about to open. Every time I have been to the Palace at noon on Sunday, I have found the Hall well filled, the people listening to the music quietly and with apparent enjoyment, the greater number staying until the very end of the performance. Almost as many return in the afternoon to read. Near the door are newspaper stands with almost all the London and many of the provincial daily papers. At the tables, in the body of the Hall, are to be had the illustrated and comic weeklies and the monthly magazines. On either side, against the wall, are bookcases which already contain many standard works. Even Crowe and Cavalcaselle have penetrated to the East End. In more than one American city the opening

of a reading-room on Sunday would be accepted as a matter of course. But in London, where it is something new, the step taken by the directors of the People's Palace must be welcomed as one in the right direction.

One has only to see on Sunday this great Hall and St. Jude's Schoolhouse during the exhibition, to know that they are appreciated; but whether by the class for which they are intended is another question. As a rule, the genuine workman is conspicuous by his absence. The crowd at each place is made up of people fairly well dressed—apparently small shopkeepers and clerks and the higher class of artisans. The man in corduroys with the handkerchief around his neck, and the woman of that peculiar type unknown out of London, are slow to come and quick to go. One Sunday afternoon, at the picture show, a clergyman of the East End assured me that everybody in the room with us belonged to the working class which I thought unrepresented. Clothes are cheap in the East End, he said, and they all buy black coats for Sunday. But the fact remained that the near streets were filled with workingmen in working clothes. In groups around the costermonger's cart, or lingering at the door of the public house, were the corduroys for which I was looking. Music and pictures and books add much to the lives, only too dull and colorless, of those who are taking advantage of them. But so far they have not appealed to the typical British workman, who is being besieged by politicians, social reformers, and philanthropists, and continues calmly indifferent to them all. N. N.

Correspondence.

MR. FOULKE'S INQUIRY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Between the 1st and 20th of August, 1885, noticing that "suspensions" of postmasters before the expiration of their terms were becoming very frequent, I addressed 193 letters, indiscriminately, to postmasters suspended in this State, and 102 letters to Presidential postmasters elsewhere. I inquired of each the cause of the suspension, whether any charges had been made, whether there was any investigation or any opportunity for an investigation or defence. To these letters I received 158 replies; some of these showed that the officer had resigned or that his term had expired, a few failed to answer the questions, but 136 gave me the desired information—101 from Indiana and 35 from elsewhere. *In only two instances, one in Indiana and one in New York,* had there been any investigation; *in every other case* no notice of any charges had been given, no cause assigned, no opportunity afforded for defence, denial, or explanation; in a large number of cases the first information on the subject received by the postmaster suspended was by newspaper report or upon presentation of the order of suspension by the new appointee. In fifteen cases in Indiana the change was attributed to the Congressman in the district, the successor having been promised the office in some instances. Sometimes the parties learned by hearsay and street rumor that charges of offensive partisanship had been preferred. In ten cases in Indiana (and eleven cases elsewhere), a request was made for information respecting the charges and an opportunity for investigation, but no such opportunity was given, nor were the charges disclosed.

Knowing that this information was ex parte, and not believing it possible that these removals were thus made with the approval of the author of the letter to Mr. Curtis, I communicated to the President personally the results of my inquiries, together with the names of the postmasters in question. I found, however, that the President approved this course. He stated that he considered it impracticable to inform the postmasters of charges against them, that this would be to turn the question of their removal into a judicial investigation, that they were continually protesting, objecting, and asking for copies of the charges, but that these could not be furnished them. I suggested that there was little use of requiring that charges should be preferred, if the postmaster was not permitted to see them and there was to be no investigation; that charges were frequently made by persons utterly irresponsible, and often by those who did not pretend to know the facts; that such charges were frequently false, and that it was not possible to procure accurate information until both sides had at least a chance to be heard. He said he regretted that I had made these inquiries, that the Department had to get its information as best it could, that he had great difficulty in bringing many of his party friends up to his ideas of this reform, and that Indiana was a particularly bad State in that respect. I left in his hands a summary of the results of my inquiries.

Frequently the accuser was rewarded for his secret charge by appointment to the office. I could name many instances:

LOUISA C. CANINE states that she was removed without notice upon the false charge, preferred by A. J. Kitt, her successor, that she was a non-resident.

A. H. SYMPSON.—The affidavits against A. H. Sympson of Winchester, Ky., were prepared by William M. Bickner, a relative of his successor. Among the parties swearing to them was Dory Hazzard, a worthless negro of no character.

W. L. SEATON of Jackson, Mich., was assured that his successor (an editor of a Democratic paper) filed charges of offensive partisanship against him.

CHARLES G. MICHAELS of Hope, Ind., writes that the charges were preferred by E. A. Monnanth, a brother-in-law of his successor, L. O. Miller.

E. R. KIRK of Sioux City, Ia., was removed through the agency of one Chase, an office-broker, upon affidavits of partisanship made by an ex-policeman and the son-in-law of his successor, Crawford.

S. A. MARINE of Vinton, Ia., heard that the specification against him was the delivery of a partisan address on Decoration Day, which was, in fact, delivered by his brother.

In many instances, such as Philip Kendall, Portland Mills, the charge, alleged to be false, is attributed to a personal enemy, for the purpose of working out an old grudge

MRS. ISABELLA DE LA HUNT of Cannelton was removed without notice, upon the charge of thrusting offensive campaign matter into the boxes of patrons, which, as it appears by her affidavit, was false.

R. M. BARTLEY of Owen, Ind., heard that the charge against him was that he had received corruption funds, bought votes, and spent days electioneering, all of which he pronounces utterly false.

J. H. STEWART.—The charge against J. H. Stewart of Chariton, Iowa, as he understood it, was exhibiting an obnoxious campaign banner in the Post-office building. He shows, by affidavits, that it was not exhibited by him, nor in any room under his control, and that he requested its removal. His successor was Chairman of the Democratic Central Committee.

IDA CARPENTER of Butler, Ind., writes that she understands the principal charge was that she sent money to the Republican State Central Committee, which was false.

No doubt some of these denials by the suspended postmasters may themselves be untrue. They are ex-parte statements, and necessarily so from the fact that neither the charge nor the accuser was in most instances definitely known. Among so many removals there were no doubt a good number which were properly made. My objection was not to any particular case, but to a system which made it impossible for the Department to know whether the charge was true—a system by which many acts of flagrant injustice must of necessity be committed. Such a system would naturally be used by spoilsmen to get places. Indeed, the appointees appear to be largely from that class.

W. M. HANCOCK, Postmaster at Meridian, Miss., states that he was succeeded by Col. J. J. Shannen, who was convicted January 2, 1872, in the United States District Court at Jackson, Miss., of criminally conspiring with others for the purpose of depriving persons of African descent of equal privileges under the Constitution of the United States.

M. M. HURLEY of New Albany, Ind., understands that he was suspended without written charges, but upon verbal charges made by Congressman Howard and O. O. Stealey of the Louisville *Courier-Journal.* His successor was Chairman of the Democratic County Committee, and one of the proprietors of the *Ledger*, a Democratic paper and a Southern sympathizer during the war.

CRAWFORD, successor of Kirk of Sioux City, Ia., had been sentenced to the penitentiary at Yankton, Dak.

The successor of A. S. Orr of Wilkesbarre, Pa., was Chairman of the Democratic State Committee, editor of a Democratic newspaper, and friend of Randall, by whom the appointment was made.

A. W. AMICK of Lexington, Ind., writes on August 3 that ever since his successor was appointed he (Amick) has had to make out the reports to the Department.

You are no doubt familiar with the case of James Dowling, appointed by the influence of Mr. Bynum, Democratic Congressman from Indianapolis, to a position in the railway mail service. Dowling boasted that he had bribed certain members of the Common Council of Indianapolis. For this he was tried by Council and found guilty by a two-thirds vote. A majority voted to expel him, but the requisite two-thirds was lacking for that purpose. Before the Grand Jury Dowling refused to testify, because his answer might criminate him. These facts are notorious to every man in this State. Mr. Vilas, Postmaster-General, was notified of them by Lucius B. Swift on September 12, but wrote to Mr. Swift that it would be fair for Mr. Dowling "to have notice of the accusation, because inquiry might put a different complexion on the case."

The importance of investigation, and of the old maxim "Audi alteram partem," was thus recognized by the very man who refused to grant it in many cases above. Mr. Dowling remained in the service until he finally suffered a mail train to go to Peoria and back without any attendant, and the mail remained undistributed. Then he was finally discharged. This happened not long ago.

I would call your attention to the fact that these are not cases of mere mistaken appointments which may be attributed to erroneous information; but they show the deliberate adoption of an utterly vicious principle. It is to say in effect that no one but the man who will consent to prefer charges against his neighbor, which he knows are neither to be seen nor answered, is to be rewarded by the coveted place. It is to hold out, by a uniform system, a direct premium to libel and false testimony, which are to be protected by perpetual secrecy. The files of the Department are the lion's mouth for the reception of charges against the guilty and innocent alike. To adopt such a course is to establish that law of most unnatural selection which leads inevitably to the survival of the most unfit.

It is the man who will descend to secret calumny who is rewarded by the spoils of office. The first that is known of the charge is from the reading of the sentence. And this is done under the direction of a President who has told us that "the voters of the land have learned that mystery and concealment in the management of their affairs cover tricks and betrayals." There can be little question of the aptness of his own words in the description of his subsequent conduct. Such methods are decidedly worse than the spoils system itself.

Yours, WM. D. FOULKE.

RICHMOND, IND., April 11.

THE PREOCCUPATION OF THE SOLID SOUTH.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: People who expect the "Solid South" to break up on such questions as the tariff, internal revenue, or any other issue of practical politics, are ignorant of Southern history. When did the South divide on the negro question? Did not our wise (?) men demand protection to slavery, yea, rather, "extension" of slavery, at the sacrifice of all else? Did not they allow the free North to dig its canals, deepen its harbors, make magnificent its cities, perfect its school system, and enrich its farms while the South languished in the shackles of slavery? What cared our forefathers for a new State if it was not to be a slave State? What made a Breckinridge possible, and drove a Douglas from the ranks of Southern Democracy? The immortal Henry cried aloud for "liberty," but his own Southland ever demanded slavery or disunion, which meant death.

From my standpoint, I am amazed that a section of the Union should have clamored for the continued life of an institution whose death sentence had been agreed upon by the nations of earth. Bold? Yea, but infinitely bad judgment. The negro as a chattel was no more absorbing of Southern thought than is the negro as citizen. As in the past, so now, the negro is, and, it looks to me, ever will be, the one controlling and consuming issue with the South. Talk of every other economic, practical, desirable subject that should engage the thought of our people and the time and talent of our law-makers, and the Southern man may listen and may agree with you or dissent, but he is sure to conclude with a question after this order, "What about the nigger?" This is the ghost in the way, the horrid "nightmare," the ghostly skeleton. Ask him of what the "cavalier" is afraid, and he will answer, "Of Cuffee." Ask for a reason, and he can give none, but will repeat, "Cuffee." Remind him that the negro men of the South had charge of the farms of the South during the war, and that from them they furnished the food with which to feed the army fighting to forge but the stronger the chains of slavery, and he will, yea, must, admit it. Say to him that during all those dreary days of death and destruction the strong arm of the negro defended the peace and purity of his home, and he cannot deny it. Recall to him the fact that though our fathers asserted with confidence that the negro without a master would become such a monster that no society could tolerate his presence, when the history is that he is as docile as when he wore a chain, and a more useful inhabitant of the earth than when he was driven to his work, and this he will admit under protest. Tell him that our social circles in this year of our Lord 1888 are as safe from invasion as they were before the emancipation proclamation had been issued or written, and he feels the truth of what you say. Say to him that the negro does not "strike for higher wages" or fewer hours of work, that he is a stranger to the faith and follies of the anarchists, that he is content with an humble home and coarse fare, and to all this he must give an unwilling assent; and yet he will remain stolidly indifferent to every other public demand and patriotic obligation for fear of the "nigger."

Our ancestors wasted their strength and exhausted their energies fighting *for* the negro, their children are consuming theirs fighting *against* the negro. Madness before 1860, madness since, and all because of Cuffee and what so many are pleased to term *consistency*. Those who are not always dodging behind the negro as a pretext for not doing plain public duty, are harping on *consistency*. "My daddy lived and died a Democrat, and by the gods so will I"; "he carried the stone in the sack along with the grist to the mill, and so will I." Tell him that Gladstone was originally a Tory, but that his good sense made him a Radical, and that Radicalism made him great, and he will listen to you and then laugh at you. What hope for such a people? God in his wisdom alone knows.

What is the duty of the North, these things being so? Simply to take care of the Government, and continue to watch its growth, and see that it *does* grow. When the Chicago Convention meets, let the representatives be busy to know who can carry New York, the Pacific States, the *always free* portion of this grand Government of ours; and give leadership to that man. The South won't vote for him, and its silver tongue will grow eloquent in denouncing him; but make him leader, make him President, and let us hope that, after a time, prejudices will all be buried, passions banished from the consideration of grave public concern, and the Southland will have been breathing the air of freedom so long that it too will address itself to the work of material development, and not be frightened from its earnest purpose by any false alarm of small-fry politicians, whose little capital consists of energetic cries of "Run, white man, the nigger catch you."

EX-REBEL.

VIRGINIA, April 14, 1888.

PRO PATRIA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In reading over the history of the past, one is led to believe that there have been times when good citizens supposed that it was both a duty and a privilege to lay down property, or even life, for their country, in times of public danger. We seem to have passed the stage in the development of the race to which such doctrine belongs; and the present theory of patriotism in case of war seems to measure the duty of personal sacrifice by the chances of restitution after the crisis shall have been passed. As an illustration of this interesting change, it is only necessary to cite the recent telegram of the Governor of Ohio announcing to the world that "We want the direct tax refunded *because the United States owes it to us.*"

If the South should break out into rebellion again, during the excitement of the coming Presidential campaign, and the Government at Washington should be obliged to call upon the States for a direct tax equal to the amount formerly levied, the Governor would doubtless send on a signed receipt for the principal of the old debt, and, in view of the circumstances, would probably delay his suit against the Union for unpaid interest until the war should be over and a surplus should again begin to accumulate in the vaults of the national treasury.

W. H. JOHNSON.

BUSINESS "FAILURES."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your article on "Business Failures" in the *Nation*, April 12, 1888, is startling in its conclusions. On January 1, 1888, Messrs. R. G. Dun & Co. issued a circular giving the number of failures in the United States for the thirty-one years from 1857 to 1888, which shows by accurate statistics the failures in 1885 to be one in 86, in 1886 one in 98, in 1887 one in 111. Back of this, from 1884 to 1857, the full returns are not quoted, but they cannot have averaged much worse results than the three years from 1885 to 1887, and the three disastrous years 1857, 1861, 1873 will not go below one failure in 75.

Where is the fallacy—in the reading of the Dun & Co. figures, or in your reasoning?

Yours, JOHN A. WALKER.

JERSEY CITY, April 16, 1888.

[The apparent "fallacy" arises from the confounding by our correspondent of the restricted sense of the term failure as bankruptcy with its broader meaning as used by Mr. Walker and in these columns—"fail of success," as we put it. This means not necessarily, nor in the majority of cases, that a man who has started in business on his own account ends in the bankruptcy court, but only that, after making thorough trial, he discovers that he is not succeeding in that line, and gives up the experiment.—ED. NATION.]

MOST FOR *ALMOST.*

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In commenting on this use, consulting brevity, I omitted mention of the Anglo-Saxon *mæst*, "fere," "plerusque." Of this, and also of *most*, bearing the same sense, in old English, down to the fifteenth century, I could have written in detail. My rough notes, I find, contain abundant particulars about them.

Your correspondent "C." says, in No. 1187, that "this use of the word is a tradition from very far back." To sustain this assertion of a "tradition," he should have produced something like a catena of authorities. As it is, his quotations, two in number, belong to a period when English, as the term is ordinarily understood, was still in the future.

I have said that *most*, "almost," "must have originated among the ignorant." According to "C.," "it did not originate among the ignorant." But this denial rests on the assumption that, to us of later times, it is a venerable "tradition." Research may show this, a thing not yet shown.

"No proof that it is other than a modernism is known to me." So, with misleading conciseness, I wrote in January. And it was, chiefly, because I was not then acquainted with the passage about to be given, that I was disposed, as, with respect to it as now current, I am still, to accede to Dr. Murray's view, that it is traceable, through *a'most* of the last century, to *almost* aphetized. The passage referred to, which I chanced on only a few days ago, is as follows:

"Wee are, *most* all, of Issachars Tribe; therefore, vsually choose callings of greatest ease." Dr. William Sclater (1626). *Expos. II. Thess.* (1629), p. 275.

This work I have cited for "*mostly* all" and "*mostly* always," with the suggestion that its author therein possibly adopted rustic expressions which he heard about him in Somersetshire. I now extend the suggestion to his "*most* all." Quotations for this, or the like,

from books dating between 1450 and 1600 would be interesting.

In some parts of the South, the negroes say *hit* for *it*. No one supposes that this was imported, in recent years, from England. Nor, again, does any one suppose it to have been derived, by continuity, from the days of Queen Elizabeth. Its occurrence cannot but be purely fortuitous.

Most all, with *most any*, etc., may, in like manner, have reappeared, in very late times, quite independently of more or less ancient precedent. Is its history this, that it was once catholic English, then became dialectal, if it did not die, and finally was redevised, to be taken up by the English-speaking vulgar in general? Perhaps we shall by and by know.

Owing to a slip of the pen, Chaucer is spoken of, in your 215th page, col. 1, as of the "fifteenth" century, instead of "fourteenth."

Your obedient servant, F. H.

MARLESFORD, ENGLAND, April 9, 1888.

Notes.

IN honor of the coming centennial year, Mr. Paul Leicester Ford will issue, in a limited edition, a reprint of rare controversial pamphlets for and against the ratification of the United States Constitution, accompanied by a bibliography of the books and pamphlets relating to the ratification and to the development of the national political parties of the time. This useful compilation will be entitled 'The Constitution of the United States, 1787-1789,' and will make an octavo volume of some 500 pages, procurable by subscribers for five dollars. Mr. Ford's address is 97 Clark St., Brooklyn, N. Y.

Another limited edition of which we are notified is that of the late Centennial Proceedings at Marietta, Ohio, April 7, 8, in the *Ohio Archæological and Historical Quarterly*, obtainable of Mr. A. A. Graham, Secretary, Columbus, Ohio.

Harper & Bros. publish directly 'France and the Confederate Navy,' by Mr. John Bigelow, and a revised edition of Green's 'Short History of the English People,' of which Mrs. Green has had charge.

Roberts Bros. send us 'The Ordeal of Richard Feverel,' in the popular edition of George Meredith's works—the author's edition at the same time.

The second volume of Prof. Henry Morley's 'English Writers' (Cassell & Co.) covers the period from Cædmon to the Conquest, and consists (as the first volume did) of a revision of his work upon early English literature published several years ago. Cædmon, Bede, Cynewulf, Alfred, and Ælfric, with selections from the anonymous writings, are specially treated. The citations made in illustration of this literature are somewhat capricious, and the treatment involves altogether a disproportionate amount of ecclesiastical history. The chapter upon the Sagas is cognate to the subject, but is hardly a part of it. The work as a whole is involved and cumbersome in construction, and the style is dull. Its use must be only that of a minor book of reference.

Volume viii of the publications of the Oxford Historical Society (Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan) is 'Elizabethan Oxford; Reprints of Rare Tracts,' edited by Charles Plummer, M.A., of Corpus Christi College. This volume, containing 260 pages, is late in its appearance, for the reason that it takes the place, among the publications of 1886, of another work, which was necessarily delayed. It consists entirely of reprints, five in number, together with notes and appendices, and will be found very valuable in the study of the literature of this period. The works reprinted are: (1) Nicolai Fierberti Oxoniensis Academiæ Descriptio, 1602; (2) Leonard Hutten on the Antiquities of Oxford; (3) Queen Elizabeth at Oxford, 1566; (4) ditto, 1592; (5) Apollinis et Musarum Eidyllia, per Joannen Sanfordum, 1592. The three last of the number are devoted to the two visits of Queen Elizabeth, and contain a variety of addresses, entertainments, etc., in prose and poetry, Latin and English. Along with this volume we have received another of 170 pages, in the same general style, but not bearing the imprint of the Oxford Historical Society, entitled 'Rough List of Manuscript Materials relating to the History of Oxford, contained in the printed Catalogues of the Bodleian and College Libraries, arranged according to Subject, with an Index, by F. Madan, M.A.'

Mr. W. J. Rolfe has edited 'The Poetical Works of Sir Walter Scott' with a completeness and accuracy not elsewhere displayed; and a beautiful octavo volume, freely illustrated, has been issued with the above title by Ticknor & Co., Boston. The best of the songs that occur in the novels and plays are here given, along with all the original poetical mottoes placed by Scott at the heads of his chapters. There is a table of contents (which would have been improved by indicating the songs, like "Lochinvar," involved in the longer poems) and an index which, in one way or another, serves as a key to the general contents Finally, Scott's notes are massed together, with judicious abridgment. Mr. Rolfe has discovered and repaired many disfigurements of the longer poems in particular, caused by the poet's own unchallenged carelessness of revision, and by that of his editors and their copyists. He has also commendably undertaken to make the punctuation more modern and rational, having an eye to redundancy in particular. No task is more laborious and hardly any more useful than this, in the case of poetry. Even Mr. Rolfe nods at times in the application of his principle, as he will acknowledge. In the song "O, Brignall banks," on page 297, a superfluous comma at the end of the first line of the third stanza, a faulty comma at the end of the third line of the fourth stanza, are instances in point. But it is enough that this edition should outrank any other, even if not flawless.

The Report of the Commissioner of Education for 1885-86 has the merit of condensation, which has been deliberately sought, and other improvements are visible. The absence of any special discussion of the needs of education at the South would indicate that Commissioner Dawson's horizon does not coincide with Senator Blair's. The freshest document in the book, and one of the most interesting, is a report on the neglected schools in Alaska, dated May 2, 1887. The educational benefactions of the year amounted nearly to $6,000,000. Of this sum one-sixth is credited to New Jersey, and somewhat more than another sixth to Massachusetts and New York combined. Tried by this test, public spirit was more rife in Louisiana than in Maine, in Virginia than in Connecticut, in North Carolina than in Vermont, in Kentucky than in New Hampshire, in Texas ($1,000) than in Rhode Island. The proportion of college students was one for every 1,286 inhabitants of the North Atlantic division: 1,600 South Atlantic; 1,273 Northern Central; 1,532 Southern Central; and 1,031 Western division.

Capt. Howard Patterson's 'Yachtsman's Guide' (New York, 26 Burling Slip) contains a diversity of matter interesting to a yachtsman, whether he be a beginner or an old hand at the sport. The chapter on navigation is set forth with a simplicity which is a relief, after scanning the usual voluminous works on the subject. Much of this book, however, speaks to the merchant-ship captain rather than to the yachtsman, and might well be curtailed or omitted, while more space could be advantageously devoted to "marlinespike seamanship," in which few yachtsmen are well schooled. Taken all in all, the 'Yachtsman's Guide' is a convenient book of reference for the amateur sailor, and a good introduction to the study of navigation and seamanship.

Publishers, artists, and printers have done their duty by Mr. McAnally's 'Irish Wonders: Popular Tales as Told by the People' (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). That is the best we can say for the book. The folk-lore of a people is perilous ground for an author who has no special qualifications for the task. It is not a subject that can be trifled with. These rehashes of Irish, or supposed Irish, myths and legends are wanting in the directness, simplicity, verve, and reserve that characterize the folk-lore of the country; while the representations of scenery are for the most part unreal and distorted.

In announcing recently Mr. W. E. Henley's forthcoming biography of Alexandre Dumas, we remarked that there was no wholly satisfactory life of the author of 'Monte Cristo,' even in French, though there is no lack of attempts to supply one. The latest of these, and probably the emptiest, is M. Philibert Audebrand's 'Alexandre Dumas à la Maison d'Or—Souvenirs de la Vie Littéraire' (Paris: Calmann Lévy), against which we warn all admirers of Athos, Porthos, and Aramis, the three musketeers (who were always four). It purports to give an account of *Le Mousquetaire*, Dumas's daily paper; but it contains almost nothing of value.

A Belgian astronomer, M. Houzeau, has published the second volume of a 'Bibliographie Générale de l'Astronomie.' It consists of 2,300 pages, and gives the titles of 35,000 papers on astronomy which have appeared in periodicals since the year 1666 to the present time. The first volume will contain a list of all the single works on this subject, and, it is expected, will be published during the present year. A third and concluding volume will appear in 1889, and will be devoted to lists of astronomical observations ("alle bisher stattgehabten astronomischen Beobachtungen").

Belford's Magazine enters the arena next month, published by Belford, Clarke & Co., at 384 Broadway, New York, and edited by Donn Piatt. It is avowedly to be a Democratic and Administration periodical, and its list of contributors, including Mr. D. A. Wells, Mr. Frank H. Hurd, Prof. W. G. Sumner, Mr. J. S. Moore, Mr. Henry George, etc., plainly shows a combative intent on the political side. But fiction, poetry, general literature, science, and art come within the scope of this monthly.

A new monthly periodical, *Science of Photography*, has been issued this month by the well-known Philadelphia firm of opticians, James W. Queen & Co., Philadelphia.

New, likewise, is the *Cornell Magazine* for May, and typographically quite in the front rank of college periodicals of the same class. It aims to strengthen the bond between the alumni and the University. The opening article, by President Adams, is on the "Successes and Failures of College-Bred Men."

From a circular accompanying the *Lincolnshire Notes and Queries* for April it appears that a movement is on foot to form a Lincolnshire Record Society for the printing of histo-

rical documents such as abound in the country. The membership will be on the guinea basis, and subscribers alone will receive the annual volume contemplated. Those who desire to help found the Society should forward their names to the Rev. John Clare Hudson, Thornton Vicarage, Horncastle, England.

"A Glimpse of North Africa" is the title of an article in the *Contemporary* for April by Grant Allen, in which he contends that all of the region between the Syrtis and the Atlantic is in fact European, both in its fauna and flora and, with some trifling exceptions, its people, and not a part of the Dark Continent. In regard to the latter, he instances the Kabyles, who are, at bottom, European in habits and manners, with a thin veneer of Mohammedanism. He energetically defends the French from the accusation of being poor colonizers, describing briefly their half-century work in Algeria—a work which they are also successfully doing in Tunis, and which, he hopes, no narrow international jealousies will prevent their doing in Morocco. He compares the environs of Algiers with the country for ten miles about Montreal or Toronto, to the great disadvantage of the latter. There are "no wooden shams, no flimsy makeshifts" here. Indeed, he goes so far as to say that there is "no town in any English colony . . . half so much like England as Algiers, with its stately boulevards and splendid warehouses, is like Marseilles or Toulon."

The French Association for the Advancement of Science has recently held its meeting at Oran in Algeria, and the *Revue Scientifique* for March 31 contains the address of the President, M. Laussedat, on "The Civilizing Influence of Science." A previous number contains a paper, read before the Association by M. G. Rolland, on the commercial and military value of the "lignes de pénétration" in Algeria, or the railways which run directly south from the Mediterranean, especially that in the eastern part of the province, which is to connect Constantine with the new oases created on the borders of the Sahara. The fear is expressed that the Italians will construct a line south from Tripoli, and divert all the trade of the western Sudan into that country.

The publication of Hessels's recent work, 'Haarlem the Birthplace of Printing, not Mentz,' of which note has already been made in these columns, bids fair to revive an old controversy and give it a new lease of life. In the January number of the Dutch periodical, *De Gids*, Professor Fruin of Leyden discusses the question and reviews the work of Hessels, but dissents from his conclusions, declaring frankly that, in the light of the evidence at present available, the outlook is much more favorable for the claims of Mentz than for those of Haarlem. In the March number of the *Centralblatt für Bibliothekswesen* it is stated that Hessels is preparing a Dutch translation of his book, in which he will take occasion to reply to the arguments of Fruin; and the editor of the *Centralblatt* promises his readers (in case Hessels then makes a definitive statement of his hitherto somewhat fluctuating opinions) an extended review of the work by a Dutch scholar, to be followed by a rejoinder from the German side. Van der Linde, to whom Hessels has boldly thrown down the gauntlet, accusing him not only of ignorance, but of wilful misrepresentation and suppression of facts, is still to be heard from.

In the March issues of *L'Art* (Macmillan) the most interesting illustration is a copy of one of Rowlandson's social satires, "The Extravagant Wife," a large full-page drawing with wash and pen and ink; the heroine deliciously rendered. To the same age of caricature belong half-a-dozen portraits of French artists at Rome just before the Revolution of '89, executed by Germain Drouais, a favorite pupil of David's cut off in his prime. A photochromotype of an old binding in red and gold is a fine example of the perfection to which this kind of facsimile has been carried.

B. Westermann & Co. send us two more numbers (20 and 21) of the 'Geschichte der deutschen Kunst,' with the customary profusion of illustrations; and the first number of the fourth edition of 'Meyer's Hand-Lexikon des allgemeinen Wissens.' We are truly sorry to see the enlargement in form thought necessary for this reissue of a work of singular utility. The third edition we have been using with the greatest satisfaction for five years, with constant admiration for the compactness of its wealth of information, its handy size, its admirable typography. To have made three or four volumes of the two would have seemed the proper thing. Instead, it has been thought advisable to resort to the octavo shape, and the handbook we have denominated for ourselves the "little giant" of encyclopædias thus loses its outward identity. Chromos, too, after the fashion of the larger Meyer and Brockhaus, make their début among the illustrations; the maps take on a larger scale. The most regrettable change of all is from the Roman to the less legible Gothic letter. That the contents will show an improvement and enlargement upon the third edition, there can be no doubt.

An imperial or half life-size photograph of Edwin Booth comes to us from F. Gutekunst, Philadelphia, and it is the freshest portrait of the tragedian as it is one of the best and most impressive. It is worthy of Mr. Gutekunst's high standard of excellence in his art, and forms a notable addition to his gallery of American celebrities.

We observe with gratification that the friends of the veteran English reformer, Mr. George Jacob Holyoake, are endeavoring to purchase an annuity for him to eke out his income for the remaining years of his life. Remittances may be sent to Mr. Marsden, 43 Doughty Street, London, W. C.

—The May *Atlantic* is made up of fiction and a number of excellent essays. There is no poetry, and this would be a welcome incident if it could be taken as a sign that as rigid a standard is to be applied to verses as is imposed upon prose. There is no excuse for the marked difference to be observed in the magazines between the quality of what they are willing to publish as prose, and that of what they admit provided it is rhymed. It seems to be a common notion among editors that verses enjoy an exemption from the requirement of excellence. Occasionally this perversion of judgment goes so far that if a poem is especially vapid or foolish or crazy, or a writer has a real genius for crankiness, such are preferred, as if to remind us how savage tribes respect some specially distinguished idiot. Every month poems are published in our leading magazines which would never have had a moment's attention if they were treated as prose articles are, and examined as to their excuse for being by ordinary literary tests. The result of this laxity in the standard is apparent in the hundred versifiers who make up the poetic staff of the monthlies, and whose work is without literary distinction. Excellence in poetry is now hardly looked for, while on the other hand the high grade of our journeyman prose is often remarked upon, and good writing is so much expected that it surprises no one. The *Atlantic* has held to a better standard than the other magazines hitherto—partly, no doubt, because of its strong traditions. If this unpoetic number inaugurates the old policy in even a stronger form, so much the better. The essays this month are more noticeable because of the absence of the poems, but they bear closer attention easily. The sketch of the late Emperor William by Prof. Herbert Tuttle is a very unusual paper, defining his personality and the character of his reign clearly and broadly, and without any concession to the eulogy of the hour. He shows us the man behind the great imperial figure, the strong qualities, the narrow ideas, the combination of drill-master and *grand monarque* and old Prussian baron, and he reminds us that the Emperor was the enemy of constitutional liberty in a way that military glory has taught us too readily to forget. The sketch of Cicero, based upon his letters, is a pleasing classical paper. Mr. Cook drafts the main features for a reformed Marriage Law. "The American Philosophical Society" affords a view of old Philadelphia worthies; and there is plenty of other matter less grave than these leading articles.

—*Harper's* has an interesting series of twenty-seven portraits of literary celebrities in London, and a larger number of persons are dealt with in the article which furnishes the text, and which is confined practically to biographical details. Perhaps the most marked impression made by the comprehensive view of literary England thus given consists in the undeniable inferiority of the generation next to Tennyson, Carlyle, and Newman in respect both to genius and achievement. This decline of literary power is indubitable now that the roll of men is really made up for the latter Victorian period, though the reasons for it have hardly yet become a matter of speculation. The novelists, it is true, are not included in this survey, but examination of their claims will not alter the result. The remainder of the number is not of more than average interest. Chicago and Denver are described as examples of the triumph of material civilization in the West, and perhaps there is a slight ray of promise of other things in that part of the country in Mr. Warner's opening sentence, "Chicago is becoming modest." But as the author states its principal claim to distinction to be its having "the greatest merchant in Dry-goods, the greatest dealer in Clothing, the greatest Packer in the country, and probably in the world," there is possibly a touch of optimism in his startling prologue. One is inclined to take this view all the more because he apparently refers the city's "modesty" to its astonishment at its own greatness; nothing else, one feels sure, could overawe it and bring about such an unaccustomed frame of mind. Chicago is becoming self-reliant in the same sense that older cities and Americans in general are, because they no longer have that doubt of their position which leads men to make self-asserting claims; but modesty is a different thing. Two articles upon Russian affairs, with respect to the Nihilist prisoners, counteract Mr. Kennan's views in the *Century*, though the second one, upon Russian law, presents practically the same state of affairs, so far as the character of the trials is concerned, and says plainly that political offenders are outlawed because the charge against them operates to destroy the ordinary rights of accused persons in their cases. But, in reading the more favorable accounts of the organization of justice for other offences, it is needful to remember that the administration is of more consequence than the system, under arbitrary rule.

—With the April number of the *Harvard Law Review* begins the second year of that "Monthly Journal of Law published by Harvard Law Students." We called attention to one or more of its earlier numbers, and are now able to praise heartily the general results of the first year's work of this really valuable journal. The first number of the second volume is marked by learning, and by clearness and accuracy in the discussions of important subjects. Indeed, the leading article by Professor Ames on the "History of Assumpsit"—the first of a series—is a very remarkable paper indeed, and would give distinction to any law journal. The writer has thoroughly searched our older law, and presents compactly and with great force and skill the results of his study of the authorities in their historical order. The paper is not of a sort to be abstracted here; its general scope, however, may be indicated by saying that it deals with the origin and import of assumpsit, and of consideration in our law of contract. The author holds it "impossible to refer consideration to a single source. At the present day it is doubtless just and expedient to resolve every consideration into a detriment to the promisee incurred at the request of the promiser. But this definition . . . would not have covered the cases of the sixteenth century. There were then two distinct forms of consideration: (1) detriment; (2) a precedent debt. . . . The history of detriment is bound up with the history of special assumpsit, whereas the consideration based upon a precedent debt must be studied in the development of *indebitatus assumpsit*." Professor Ames's conclusions as to the origin of special assumpsit, viz., that it is traceable to the action on the case for deceit, agree with those of Judge Hare in his recent book on contracts. This is the more interesting from the fact that they were worked out and in manuscript, as the writer informs us, before that excellent book was published. The argument tends to disprove the doctrines of consideration put forward by Mr. Justice Holmes and by Mr. Salmond, a late writer in the English *Law Quarterly Review*. Besides this thorough and admirable piece of legal investigation, the *Review* contains interesting articles on "The Principle of Lumley vs. Gye, and its Application," by William Schofield, Instructor in the Law School; and on "The Right to follow Trust Property when confused with other Property," by Samuel Williston, a member of the third-year class in the School.

—In an editorial paragraph of the last *Modern Language Notes* we read as follows:

"'Wie Georg Brandes deutsche Literaturgeschichte schreibt' is the title of a highly interesting article in the last number of Herrig's *Archiv*, written by Dr. Puls of Flensburg. The Danish essayist and critic, who has hitherto in certain circles passed for a great scholar, and who, on account of the supposed profundity of his knowledge, was allowed to express radical opinions and offensive criticism, is now suddenly exposed as a literary plagiarist of the worst sort. . . . The result . . . develops the fact that Brandes not only did not read the sources necessary for writing an original history, but that he has copied, in many passages verbatim, from the works of German investigators like Haym, Goedeke, Hitzig, etc. Had Brandes concealed his fraud in the comparative obscurity of the Danish language, he might, perhaps, never have been discovered. But he had his book translated into German, thus giving another illustration of the not unfrequent phenomenon that scientific ignorance and incapacity are coupled with the impudence and *sangfroid* properly belonging to criminals."

As we have long held, and have occasionally expressed in these columns, a rather favorable opinion of Brandes's literary work, we were somewhat perturbed by the above quoted remark; so we hastened to Herrig's *Archiv* to find out what Dr. Puls had discovered. And what we find out is, that, while the case has its mysterious and depressing aspects, it is, at any rate, not quite as bad as the *Modern Language Notes* would have us suppose. Dr. Puls's charges are based upon what he finds in the second volume of the new edition of Brandes's well-known work, 'Die Hauptströmungen der Literatur des neunzehnten Jahrhunderts.' This volume appeared last year at Leipzig. It calls itself an "original work," this phrase meaning that it is no longer simply Strodtmann's translation from the Danish, but is this translation revised and amplified by Brandes himself. Strodtmann's translation appeared in 1873.

—Dr. Puls begins his attack thus: "Brandes citiert, Seite 122, aus Wackenroder, 'Die Kunst ist eine verführerische, verbotene Frucht; wer einmal von ihrem innersten, süssen Safte gekostet, der ist unwiederruflich verloren,' etc." In the original of this passage, observes Puls, we find instead of "süssen" "süssesten," instead of "gekostet" "geschmeckt," and instead of "unwiederruflich" "unwiederbringlich." From these and other similar "disfigurations" Puls infers that an author who could so misquote must have been very careless, or else could never have seen his original. Upon turning to Strodtmann's translation, however, we find these "disfigurations" are there also. We have not the Danish edition of Brandes's work at hand, but we presume the case was simply this: Brandes first rendered his German quotations into Danish, then Strodtmann translated this Danish back into German of his own, without taking the trouble to look up the original; finally, Brandes, in revising his work, has not thought it worth while to go through it and correct his translator's translations. Here, surely, is neither immorality nor gross carelessness; so this category of Dr. Puls's charges becomes rather vacuous. With regard to the plagiarisms the case is not so clear, though here, too, a really decisive verdict can be given only after a comparison of the Danish edition with Strodtmann, and this in turn with the new revision. For the most of Puls's parallel passages we find in Strodtmann, who would seem to be, in some cases at least, responsible for the particular turn of phrase that has excited the German Doctor's suspicions. Further, we notice that Brandes occasionally refers to Haym; in one place we find the parenthesis, "as Haym has shown," right between two of the passages excerpted by Puls as plagiarisms. Dr. Puls might very properly have mentioned this fact. There are also some further palliating considerations for which we have here no space. In spite of all that we have discovered, however, we admit that the matter has a decidedly unpleasant appearance, and we shall look with interest for Brandes's explanation of it. Meanwhile, we had rather not take the responsibility of using such words as "fraud," "ignorance," "incapacity," and "impudence" in connection with the name of a man who has shown himself capable of such admirable literary work as Brandes has done, and done in considerable quantity.

—One of the recent publications of the Oxford Historical Society (Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan) is entitled 'Letters of Richard Radcliffe and John James of Queen's College, Oxford, 1755–'83.' The correspondence is edited by Mrs. Margaret Evans, and many notes and appendices are supplied by the Provost of Queen's. The greater part of these notes are merely extracts from registers and other official memoranda, and are therefore of interest only to those in some way concerned with the Queen's College genealogy. They are the product of the most elaborate and painstaking research, but they cannot be said to give a very clear picture of the life at Oxford in the last century. The letters themselves are deficient in this respect, and almost the only definite impression to be derived from them is of the outrageous character of the collection of mediæval practices which then constituted an Oxford college. Frequent allusions show the bitter resentment of the writers at the desperate and humiliating struggle for preferment which was a necessary feature of the oligarchical administration of Church and University. In spite of all abuses, however, a very high degree of culture was somehow obtained, as these letters abundantly show. They are full of graceful humor, and are remarkably fresh and modern in tone. In fact, they interest us more in the personality of the writers than in the life at Queen's College. The spelling, it may be observed, varies extremely little from the present standard.

—A product of the same pious spirit is 'Yale and her Honor-Roll in the American Revolution,' by Prof. Henry P. Johnston of the College of the City of New York. In this case, however, the design is not to throw light upon the college life of the day, but to trace the connection of the graduates and students with the Continental Army. The College itself was compelled to close its doors during the early years of the war. Of the class of 1775 nearly twenty are known to have entered the military service of their country, and the other classes of about that time were drawn upon almost as heavily. Mr. Johnston computes that there were about 900 graduates living at the outbreak of the war, and that altogether the number who took some part in it was nearly 240. At least fifty-five are known to have been engaged at Boston and other points in 1775, and in the following year the number increased to about seventy-five. The nature of the controversy was such as to appeal to men of education especially, and they certainly seem to have appreciated their responsibilities. In the absence of a military class, the men of college training were naturally selected as officers, and in the list of those serving in 1776 only three out of seventy-five appear as privates. Considering the poverty of our early military records, Mr. Johnston has been surprisingly successful in making out his biographical sketches, and he is able to give some details of the lives of more than four-fifths of those who are believed to have done military service. A few original letters are printed, and the chapters upon the several years of the war, which are intended to show the careers of the more prominent Yalensians, permit the introduction of something like continuous narrative. Mr. Johnston deserves the thanks of all loyal Yale men for his generous labors, which his familiarity with the manuscripts of the Revolutionary period renders especially productive. The volume is a very handsome one, and contains two steel portraits, one of Oliver Wolcott, the other Trumbull's fascinating head of Col. Tallmadge—certainly a work of genius, whatever may be said of the other works of that artist. The book is privately printed, but may be obtained of G. P. Putnam's Sons.

—The sixth and seventh volumes of Franklin's Works as edited by Mr. John Bigelow (Putnams) cover the years 1776–1782, all but the first spent in Paris as Commissioner to France from the Congress of the United States. The multitude of cares incurred in this service furnish the staple of the correspondence in these volumes. Conspicuous are those to and from

his exasperating colleague, Arthur Lee, to whom Franklin's plain English is as refreshing as it is in the case of Capt. Landais, after the latter's falling-out with John Paul Jones. We get a glimpse of the nuisance caused by Frenchmen desiring to be recommended as officers in the American Army, and of Franklin's consummate tact in this as in all other matters —a tact absolutely divorced from duplicity. There is but little that relates to science. Curious is Franklin's proposal that pikes and crossbows should be employed against the British musketry. In France he reports that the ball head-dress of women is from five to seven face-lengths high. He records very minutely the state of his health at this time of his life, and satirizes himself in the sprightly dialogue between himself and Mme. Gout. We meet here with references to the monument to Gen. Montgomery now in the rear of St. Paul's Church in this city, which was shipped from France by way of North Carolina, well packed, as he affirms and as its present condition proves. There is a letter to "Master Johnny," the future second President Adams. Among the tales and apologues assigned to these dates we find the famous two about the whistle and about substituting sunshine for candlelight. Franklin declines to pass judgment on the feeble efforts to turn into French verse Turgot's eulogistic line, "Eripuit coelo," etc. A commonplace occurs in the letter of February 8, 1777, to Mrs. Thompson, who had called him a rebel: "You should wait for the event, which will determine whether it is a *rebellion* or only a *revolution*." A now obsolete sense attaches to the word he italicizes in the sentence: "We consider it a sort of *tar-and-feather* honor, or a mixture of foulness and folly," etc.

—Our knowledge of the earliest form of Irish speech is derived from interlinear glosses written by Irish monks in Latin manuscripts. Upon a study of such glosses was based the 'Grammatica Celtica' of Zeuss-Ebel. Prior to 1881, however, no systematic attempt was made to publish the glosses and thus render them accessible to all. In that year Zimmer brought out his 'Glossae Hibernicae' (Berlin: Weidmann) under the auspices of the Berlin Academy. The volume contained the readings from twenty-three MSS. The *codex princeps* was the Würzburg MS. of the Pauline Epistles. Zimmer's treatment of this was sharply attacked by Whitley Stokes, who published in 1883 a formidable list of errors and omissions, based upon a collation of the MS. Latterly Stokes has brought out his own edition of the Würzburg MS. (including also the Carlsruhe MSS. of Priscian's 'Institutiones,' Beda's 'De Rerum Natura' and 'De Temporum Ratione,' and of one of Augustine's writings, under the title 'The Old Irish Glosses of Würzburg and Carlsruhe,' for the Philological Societies of London and Cambridge (Trübner & Co., 1887). The Augustine glossae were edited in 1884 by Windisch, and are included in the present volume for the sake of completeness. Stokes's readings are undoubtedly an improvement upon Zimmer's, and they have the additional advantage of offering throughout an English translation of every Irish form. The editor has in hand a second part, to comprise an Introduction and Glossarial Index. The latter term has to us a slightly ominous ring. The Early English Text Society has published more than one glossarial index that fell short of the mark. What we need, and hope to see, is an *absolute concordance*. And we also hope that Stokes will give us a grammar of Oldest Irish, akin to those of Braune, Noreen, and Sievers for High German, Icelandic, and English.

TOLSTOI'S PHYSIOLOGY OF WAR.

The Physiology of War. Napoleon and the Russian Campaign. By Count Leo Tolstoi. Translated from the French by Huntington Smith. Thos. Y. Crowell & Co. 16mo, pp. ix, 190.

In this little work Tolstoi has formulated his philosophy of war, giving us his theory separated from the practical and realistic details so vividly drawn in the well-known chapters of 'War and Peace.' It is only as doctrine, therefore, and not as literature, that we have now to consider Tolstoi's ideas. He teaches the opposite of Carlyle's theory of human nature and history, as developed in 'Heroes and Hero Worship.' With him the so-called great man counts for little or nothing, the nation and its environment for everything. He pushes the doctrine of natural evolution in history far beyond Buckle, and makes everything that happens the inevitable outcome of the development of great masses of men under the doctrine of natural selection—the apparent leaders being the mere bubbles of froth on the great current of human destiny. He asserts that "the progress of events is inevitable; that it is a result of the combined volition of all who participate in the events, and that the influence of Napoleons upon the progress of affairs is superficial and fictitious."

He is so sure of his principle that he no longer holds it as an inductive conclusion from facts, but boldly tests a narrative of facts by *a priori* deduction from the principle, saying that "if, in the accounts of historians, we see that wars and battles are invariably carried out in accordance with plans made in advance, the only conclusion that I can come to in regard to these historians is, that their descriptions are not true." Applying it to Napoleon in the Russian campaign, he says: "We imagine Napoleon to have been the director of all these movements, just as the savages imagine the figurehead upon the prow of a vessel to be the power that moves it onward. Napoleon, through the whole of this campaign, was like a child seated in a carriage clasping the sides, and imagining it is he that makes the horses go."

The question whether Napoleon in Russia in 1812 was the Napoleon of the Italian campaign of 1796 loses all significance, for the sweeping principle is applied to the first as to the last of his campaigns. "The excellent quality of his army in Italy," he says, "the disinclination of the enemy to fight, his confidence in himself and his puerile effrontery, give him military glory. A multitude of so-called happy accidents meet him everywhere." From first to last, it is all lies and shams, pretence and puerility; and when the end comes at St. Helena, "the true dispenser of events, having brought the drama to an end, takes away the mask from the principal actor, and reveals his face, saying, 'See in whom you have believed! Here he is. You see now that not he but I led you!'" Nor does Tolstoi stop here. What is true of Napoleon is also true, though stated in more measured terms, of Peter the Great and of Alexander the Czar, of the King of Prussia, and of the Emperor of Austria.

The logical outcome of such doctrine must be that not only among those called great leaders, but in all degrees down the whole scale to the lowest, all pretence of controlling or guiding must be a sham. The man who assumes to guide a village coterie or a knot of disputants at a pot-house, is neither more nor less of a fraud than the Napoleons. There is no guidance, no leadership anywhere, in action or in thought; the instincts of the mass impel them onward, the direction of the movement is determined by the environment, the environment itself is determined by the fatal concourse of all preceding material and moral forces. The campaign of Moscow, like the armed migration of Attila and his Huns, should be likened only to those migrations of ants which travellers in the tropics tell of, which go on in endless columns, stopping for neither rock nor stream, till their destiny is accomplished, perhaps by their destruction in some river or gulf into which they are blindly precipitated.

Tolstoi does not develop his theory to this logical conclusion, for that would be, to most of his readers, its decisive confutation. We may reasonably doubt whether he is not conscious of the danger of the ground he is treading on, and whether there may not be reasons, in the task of helping his countrymen onward towards a true political and social progress, why he may voluntarily choose an exaggerated mode of expression, a sort of deification of the multitude at the expense of all leaders, which may make more palatable the protest against the autocratic Government of Russia that is to be read in every line. The fate of the so-called Nihilists is sufficient warning that he who strives to reform the Government must choose cautiously his means and his words. By making the Muscovite people a great organized being, having its aspirations and its possible destiny determined by its innate character and activities, the whole so much greater than any of its parts that even a Czar is only its organ of action and necessarily obedient to the physical laws of the whole body, he may give shape to the patriotic pride of each individual, and induce even the Czar himself to find a satisfaction in putting away the proud illusion that his brain and will govern Russia, and in accepting the nobler office of heading a freer development of the nation through progressive representative institutions. It is no new thing for the advocate of dangerous truths to shelter himself behind an exaggerated form of received doctrine. A famous example was that of Brougham in his defence of Queen Caroline, who, when loyal Englishmen stood aghast at the blows he struck at enthroned corruption—

> "—— what seemed its head
> The likeness of a kingly crown had on"—

took refuge behind a doctrine of the duty of counsel to his client, so distorted and magnified that it has ever since been a popular paradox of the debating schools.

We Americans are so used to the idea that the people as a whole are greater than any ruler, that if familiarity has not bred contempt, it has at least made us quite ready to see and acknowledge the limitations of the truth. No intelligent man among us fails to see that there is room for true leadership in the most democratic of institutions. No political philosopher of the Old World could teach our average citizen much in regard to the vital distinction between a mob and a nation. Organization has become among us a sort of instinct, and able European writers have recorded the fact that when a crowd of civilized men came together at the gold placers in the wilds of Australia, a few Yankees became at once the centre and nucleus of a practicable municipal organization, which gave immediately to a shanty town much of the civil order and safety of an old community. Our democracy, therefore, is the furthest possible remove from anarchy, and is instinctively and unrelentingly hostile to it. We demand that our officers of state shall be absolutely obedient to the Constitution and the laws, and make the common weal the *suprema lex* in a fuller and wider sense than foreign jurists have done; but we also recognize clearly the scope and

place for highest intellect and solidest character in those who, in our phrase, are called to do the people's will. We know there is room for highest leadership in the sphere of a President, a Governor, a Mayor; and the intelligence of the country knows that it is cheated just so far as unscrupulous and selfish demagogy usurps the place which born leaders should fill.

Trained in this practical school, our scholars, also, however explicitly they may accept the doctrine of evolution in history, will not accept Tolstoi's theory that a great figure in human affairs is only a gaudy fly on the chariot wheel. The condition of a people may be the result of their environment acting and reacting upon their inherited character and tendencies, but the advent of a great intellect and will is an essential part of the complex situation which we cannot for a moment afford to overlook. The progress of science in the eighteenth century would not have been the same if Newton had not lived. He, with his inherited and acquired powers of mind, was a positive force in his generation. The world of thought *minus* Newton would not have been the world it was, and its achievements neither would nor could have been the same unless you supply a precisely equivalent genius in his place. France *minus* Napoleon would not have been France *plus* Napoleon. If Napoleon had been a Washington, the combination of elements of force and of morals would have been still different, and the resultant historical progress of events must have been different as certainly as a different combination of elements would produce different results in chemistry.

This view of evolution takes account of a great man as an element of real power and influence in human society, which Tolstoi's does not. It is not necessary to argue that he is omnipotent any more than that he is a nonentity. Take him for what he really is; study his character and his mind; learn his powers and his weaknesses; estimate his weight in the scale relatively with others; reduce his pretensions to the measure of his actual accomplishment; but when you have done all this, remember that just to the extent in which you have found him stronger, greater, better, or worse than his fellows, you must estimate him in the equation of forces that move the people of his time this way or that.

If one might press the argument home, it would be fair to ask Tolstoi, Why are you wearing out your intellect, your great human sympathies, your pride of race, and practising self-immolation to the aspirations and hopes of the Russian people? If it will be the same to them whether you write or are silent, if you are not a force in your time, but only one of the bubbles upon the resistless river, why not push back the writing-table and quit the useless effort? The answer is, that the famous writer feels that, in spite of his theory, he is and may be a power in the settlement of the great problems with which his country is rocking and heaving. He is conscious, after all, that a true man counts for much in such a struggle, and in his heart repudiates the thing his lips preach, viz., that his influence is only as one to the total number of heads enumerated in the census.

It would not be difficult to show that the exigency of supporting such a thesis has led Tolstoi into an untenable depreciation of the powers of Napoleon, even in the campaign of Moscow. But as he has generalized upon all the events of that period, so as to include in the same judgment all prominent men of all nations, and Napoleon at all the periods of his career, it is better to limit our criticism to the theory propounded and to fairly drawn conclusions from it. By so doing, we are able to find a philosophical basis for estimating every man, in his influence upon his epoch, according to his individual qualities and powers; and to vindicate the judgment which the common sense of all peoples and all ages declares, that full responsibility rests upon every son of Adam, not only for the good or the ill that he may actually do, but for the fullest cultivation and the noblest use of all the powers with which he has been endowed.

RECENT FRENCH BOOKS.

THE 'Histoire de la Civilisation contemporaine en France' of M. Alfred Rambaud (Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.) is the third and concluding volume of the series of which the same writer's 'Histoire de la Civilisation française' forms the two earlier volumes. The 750 very solid pages of the present work contain a summary exposition of the progress of France during the last hundred years in government and administrative institutions; in moral, political, and economical ideas; in letters, arts, and sciences. The various chapters which describe this progress follow each other in the same order, and under similar headings, in each of the three periods into which the work is divided: the revolutionary governments (1789–1814), those of restricted suffrage (1814–1848), those of universal suffrage (since 1848). Imperfect as is this grouping of the Revolution with the Consulate and Empire, of the Restoration with the Monarchy of July, of the Second and Third Republics with the Second Empire, the advantages are so great that possibly no wiser distribution of the material could have been made. As a book of reference, M. Rambaud's work is excellent—concise, clear, complete, and very readable. The whole story, for example, of the political changes in the forms of government in France since 1848 is told in a dozen pages—in the first section, "Les Constitutions," of Part III—without the omission of any essential step, and with no attempt to relate the history of the period. The same may be said of the chapter, in each of the three parts of the work, on "L'Instruction publique," and of that on "L'Administration, la justice, les finances, les cultes." M. Rambaud is a sincere republican, but his work is never partisan in its tone even in the most political of its chapters. It may even be called unprejudiced and impartial as far as it was possible for a writer to make it so when treating of matters in which he felt such a personal interest.

In 1884, Mme. Michelet published a volume of the personal recollections of her husband under the title 'Ma Jeunesse,' made up, as she informs the reader in her preface, from the abundant notes and journals left by him. It is the story of the childhood and youth of the historian as he recalled it at different periods years afterwards, much of it when he was forty and fifty years old. She has now published a second volume of these "souvenirs de jeunesse," as she calls the whole work, under the title: 'Mon Journal, 1820–1823' (Paris: Marpon & Flammarion; Boston: Schoenhof). These dates of the title page are not exactly correct, strangely enough, for the journal closes November 8, 1822, and the few and scattered entries of the last year fill only twenty-five pages of the volume. The Journal itself is supplemented by what is called the "Journal de mes idées," extending from 1818 to 1829, and filled with Michelet's projects of literary work, and also by a list of the books he read during the same period, set down methodically under months, sometimes with the exact dates. The whole forms a singularly instructive account of the mental and spiritual development of one of the most individual writers of the present century.

Michelet began his Journal, he says in a letter to his friend, Poinsot, in the hope that if he should die first it would add to his friend's knowledge of him, "et que je vivrais encore dans ta pensée par une sorte de présence réelle." Paul Poinsot was at this time completing his studies in medicine as an *interne* at the hospital of Bicêtre. He was Michelet's most intimate friend from the days of their childish companionship, related in 'Ma Jeunesse,' until his early death, less than a year after the Journal was begun. Its pages are filled with their friendship while he lived, and with a kind of spiritual communion on Michelet's part afterwards—partly memory and partly aspiration—the record of which has all the tenderest and most touching qualities of his later writing, but is more subdued and more reticent in manner.

Poinsot went to live in Michelet's family in 1818, and the two years that followed were passed by the young men in the closest companionship. When this life in common came to an end, May 4, 1820, Michelet accompanied Poinsot to Bicêtre, and then, returning to the study his friend had occupied next his own chamber, he wrote there the first pages of the Journal which Mme. Michelet now gives to the world after almost seventy years. Every Sunday morning Michelet walked to Bicêtre and spent several hours with Poinsot, for the distance was so great and the days were so filled with work and study that he could spare no other time for these visits. Frequent letters passed between them during these intervals of separation, which are given in the volume between the dates of the Journal where they belong. At the same time with these letters and with the Journal, which is a record of his thoughts and feelings rather than of events, Michelet began what he named the "Mémorial," in which he recalled the events of his childhood and early youth. This also was undertaken for his friend. It was never finished, but the portions of it which Mme. Michelet has given in 'Ma Jeunesse' have great interest and beauty of an austere and elevated kind.

The two volumes of these "souvenirs de jeunesse" already published make one of the most interesting of autobiographies, ending when Michelet, then little more than twenty-four years old, was appointed professor of history at the Collège Sainte-Barbe. With his entrance upon this new life his Journal was laid aside, and apparently not again taken up continuously until 1838, after his ten years as professor of history and philosophy at the École Normale were over. These ten years of his life are the subject of a third volume announced as already in press: 'L'École Normale, 1827-1837.'

Almost all the forms of constancy have a charm of their own, and the happy author is, perhaps, no less than the happy warrior, he who in maturer years

> "hath wrought
> Upon the plan that pleased his earliest thought."

This charm is possessed by the volume of M. Albert Desjardins' 'Les Sentiments moraux au XVIe siècle' (Paris: G. Pedone-Lauriel; Boston: Schoenhof). Seventeen years ago he published a smaller work, 'Les Moralistes français au XVIe siècle.' Since then he has written much on Roman, French, and English law, ancient and modern, civil and ecclesiastical, for he is a professor in the Paris Faculty of Law. Now he returns to the study of the moral

conditions of the sixteenth century, and returns to it with an intelligence broadened and strengthened by these intervening years of life and reflection. In his own words: "After having studied the moral doctrine of those who wrote in France in the sixteenth century, we desire to study now the moral sentiments of those who lived and acted in this same country, at this same time." This subject is more interesting than the former one, and the present work is in every way superior to its precursor; superior in expression, in scholarship, and in thought. It is not only excellent in all these respects, but it is full of interest as well. The first book was one not to be found fault with; this is one to be praised.

Another and a very different book upon the sixteenth century is 'Les Mœurs polies et la Littérature de cour sous Henri II.,' by M. Édouard Bourciez (Paris: Hachette; Boston: Schoenhof). This title promises much, but the volume gives more than it promises. The reader has an agreeable disappointment in finding that "les mœurs polies" include tourneys and huntings, religious processions led by the King, and the spectacle of the punishment of heretics; the wild beasts of the royal menagerie, the court fools and dwarfs, and the first Moorish ambassador. The literary chapters are not less widely inclusive. There are examinations of the 'Amadis' and of its imitations, of French poetry before the days of Ronsard, and of the work of Ronsard himself and of his associates. These give occasion for sketches of court personages who, while fostering the Renaissance, were themselves educated by it into conditions of feeling, and even conditions of action, previously unknown. M. Bourciez has blended into one homogeneous subject these studies of the literature, the manners, and the men of the court of Henri II. in a way that makes his book very attractive. With entire simplicity of phrase and quietness of tone he is never dull, as he rapidly presents his various topics with the ease of familiarity and without overcrowding and confusion, in the pictures which succeed each other. The work is of interest from another point of view. The author has made of it, in a certain manner, a kind of comment on Rabelais. Although that great genius himself does not appear personally, his life being before the period here treated of, M. Bourciez shows his readers that many of the ideas which found wide development and some realization later, existed intellectually and as vision in the mind of Rabelais; that he embodied the vague aspirations of his contemporaries, those men and women whom M. Bourciez describes as "among the most complex of beings; rooted in the past, dazzled by new illuminations, sensual and idealistic, striving to reason, and possessing, not infrequently by instinct, the sentiment of beauty."

The title of M. Oscar Méténier's 'Bohême bourgeoise' (Paris: Albert Savine; Boston: Schoenhof) indicates its subject with clever ability to say the thing meant—a quality to be found in many of its pages. The book sets forth the natures of people, commonplace and narrow in their education, in their points of view, in their habits of life; unrestrained and disorderly in their instincts and desires. The writer puts in the strongest light the heartlessness, the recklessness, the perverse and dissolute life of a middle-class woman, whose passions, even, are trivial and acquired, stimulated sometimes by curiosity concerning evil, sometimes by greed of money. This heroine resembles Mme. Bovary; but she is a Parisian, not a provincial Mme. Bovary, with something less fatally tragic in her composition than in that of Flaubert's miserable heroine. She resembles still more nearly M. Paul Bourget's Mme. Moraines, in 'Mensonges,' and the situation also, as far as she is concerned, is the same, but stripped of its deceptive sentimentality and external refinement. The hero is a *romancier* by profession, but neither commonplace nor disorderly. His sole passion is for truth in art, and he sees men and women and their conditions only as subjects for analysis. His cynicism is cold-blooded enough, and his excitements are only of the intellect, which renders the volume tolerably decent, though sufficiently disagreeable.

'Mensonges,' by M. Paul Bourget (Paris: Lemerre; Boston: Schoenhof), is the third of a series of novels by the author of 'Essais de Pyschologie contemporaine.' These are merely three different expressions of the same state of mind in the writer. Indeed, in all that is essential, 'Cruelle énigme' is the same story as 'Mensonges'; and if 'Un Crime d'amour' varies in any way, it is because the characters have changed sexes. The unquestionable ability and even talent of M. Bourget seem to be confined in these books—and he has written only one other novel—within the narrow limits of one situation and state of mind, presented by two actors who remain always the same, whatever characters they may assume. This monotony of subject is not redeemed by any brilliancy of treatment; the author of 'Mensonges' is not one of the great masters of French prose, like M. Guy de Maupassant or Pierre Loti—to take two extremes of manner in fiction. His influence over his readers is great, but is produced by causes of very unequal value. It is owing partly to a remarkable power of analysis of the feelings and passions which are his usual subjects of observation, partly to the tone of melancholy and disenchantment which is the characteristic mark of his style; but principally to an excessive sentimentality, the expression of which generally produces a strong effect when it seems to be sincere and deeply felt.

M. Bourget's sentiment and powers of analysis, however, are exercised upon subjects unworthy of his ability, subjects which, if treated at all, are only fit for the light and flippant irony of Gyp, whose last book, 'Les Séducteurs' (Paris: Calmann Lévy; Boston: Schoenhof), is not only much less false in feeling and portraiture than any of these more serious works, but is also much more healthy in its influence, however justly it may be taxed with impropriety and even indecency. This lively writer is not guilty of presenting Mme. de Flirt and Mme. d'Houbly and the rest of her young women with any appearance of a refinement and delicacy of feeling inconsistent with their shallow and vulgar natures, as M. Bourget does with his perverse heroines. Neither does she throw around any of their male companions the sentimental graces with which M. Bourget disguises the ugly reality of the selfishness, ingratitude, cruelty, and coarseness of his heroes. It is this false air of distinction, this representation of his personages as suffering from the refinement of their sentiments and feelings under the pressure of a cruel fatality, which excites the sympathy of his readers, and renders M. Bourget undoubtedly the most dangerous among the writers of fiction of the present day.

The novel of M. Bourget which immediately preceded 'Mensonges,' 'André Cornélis' (Paris: Lemerre; New York: Christern), differs from his other stories by the entirely altered atmosphere created by the more tragic passions of the characters. It is the story of *Hamlet* in a modern setting. The action centres in the innocence and unconsciousness of the mother during the years of suspicion and lingering projects of vengeance in the mind of the son, and of consuming remorse in that of the husband. The efforts of the two men to preserve the wife and mother from any suspicion of the crime which fills the lives of both; their exclusive and jealous love for her and silent watch upon each other, give occasion for the exercise of all M. Bourget's powers of analytical description. 'André Cornélis' has many fine points, many passages of great power; it is both well written and interesting, and still it was not a successful novel. That the author should have returned, in 'Mensonges,' to the weak and contemptible personages of his earlier books, was certainly a great mistake, for he has shown that he can do nothing more in that direction than to reproduce his first successes. His talent promised something more, when the 'Essais de Pyschologie contemporaine' appeared, than this very slender stream.

MR. LANG'S THEORY OF FAIRY TALES.

Perrault's Popular Tales. Edited from the original editions, with introduction, etc. By Andrew Lang, M.A. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1888. Square 8vo, pp. cxv, 153.

The Most Pleasant and Delectable Tale of the Marriage of Cupid and Psyche. Done into English by William Adlington of University College in Oxford. With a Discourse on the Fable by Andrew Lang. London: David Nutt. 1887. 8vo, pp. lxxxvi, 65.

ONCE before, fairy tales have been a matter of interest to mature minds, and a subject of more or less serious study on the part of men of letters. Strangely enough, this was during one of the most artificial periods in the most artificial society the world has ever seen; for it was at the Court of Louis XIV., where the prevailing ideas of nature and simplicity were reflected in D'Urfé's 'Astrée.' It was undoubtedly this very artificial state of society which made the artless fairy tale so welcome, and it did not take long to discover that princesses in the disguise of goose-girls, and princes transformed into beasts, could, with a little decking out, be made presentable at Court. We know from Mme. de Sévigné's letters that as early as 1676 fairy tales were told at Court, but they did not assume the form of written literature until near the end of the century. This is very strange, for in Italy, a land which so powerfully influenced French society and literature during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, fairy tales had been a part of literature as early as 1550, when Straparola's 'Piacevoli Notti' appeared in Venice. This work was translated into French by Jean Louveau (Part I., 1560) and Larivey (Parts I., II., 1573), and passed through twelve editions at least before the appearance of Perrault's tales. Straparola's stories, in spite of this apparent popularity, do not seem to have had any influence in France, or to have called forth any imitations. Two of Perrault's tales, 'Peau d'Âne' and 'Le Chat Botté,' have counterparts in Straparola, but cannot be said to have been borrowed from him. Still less influence was exerted in France by Basile's 'Pentamerone' (Naples, 1637), an incomparable collection of popular tales, but written in a difficult dialect, and in a style which seems almost like a burlesque of Marino's. It is worth noting that Mlle. L'Héritier's 'L'Adroite Princesse' (printed in 1696, a year before the first edition of Perrault's tales), has a parallel in Basile.

It is certainly curious, in view of the great popularity of the Italian collections above men-

tioned and the translation of one of them into French, that it was not until 1696 that a fairy tale appeared in print in France, or rather at The Hague, where in a magazine (*Recueil de pièces curieuses et nouvelles tant en prose qu'en vers*) published by Moëtjens were printed (1696-1697), without the author's name, eight fairy tales in prose, which have become part of the world's literature, and in one country at least (England) have entirely dispossessed the national versions. These tales we know as "The Sleeping Beauty," "Red Riding Hood," "Blue-Beard," "Puss in Boots," "The Fairy," "Cinderella," "Riquet of the Tuft," and "Hop o' My Thumb." They appeared together for the first time in 1697 under the title, 'Histoires ou contes du Temps passé, avec des moralitez.' The preface, or dedication to Mademoiselle, is signed by P. Darmancour, Perrault's son, and his name alone is mentioned in the *privilège*. This is the edition which Mr. Lang has reproduced, with all its peculiarities of spelling and printing (absence of paragraphs except for the *moralitez*, etc.).

How old P. Darmancour was when these tales appeared is not known (some say ten, others nineteen), nor is his share in their authorship clear. It is, however, likely that he wrote them out, by way of exercise, as he heard them from his nurse, or from old women on his father's estates, and that afterwards his father corrected and retouched them. This alone can explain that peculiar character of the work which makes it, as Paul de St. Victor says: "Livre unique entre tous les livres, mêlé de la sagesse du vieillard et de la candeur de l'enfant!" Perrault's stories were received with the greatest favor, and called forth an extensive literature of fairy tales in France, lacking, however, the naïveté of Perrault's, and having comparatively little worth, either traditional or literary. Then the fairy tale dropped out of sight in literature and was relegated to the nursery, until in our own times it became, by the curious development of modern science, a subject of serious investigation.

Mr. Lang, in his charming introduction, traces all this strange history with a deft hand, and endeavors to explain, by the light of modern science, the interesting questions connected with folk-tales, their origin and diffusion. As is well known, he rejects the theories by which folk-tales are made a part of Aryan mythology and diffused by the dispersion of the Aryan peoples, or are declared to be of Indian origin and introduced into Europe within historic times chiefly by means of written literature. The theory he advanced is substantially the same as that applied by him to mythology in general, and recently noticed in these columns. The material of fairy tales he accounts for as survivals from savagery, when a belief in speaking animals, magical powers, etc., was universal. Many of the detached ideas and incidents may also be connected with savage customs still existing. The difficulty which he finds insoluble by his or any other theory, is the coincidence in *plot*.

Mr. Lang intends his edition of Perrault as an introduction to the study of popular tales in general, and his elaborate notes to each story show his method of applying his theory to folk-tales. The second work at the head of this article is an excuse for a still more detailed application of the same theory to a single tale. With the present revival of interest in all that concerns the daily life of the Greeks and Romans, which reminds one of the similar enthusiasm of the early Renaissance, we wonder what their entertaining literature was, and what stories and songs amused and lulled to sleep the future victors of Marathon and Zama. We shall probably never know, for while references are frequently made to the fact that mothers and nurses told their children tales, these stories have long ago disappeared, and although we might, according to modern theories, reconstruct some from our own nursery tales, still the truth remains that, besides some fragmentary versions in the work of a fourteenth-century ecclesiastic, we possess no fairy tale in a literary version older than the collection of Straparola mentioned above, with the exception of one remarkable Latin tale. In the second century Apuleius, an African writer, composed his 'Twelve Books of Metamorphoses, or concerning the Golden Ass,' in the fourth, fifth, and sixth books of which occurs the episode of Cupid and Psyche.

With the outlines of the story, which are reproduced in a host of modern nursery tales, our readers are familiar. A wife is not permitted to behold her husband's face; she violates the prohibition and he disappears. The wife then begins a long and arduous search for him, and finally, after the accomplishment of difficult tasks, they are united. For centuries the story was supposed to be a Platonic allegory of the progress of the Human Soul to perfection, but Perrault, in his preface to 'Griselidis' (1695), recognized its true character when he declared: "La fable de Psyché, écrite par Lucien et par Apulée, est une fiction toute pure et un conte de vieille, comme celui de Peau d'Âne." As Mr. Lang remarks: "Nothing in it but the names of the hero and heroine and of the gods connects the legend in Apuleius with the higher mythology of the Olympian consistory." The character of the fable as a popular tale being established, Mr. Lang's purpose is

> "to trace the various forms and fortunes of the popular tales which, among various Aryan and non-Aryan peoples, correspond more or less closely to the fable of 'Cupid and Psyche.' The general conclusions which we shall try to establish are: first, that the essential features of the tale are not peculiar to Aryan peoples only, but that they are found in stories from all quarters; secondly, we shall try to show that these essential features might occur to the human fancy anywhere—granted certain rules and forms of society."

These certain rules and forms, it is needless to say, are savage customs, and it is their application to the solution of the question of folk-tales which constitutes the novelty and value of Mr. Lang's theory. We can only briefly allude to its application to this particular story. Of the various episodes in it, three (jealousy of sisters, and of mothers-in-law, and the crime of curiosity) "are ordinary human notions which may occur anywhere, and anywhere may offer *motifs* for fiction." Two other incidents, sending a foe on dangerous tasks and visiting Hell, are found generally in certain conditions of society and among men with pre-Christian ideas of the state of the dead. "Of the two remaining ideas neither is natural to civilized men in modern society, but both are familiar to many widely scattered peoples in various degrees of culture." These ideas are: that animals can powerfully or magically assist their friends, and the injunction imposed upon the bride not to behold her husband's face and form. The first idea Mr. Lang illustrates very copiously by savage tales from all lands; the second is nothing less than the tabu imposed by many savage races on the freedom of married intercourse. We can do little more here than indicate Mr. Lang's theory, which nowhere is more elaborately developed or more copiously illustrated from the author's great store of savage lore. It is enough to say that the anthropological theory, as we may call Mr. Lang's, invests the study of popular tales with a new interest, and widens immensely a field hitherto restricted to the Aryan peoples.

We have left ourselves but scant space to speak of the books themselves. It would be superfluous to dwell on Perrault's charming style, which finds an appropriate envelope in the most beautiful book ever issued by the Clarendon Press, the first *édition de luxe*, we believe, of that famous establishment. The paper, print, and illustrations (two portraits of Perrault, one of them by Eisen) compare favorably with the product of the most famous French printers, and the binding, half parchment, is neat and appropriate. The 'Cupid and Psyche' is also a beautiful book, with two etchings and a headpiece. We believe it is already out of print, having been limited to 500 copies. Of the English translator, William Adlington, almost nothing is known except that he was an Oxford man, and flourished about the middle of the sixteenth century (the first edition of his work is 1566). His version possesses the quaint charm we admire in the early English translations, inaccurate as many are, and made not directly, but through an intermediate French or Spanish or Italian version.

The Life of Mrs. Godolphin. By John Evelyn of Wooton, Esq. New edition. Edited by Edward William Harcourt. Anson D. F. Randolph & Co. 1888.

THIS pious biography was published some forty years ago from Evelyn's manuscript, and is now reprinted with some few additional notes. It is an episode of life at the court of Charles II. and is most interesting, since it shows how a religious life of a pure and devout kind could be lived by a young girl even in that polluted atmosphere. The heroine was maid of honor at the age of twelve to the Duchess of York for two years, and then on the death of the Duchess went to Whitehall, where she attended the court for seven years; then she retired to Lady Berkeley's, and not very long after married Godolphin. She had made her choice at the first, apparently when fourteen, and the affection of the lovers lasted nine years before they were united. She was very religious, and it was not without overcoming the feeling that she ought to live in retirement, unmarried, and in the usual pursuits of a quasi-cloistral life, meditation and charity, that she at last consented to yield to her love and her lover. She had made Evelyn her sworn friend after a pleasing fashion, and he tried to persuade her to marriage, which he thought was necessary to her happiness. The narrative of the conflict between her religious and her human passion is the most charming and ingenuous passage of the biography, because of its touches of human nature. She was thoroughly in love, and at the same time she was most minded to serve heaven.

At court she was one of the ornaments of the society, witty and companionable, beautiful, diverting, and a favorite. She did not allow her devotions to interfere with the gayety of others. She joined in the games, and even after withdrawing from the court in order to live privately and with more time for religious exercises, she was commanded to take a leading part in a masque, in which she played the goddess Diana, and was splendid with jewels and robes. On that occasion she lost a diamond of the Duchess of Suffolk's, but the Duke of York made it good. She owed something of favor to her being the child of Col. Blagge, one of the most trusted loyalists of both Charles I. and Charles II.; but she held a place also on her own account in the esteem

of the court. She played cards and gave her winnings to the poor; but once when she lost she made up her mind not to play any more. The resolution—she was in the habit of writing down her resolves, confessing herself to her diary, and so on—is characteristic:

"I will never play this halfe year butt att 3 penny-ombre, and then with one att halves. I will not I doe not vow, but I will not doe it—what, loose mony att Cards, yett not give [to] the poore! 'Tis robbing God, misspending my tyme, and missimploying my Talent: three great Sinns. Three pounds would have kept three people from starveing a month: well, I will not play."

She was very good to the poor, visiting them, feeding and clothing them. She was also somewhat inclined to ascetic habits, eating but one or two dishes at meals, fasting, and in general mortifying herself in gentle ways, but much to her injury, Evelyn thought; and he was not satisfied with her replying to him, "I could get fat in three days." She went once to Paris in the train of the Ambassador, but successfully avoided the gayety of the place so far as was at all possible, even to the point of not permitting the French King, who had heard of her wit and beauty, to see her. It was on setting out on this journey that she deceived Evelyn. She had been married privately, and on his commiserating her for having to leave her lover, she said: "Mr. E., if ever I returne againe and do not marry, I will still retire"—meaning into a private and religious life. This, says Evelyn, "was the only tyme that in her Life she ever prevaricated with me, and cover'd it with that address, and was, I am most assured, in deepest sorrow; as all my former suspicions of her being marryed vanish't." On her return the marriage was announced, and she lived happily with her husband some two years, and then died in childbed at the age of twenty-five. The eulogy which Evelyn then pronounces over her is very great, but evidently wholly sincere. The instances he gives of her ways and deeds and temperament are delightful illustrations of humble piety; and certainly if she seems at times like a Catholic gone astray into another fold, her life may well be reckoned in the calendar of Protestant saints. The biography is a lasting part of religious literature.

Tertium Quid: Chapters on Various Disputed Questions. By Edmund Gurney. 2 vols. London: Kegan Paul, Trench & Co. 1887.

Mr. Gurney is already well known as the author of two more substantial works, the 'Power of Sound,' a treatise on musical æsthetics, and 'Phantasms of the Living,' a laborious piece of "psychical research." He has also written important papers on hypnotism. The essays contained in these volumes are revised reprints of articles which have appeared in reviews; and the title 'Tertium Quid' hints at the fact that many of them seek to mediate, by new points of view, in certain old disputes.

The essays in the first volume are philosophic, those in the second are æsthetic—and the style goes with the subject. Mr. Gurney's philosophic style is too complex to be easy reading. His style when he writes on music is direct, and often enchanting. These musical essays remind us of some of the most admirable pages of the 'Power of Sound'—on the whole, if we mistake not, the best work on æsthetics ever published, but of which the misfortune is that it is too psychological for the musicians, too musical for the psychologists, and too bulky for the generality of mankind.

But to begin with the philosophic essays. The first three of them, under cover of reviewing Messrs. Harrison's, Seeley's, and Mallock's respective deliverances, treat of the possibility of a religious conception of life. The next two handle the Vivisection controversy; the sixth is on "Evidence in Matters Extraordinary"; the seventh is an attempt to show that utilitarian principles furnish rational ground for altruistic obligation; and the last (entitled "Monism") sets forth very completely the perplexities to which the theory of "mind-stuff" atoms leads. It is no easy matter to give an account of these essays in brief, their manner is so much more tentative than dogmatic, and their thought so subtle and thorough, so observant of possible objection, so full of saving clauses, and careful to avoid excess. The fact is, Mr. Gurney loves truth almost too much—too much, that is, to be a popular writer on topics where the truth lies buried deep. Not the cutting, but the untying of knots, is his aim. But where the knot is intricate, the operations of the faithful untyer often outlast the patience of the looker-on; and such, we fear, may be the effect of Mr. Gurney's philosophizing upon the common reader, who wants nothing so much as to get quickly to some serviceable final phrase.

To all who care for truth, however, more than for any stop-gap phrase, we can heartily recommend the first of these volumes. Rarely does one meet a writer whose intellect is played on from so many sides, or who so continuously takes the wider view. Refusing to ignore the religious problem, the quest of a conception of life which shall give inward peace, he equally refuses to find peace in any such *abstractions* as Professor Seeley's worship of Natural Law, or the Comtist "religion of Humanity," for these only banish perplexity by taking so distant a view that discordant individual destinies disappear from sight. The individual destinies lie heavy on Mr. Gurney's soul, and positive peace he finds none within the lines in which the bookkeeping of "Science" with Nature has hitherto been carried on. That these lines are prematurely drawn, and that the account is probably not yet closed, is a truth on which Mr. Gurney well insists; and his final conclusion would seem to be, that *if there be* an invisible order continuous with the present order of Nature and enveloping it, our attempts at solving the religious problem rationally may be postponed till the facts of the invisible order are known. Empty as is such an hypothetical supernaturalism (if such it can be called) of positive content, skeptical as is its intellectual form, our author is careful to point out its enormous importance from the practical point of view. Whereas the keynote of dogmatic Naturalism can only be Resignation, the keynote of any possible supernaturalism may be Hope:

"I simply state as a psychological fact, that the sense of possibilities that can never be disproved is capable of exercising a pervading effect on the human mind which is absolutely irrelevant to any numerical estimate of odds. . . . To the majority, the amount of solace which the idea of a chance will give is out of all proportion to the greatness of the chance. Suppose that, after condemnation to a long term of captivity, a prisoner is told that there is one chance in ten of his release at the end of a year; the large majority of men, in such a case, would find the burden of the year immensely lightened. Nor, I believe, would the effect be diminished, but rather enhanced, if the chance were indefinite and not susceptible of a numerical statement."

This is interestingly applied to the question of immortality on pages 143–150 of volume i. If it seem to the reader nothing short of a wholesale licensing of credulity and granting of passports to the paradise of fools, let him read the book. He will see that Mr. Gurney's intellectual fibre is at the furthest imaginable extreme from credulity. Balanced states of mind like his are growing commoner; but between the coarse self-assertion of the upper and the lower dogmatisms, their fate is still, as a rule, to be pushed to the wall.

Of the æsthetic essays we have left ourselves no room to speak. They are altogether admirable. Most writers on the philosophy of the arts seem to have been specially bereft by nature of artistic perception—probably to enable them the more fluently to write. But Mr. Gurney can perceive and describe as well as reflect. His vindication of the non-reasonable, magical, or purely physiological character of the charm of poetry is as fresh and profound a piece of criticism as we have read in many a long day. Altogether, these volumes can rank among the subtlest and sincerest pieces of critical work of our time.

On Conducting: A Treatise on Style in the Execution of Classical Music. By Richard Wagner. Translated by Edward Dannreuther. London: William Reeves. 1887.

It is not often that a reviewer can say of a translation that it is as good as the original, but this is true of Mr. Dannreuther's version of Wagner's essay on conducting; indeed, some passages are easier to read than in the original. Wagner's literary style is often as clear and as direct as Heine's, but at other times it is as involved as Jean Paul's. Mr. Dannreuther has taken pains to simplify the more difficult sentences, and his knowledge of German and English is so thorough that he has always been able to find a happy equivalent even for the unusual or new words which Wagner never hesitates to use if they give a sort of onomatopoetic realism and vigor to his speech. The essay itself should have been translated into English long ago, for it is one of the most valuable contributions ever made to musical literature—an essay which every musician, whether a conductor, a player, a singer, or merely an amateur, should carefully read and reread. It throws a flood of light on the questions of interpretation and expression.

Pedants who cannot read between the lines of a composition are constantly clamoring for "correct" readings of classical compositions, and insisting that we have no right to play them in accordance with modern notions of expression. Now, Wagner's notions as to what is "correct" in the interpretation of classical works differ widely from those universally current twenty years ago. He not only protests against the misinterpretations of his own works ("I am sorry to say I know of no one to whom I would confidently intrust a single tempo in one of my operas; certainly, to no member of the staff of our army of time-beaters"), but goes so far in his indictment of these conductors as to assert that whatever popularity Beethoven's "Eroica," for instance, had, was really due to the fact "that Beethoven's music is studied apart from the concert-rooms—particularly at the piano—and its irresistible power is thus fully felt, though in rather a roundabout way."

Conductors chiefly fail in their imperfect sense of tempo. "The whole duty of a conductor is comprised in his ability always to indicate the right tempo." Now, "the right comprehension of the *melos* is the sole guide to the right tempo," and "our conductors so frequently fail to find the true tempo because they are ignorant of singing," and do not sufficiently fix the attention of the orchestra on the melody of the work. They take a certain time for a movement, and play it through with metronomic regularity, regardless of the fact

that there may occur some bars of pathetic melody which have the character of a slower movement, and, therefore, ought to be played slower. The fact that such modifications are not marked in the scores is no proof that they were not made by the composers when they conducted. It was not customary to mark them formerly; but all testimony points to the fact that the great composers (especially Beethoven) used a varied tempo, or rubato, in conducting. "It is essential . . . that the tempo shall be imbued with life as delicate as the life of the thematic tissue. We may consider it established that in classical music written in the later style, *modification* of tempo is a *sine qua non*."

Many interesting cases are given, illustrating this principle in detail, and the proof of their correctness lies in the magic effect which they always produce. The greatest Beethoven conductors in Europe are Von Bülow and Hans Richter, both of whom apply Wagner's principles. And as for Wagner himself, he relates that eighteen years after Weber's death he conducted "Der Freischütz" at Dresden, when he

"ventured to set aside the slovenly manner of execution which had prevailed under Reissiger, my senior colleague. I simply took the tempo of the introduction to the overture as I felt it; whereupon a veteran member of the orchestra, the old violoncellist Dotzauer, turned towards me and said seriously: 'Yes, this is the way Weber himself took it; I now hear it again correctly for the first time.' Weber's widow, who still resided at Dresden, became touchingly solicitous for my welfare in the position of Capellmeister. She trusted that my sympathy with her deceased husband's music would bring about correct performances of his works, for which she had no longer dared to hope. The recollection of this flattering testimony has often cheered and encouraged me."

Wagner needed something to encourage him, in view of the treatment to which his own works were subjected by these conductors. He relates how at one theatre *Tannhäuser* was obliged to relate his tragic recollections of Rome in waltz time; how "Rheingold," which should last two and a half hours, was dragged out to three, and the "Tannhäuser" overture took up twenty minutes instead of twelve, etc. When Wagner conducted the "Meistersinger" overture for the first time at Leipzig, the audience insisted on a repetition. Subsequently it was played by the same orchestra, but conducted by Reinecke, and was hissed! When the conductors added malice to their ignorance, the result was still more disastrous. Mr. Otto Floersheim relates how Ferdinand Hiller, after much pressure had been brought to bear upon him, conducted the "Meistersinger" overture at a concert in Cologne. But not only did he have no conception of the changes of tempo; he deferred the rehearsal of the overture to the last moment, and had only time to play it through *once* before the concert. Now, this overture is one of the most difficult pieces in existence, and the best orchestra in the world could not do justice to it without three or four rehearsals. The inevitable result at Cologne was that the orchestra got "all mixed up," and produced such a wild chaos of polyphonic cacophony that the critics next day naturally wondered "what in the world could have induced Dr. Hiller to put such a piece on his programme"! Dr. Hiller did not even like the "Tannhäuser" overture until he heard it as conducted by Herr Seidl, when he was honest enough to admit: "Ja, so gefällt sie mir auch."

Universal History: Ancient History, by George Rawlinson, M.A., Oxford.—Mediæval History, by George Thomas Stokes, D.D., University of Dublin.—Modern History, by Arthur St. George Patton, B.A., University of Dublin.—Geological History, by Edward Hull, M.A., LL.D., F.R.S., Director of the Geological Survey of Ireland. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1887.

THOSE who are acquainted with Professor Rawlinson's 'Manual of Ancient History' will get a good notion of this 'Universal History,' of which he is one of the editors, by being told that it is upon the same general plan as that useful book. That is, it consists of a number of parallel national histories, the object being as great completeness as possible within the rather narrow limits. Each considerable nation has a chapter, and in each chapter nearly every king receives mention. As there are abundant chronological and genealogical tables, this completeness makes a book very convenient for reference, but not adapted for consecutive reading. In mediæval and modern history we have besides a division into periods, so that the history of England, for example, must be sought in ten different places, three in the mediæval and seven in the modern volume. If this number of periods appears excessive for the time since 1453, it is perhaps inadequate for the time before that date.

Professor Rawlinson's 'Manual' is so well and favorably known that it is not necessary to speak in detail of his share, which is to all intents and purposes an adaptation of the earlier work. The special characteristic of Dr. Stokes's work is a praiseworthy effort to give his chapters a degree of variety and interest which the general plan of the series makes rather difficult. Hence, no doubt, the small number of periods, allowing to each period a greater fulness and consecutiveness. Hence, also, the judicious emphasis and expansion in the account, for example, of Charlemagne, and the introduction of details of special interest, like the mention (p. 54) of "the oldest architectural plan in the world," at St. Gall. Such details can be introduced only by the omission of irrelevant matter, and here the work is less satisfactorily done. For example, it is not stated (p. 50) that Pippin the Short made himself king; Dagobert I., the most important king between Clovis and Pippin, is only mentioned incidentally, while half a page is given (p. 48) to the wholly unimportant Dagobert II.—apparently because there is an interesting bit of literary history in connection with him, standing in especial relation to Ireland.

Mr. Patton's part of the work ('Modern History') suffers from the excessive number of divisions; yet is done very well in detail. In the chapter on the United States the Whig party is regularly called "Republican," *e. g.*, "In 1841 the Republicans were returned to power by an overwhelming majority." Although the *Caroline* affair made a good deal of noise at the time, it is certainly an exaggeration (and a damaging one) to say that Van Buren "destroyed his popularity by the firmness with which he repressed those who in the Northern States wished to help a rebellion in Canada" (p. 510). On page 508 Indiana is not mentioned among the States admitted to the Union. On page 511 is a curious mixture of dates—that Texas was annexed in 1845, "and Iowa also in 1846" (!), both being admitted to the Union when Polk became President, in "1849"; on the following page Taylor is said to have become President in 1849. One of the most useful features of the entire work is the table, prefixed to this volume, of "the populations, religions, and governments of the world, with the colonies and dependencies of the European and other States." Here we find a complete list of these colonies, with the population and date of acquisition of each.

Prof. Hull's volume aims to give "an outline of the Geological events through which our Globe has passed since it assumed its form and became the abode of animals and plants." No such "summary of the Historical portion of the Science has hitherto," he says, "appeared in this country [England]." As a book designed especially for historical students, it will be heartily welcomed.

Chauvenet's Treatise on Elementary Geometry. Revised and abridged by William Byerly, Professor of Mathematics at Harvard University. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.

PROF. CHAUVENET was one of the most accomplished mathematicians in America, and the text-books which he published came rapidly into extensive use. But his own knowledge was so wide and so deep, and he had such an overmastering desire to treat everything in an exhaustive manner, that his text-books often contained much which, however interesting and necessary it might be to those who intended to make the teaching of mathematics their business, or to follow a profession (like astronomy or engineering) that requires the constant application of mathematics, the average teacher and pupil would be compelled to pass over from mere want of time. Prof. Byerly's abridgment is a handsome octavo of 322 pages, and is quite large enough. Nothing really essential in the original treatise is omitted. The student who has mastered the book will be well prepared to enter upon the study of the higher branches of mathematics, and this will be the wisest course for him to pursue. Auguste Comte considered Clairaut's 'Éléments de Géométrie' as constituting a sufficient preparation for higher studies, and that work is a small 12mo of 128 pages.

The study of geometry, as usually pursued, is a mere exercise of memory; the student learns the statements and formal demonstrations of a certain number of propositions, and there the matter ends. Give him a new proposition not contained in his text-book, and, even though it may be a direct consequence of one he has learned, he is yet often perfectly helpless. He may have learned much, but can do nothing at all. To prevent this result, and to compel the student to do something "on his own hook," is one of the chief objects of Prof. Byerly's revision, and hence arises one of the chief differences between it and the original work. In the latter, the "exercises" were all placed in a mass at the end of the work, where as a rule they were left undisturbed by teachers or pupils. Prof. Byerly has added many new ones, and, while giving a considerable number at the end of each book, he has placed most of them in direct connection with the theorems they serve to illustrate or most nearly resemble in substance or in form of demonstration, and in such a position that the student will necessarily regard them as part and parcel of his lesson and of the science he is studying. For these "exercises," as they are called, are themselves theorems often quite as general and always to be proved in the same manner as the ordinary theorems of geometry. One of Prof. Byerly's methods of abridgment has been the omission of the Introduction to Modern Geometry, which formed a long appendix to the original work. There was probably here and there a professor or teacher of mathematical tastes who looked it over as matter of curiosity; otherwise it merely added to the bulk and cost of the book for no practical end.

On the whole, Prof. Byerly's omissions, al-

terations, and additions appear to have been judiciously made, and for all the purposes of instruction in elementary geometry as usually pursued in our high schools and colleges it may well take the place of the original work, while it presents many improvements, some of which we have endeavored to point out.

Die Welt, in ihren Spiegelungen unter dem Wandel des Völkergedankens. Prolegomena zu einer Gedankenstatistik. Von Adolf Bastian. Berlin: Ernst Siegfried Mittler & Sohn. 1887. Hierzu ein Atlas: Ethnologisches Bilderbuch, 24 Tafeln, nebst Erklärung.

BASTIAN'S 'Bilderbuch' has a preface which mentions the 'Prolegomena' as one "in which the ensuing representations receive their explanation in their further relations"; and the 'Prolegomena' bears an annotation on the back of the title stating that "to bring the kaleidoscopic pictures of the following pages nearer to a more intelligible intuition, the author has issued, simultaneously, and through the same publishers, an Atlas in twenty-four plates, under the title of 'Ethnological Picture Book,' with explanatory reading matter." These are respectively the only references between the covers of the two works to each other.

'The World, in its Reflections under the Mutations of the National Idea,' after a table of contents embracing 469 numbered titles, such as: "(1) Psychology, (2) The Cryptogamina of the Human Race, (3) The Beginning, . . . (467) Circle of Sensualism, (468) Subjectivity, (469) Collection of Materials," contains an introduction covering twenty-eight pages, succeeded by wholly unbroken reading-matter of 469 pages, probably (but not apparently) agreeing with the table of contents, and varied in two sizes of type upon no visible basis of differentiation. Such is what may be called the perceptible exterior of this wonderful work, of which not a single sentence is properly comprehensible without recourse to some other book (never referred to by title and page) in which a portion of the phraseology may have been found. The 469 titles together express a sort of cosmogony, ostensibly compiled from the cosmogonies of the various nations and peoples, with a certain prominence given to the "cryptogamina of the human race," *i. e.*, the Hottentots, Diggers, and Negroes. At least 300 pages, however, are taken up with extracts from and discussions of sayings of Kant, Darwin, Du Bois-Reymond, Fichte, Schelling, Newton, and hundreds of other lights of science.

Psychology, as we laboriously and dubiously gather, is the sum of all the sciences. In explaining the workings of the human soul, it explains that which the soul recognizes and asserts. An extraordinary advance has been made in psychology within some very recent period, which is frequently hinted at, but not once specified. The advance consists, as nearly as can be guessed, in the substitution, for a method which "required of everything scientifically considered a definite purpose—'sought the purpose as the thought at the bottom of things' (see Trendelenburg)," one which recognizes "necessarily working powers, blind, so long as not seen through; accidental, so long as not constituted by law." "Under this grand accession, for many years, masses of new material have been heaping themselves up, out of the ethnical popular views of distant lands, agglomerated, as it seemed, into a wild ball of confusion, spurning the idea of disentanglement, and seeming scarcely to reward the pains of serious consideration, because only cheap goods in tawdry garments [of Indian finery and negro shoddy]."

The fact that these ethnological perceptions are raw materials for the crucible of the science of psychology is at the bottom of the author's scientific theory, but is only implied, not expressed. He seems to think that many people can think better than a few; that this association of thinking is done in the guise of nationalities, and, of course, in the forms of language; and that, therefore, the notions of nations, though never so low in intelligence, on subjects of the most abstruse thought, must be received as teachings by the thinkers of the present time. His book discloses the failure of its own theory, for while it displays the phantasmagoria of the Mandans, Buddhists, and Maoris, it relies upon the thoughts of Kant and Darwin.

On the whole, we must rank this work among the oddest and most unreadable and unintelligible of the many such which Bastian has produced of late years.

The Early Life of Samuel Rogers. By P. W. Clayden. Boston: Roberts Bros. 1888.

THE life of Rogers is not one that easily lends itself to entertaining biography. His memory is rather in the memoirs of the time. His poems were less immortal than his breakfasts, and the incidents of his personal life fall even nearer to the "dead-line" of time than his poems. He was the son of a banker, showed some signs of literary ability, and in his early manhood betook himself to the muses after the counting-room was shut for the day. In an age when his competitors were the Della Cruscans, when Cowper was the only poet and his mind was clouded, it was no great distinction to win the laurel for an hour. But Rogers made good use of his opportunity; he was wise enough to cease to imitate Gray, and to decline on the less exacting model of Goldsmith, and he sold over 20,000 copies of his principal work. Almost fifty years afterwards he was still of repute enough to decline the Laureateship which Tennyson accepted. His name, however, is inscribed rather in the social than the poetic annals of literature, and his true biography lies in reminiscences.

A life of over ninety years, however, should yield materials to the makers of books, and it is not surprising that this first volume, which is not a small one, should bring his career down only to his fortieth year, when he first set up his bachelor-box as a man of elegant tastes, not only in literature, but also in art. He was fortunately placed in life, succeeding to £5,000 a year and a younger brother who was willing and able to carry on the business, and leave the poet in the enjoyment of the profits. He kept and left diaries, and of course there are many letters. But one does not find in all this material much that is of interest. He was a man who took journeys; and one to Edinburgh, where Adam Smith entertained him, and two to Paris, before the Terror and after the advent of the First Consul, are the most entertaining portions of this volume. Some glimpses of the Whigs of the Revolution, among whom was his father, and of the society of the famous Doctors Priestley and Price, make pleasant episodes. Taken altogether, however, the narrative is dreary, and appeals only to those whose boundless literary curiosity will not suffer them to tire of the details of even the least noteworthy period of English letters. It is possible that the second volume may contain more that is of real interest, but the present one presents a limited and not very edifying phase of English life in the end of the last century.

Life of Thomas Hopkins Gallaudet, Founder of Deaf-Mute Instruction in America. By his son, Edward Miner Gallaudet. 8vo, pp. iv, 339. Henry Holt & Co.

THE present memorial appears on the one hundredth anniversary of Gallaudet's birth; and in its earlier pages it carries us back to the time of Dr. Thomas Chalmers and of Hannah More, both of whom wrote encouraging letters to the young enthusiast in 1817–1818. An especially interesting glimpse of that time is conveyed in a letter from Zachary Macaulay, the historian's father, acknowledging young Gallaudet's "luminous account" of the French method of instructing the deaf and dumb, a method of which Gallaudet was already the recognized expounder, and of its superiority over the English. Mr. Macaulay writes as follows:

"I should have been glad to see the specimen of American typography which you have sent me, but it was conveyed to me through the Post-office, with a charge of £4 5s. on the cover. I have hesitated to pay this, and the packet is still unopened. I have had of late many such parcels addressed to me from America, which I have been obliged to decline receiving on account of the enormous expense attending them. I thank you for your kind inquiries respecting my son, Thomas Babington. He is now in good health, and prosecuting his studies with ardor at the University of Cambridge. God has been pleased to endow him with very considerable powers of mind, and with a very strong desire for knowledge. My prayer—and indeed, I am thankful to say, my hope—is that they may be sanctified and made subservient to His glory."

We will not undertake to recount the story of Gallaudet's life, especially as this is not the first biography that has appeared of this remarkable man. His tour in France and England, his faithful study of the deaf-mute problem, the establishment of the famous school at Hartford, his marriage to one of the pupils of that school, his resignation from the school after seventeen years of devotion to it, and his subsequent connection for a similar length of time with a hospital for the insane—all this is told in this pleasant volume with dignity and a certain charm. The portrait prefixed to the book is new, and gives a vivid impression of the kindliness and urbanity of the man.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Archer-Hind, R. D. The Timæus of Plato. Macmillan & Co. $4.
Bates, Josephine W. A Blind Lead: The Story of a Mine. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25.
Bocock, K. Tax the Area. John W. Lovell Co. 20 cents.
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Burn, Rev. R. Roman Literature in relation to Roman Art. Macmillan & Co. $4.
Creighton, M. Cardinal Wolsey. Macmillan & Co. 60 cents.
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Harrison, I. H. Complete Course of Volapük. Boston: Carl Schoenhof.
Hedge, Rev. F. H., and Wister, Annis L. Metrical Translations and Poems. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Holden, W. Fourteen Sonnets. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 50 cents.
Holland, R. Glossary of Words Used in the County of Chester. Part 3. London: Trübner & Co.
Holmes, Dr. O. W. Before the Curfew, and Other Poems. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
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Hutton, L. Literary Landmarks of London. Revised ed. Boston: Ticknor & Co. 75 cents.
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Nichol, Prof. J. Tables of European History, Literature, Science, and Art. 4th ed. Macmillan & Co. $2.25.
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Fine Arts.

SOCIETY OF AMERICAN ARTISTS.—I.

THE tenth exhibition of the Society of American Artists, now open at the Yandell Gallery, contains only 137 works, but it is of such marked excellence, it is so entirely free from cheap work of any kind, it is so complete in its general aspect, and certain pictures are of such surpassing merit, that it is safe to say that no better exhibition of American art has ever been seen in New York. If it be thought necessary to make comparisons with other exhibitions of the Society, it may be said on various accounts that this one is the best in its history. One reason is, that the display is more representative of the actual status of American art than ever before, as it includes more than the usual number of works by painters who are not regular contributors to these exhibitions. Another reason is, that the Society has recently added to itself some twenty new members chosen from among the strongest of the young painters who have come to New York in the last five years, and these new members seem to have made it a point to send their most important work of the year to the Society exhibition. And yet another reason is, that the older members, realizing the possible effect of the competition of this new and vigorous element, have likewise put their best foot forward, and sent to the exhibition, not some slight work depending for recognition on its merits as a clever piece of artistic dash, or some other work whose chief characteristic lay in its experimental side, but of their very best. This regeneration of the Society really began in 1886, when an excellent exhibition was made in the galleries of the Metropolitan Museum, which, however, obtained only a *succès d'estime*, owing principally to its isolated location and the consequent lack of interest in it on the part of the general public. It was still more apparent last year, when the exhibition was held for the first time at the Yandell Gallery, and its completeness and general excellence were universally acknowledged. Far from losing its excuse for being with the advent of a more liberal policy at the Academy this year, the utility of the Society exhibition is more apparent than ever. The number of reputable painters in New York is rapidly increasing, and the need of a place to exhibit becomes more and more pressing. The Academy, with the space it has at its disposal, for one thing, does not suffice, and in addition to that, by the conditions necessarily existing, it cannot pretend to make the merit of a work offered for exhibition the sole qualification for admission. The Society of American Artists, with no traditions to hamper it, can and does do this, and its exhibition this year affords the most convincing proof that its aims are appreciated by the body of artists at large.

Mr. Abbott H. Thayer is one of those painters who are comparatively rare exhibitors, and if anything from his brush is to be publicly seen in the course of the year, it is at the Society's exhibition we must look for it. His single contribution in the present exhibition, "An Angel," No. 111, has been honored with a place in the centre of one of the end walls of the gallery. It is a picture of a young girl whose head appears between the large white wings which rise above the shoulders and frame in the figure on either side. It is not characterized by any intentional idealization of face with a religious motive, just as it is not treated, either, as a piece of realistic figure painting with a conventional addition of wings. The handiwork has been made as unobtrusive as possible by the artist, and he has been remarkably successful in subordinating technique to expression. The face is that of such a child as might be seen almost anywhere; it is distinguished by neither the traits of high birth nor those of the people; it is rather regular in features, of every-day mould, and intensely human. There is no lengthening of lines and accenting of curves *à la* Botticelli, and no attenuation nor attempt at the look of asceticism *à la* Fra Angelico; the painter has secured the charm that lies in this gentle countenance by simpler means. He has drawn tenderly and delicately a wistful little face and painted it quietly and understandingly. He has placed white wings and a white gown in graceful lines about his figure, and he has conceived and executed the whole in the spirit of an artist. The result is a delightful work entirely worthy of his reputation, such a work as artists and laymen unite in acclaiming, and above all a piece of pure and individual art.

Mr. Kenyon Cox is another painter who has ever been distinguished in his work by an aim to produce something for the sake of art, and who is known as the creator of many fine compositions both in the fields of pictorial and illustrative art. His picture of "Jacob and the Angel," No. 30 in the present exhibition, is the most complete work of the kind he has shown. Purely as a piece of drawing and modelling this muscular figure of Jacob straining in his struggle with the impassive angel, who stands erect and unmoved in the consciousness of his supernatural force, is an accomplished effort, but there is greater merit in the excellent ensemble of the picture. The pose of the figure of Jacob, with his twisted limbs and bended back, is well contrasted with the dignity of line in the figure of the white-robed angel, and the group is effectively composed. The silence and the isolation of the scene are admirably suggested by the shadowy landscape, with its dark shadows thrown on the foreground by the overhanging branches of the tree, and the barren expanse of the moonlit hills beyond; and the brownish tone of the bare back of the figure of Jacob, thrown into prominence as a mass by the light falling upon it, concentrates the interest in the principal figure. Possibly, had the painter chosen to represent the scene in another effect than that of the mysterious semi-gloom of moonlight, he might have obtained more quality of color in his picture, to which, as it is, the reproach may be made that it is somewhat monotonous in its general scheme; but what was to be gained in that direction was no doubt wisely sacrificed to give the impression of the intensity of the silent struggle in the dead of the night, with only the stars in their distant spheres to look down upon it. In another picture, "Indian Summer," No 29, in which the nude is treated in realistic fashion, and an autumn landscape is introduced as a background to carry out the sentiment of the figure, Mr. Cox has been less successful. There is excellent painting, especially in the upper half of this massive figure, and the head is of a type which admirably befits the luxuriant character of autumn, which it is meant to personify; but the pose is lacking in grace, and the legs are needlessly heavy and deficient in variety of line. In "Portrait of Augustus St. Gaudens," No. 28, we find Mr. Cox at his very best. The sculptor is shown with the head seen in profile, modelling a relief in clay, with his right arm bared above the wrist. A plaster cast or two, a modelling stand, and an easel are the principal accessories, which are quietly relieved against the whitish-gray walls of the studio. In this picture Mr. Cox has had to deal with an exact problem in the representation of things as they exist in nature, and has had an opportunity to display his technical powers. He has given a brilliant exposition of his talent in this respect, and has, moreover, shown a remarkable skill in the expression of character. This portrait-picture, artistically conceived and as artistically executed, is one of the finest things in the exhibition. Mr. Chase

essays a portrait-picture, also, in the life-size group of a lady in a Japanese gown of black, with an infant in her arms, "Mother and Child," No. 16. The figure of the mother is painted in a harmony of low tones, the head relieved in profile against a sombre background; and the child, seen in full face, looking over her shoulder, counts with its dress of white as an effective note in the composition. In "Portrait of a Gentleman," No. 15, the same general treatment is adopted, and the firmly modelled head appears in luminous relief. The figure, as in the "Mother and Child," is well planted on its feet and has an admirable look of reality. "Hide and Seek," No. 17, a third contribution, is one of those clever artistic fancies which Mr. Chase produces from time to time, and is a picture of peculiar charm. The composition shows the head and shoulders of a little girl with blonde locks, who is peeping out from behind a door at the left-hand corner of the canvas, while another little girl in a white frock appears approaching on tiptoe the opposite corner of the spacious room, where a wide curtain hangs at the entrance to another apartment. Expectant curiosity is delightfully depicted in the attitudes of both the children. Mr. Chase is also represented in the exhibition by a group of three little pictures showing scenes in and about Brooklyn, of which one, "In Tompkins Square," No. 19, is especially admirable for direct artistic methods, and by "A Winding Road," No. 21, a small landscape, in which a motive of the simplest description is made the subject of a charming rendering of the light and atmosphere of out-of-doors.

One of the salient characteristics of the exhibition of last year was the excellence of the display of portraits. This feature is quite as remarkable in the present exhibition, and includes work by most of the ablest portraitists in the country. Mr. Wyatt Eaton is seen at his best in the "Portrait of Man with Violin," No. 49, a finely constructed and soundly painted three-quarter length, most complete in execution and handsome in its subdued tones of color. Mr. Edmund C. Tarbell of Boston, who made a notable début at the exhibition of last year, contributes a portrait of a young lady in a black dress, "Portrait," No. 109, which sustains the reputation his work then obtained, and is a brilliant performance with a thoroughly personal stamp. Mr. Ruger Donoho, one of the strongest of our landscape painters, exhibits a "Portrait of the Artist," No. 43, which is admirable in its simplicity, its reserved but forceful painting, and ranks with the best things in the gallery. Mr. Sargent sends a full-length portrait of a lady, which presents the same quality of modernness that marks his portrait at the Academy, and which, if it is not of the very best work he has done during his stay in this country, is yet a most striking realization of life, and is painted with a fine sense of completeness of ensemble. Mr. Fowler is represented by a "Portrait," No. 60, showing a full-length figure of a boy with a violin, painted with much facility of execution, and notable for concentration of the effect of light and harmony of tones. Mr. Beckwith contributes a portrait of two little girls standing hand in hand, in gray frocks, with a black curtain behind them and other attributes of mourning as accessories, called "The Orphans," No. 3, which should be noticed for its effective painting and realization of character, in spite of the gloomy impression given by the subject motive. Mr. Irving Wiles signs an excellent portrait of a lady in a leopard-skin cloak, "Portrait," No. 136; Mr. Rice another, of a lady in evening costume, "Portrait," No. 97; and Miss Amanda Brewster two, "Portrait," No. 10, and "Portrait," No. 11. Mr. Lowell Dyer exhibits a serious piece of portraiture, a three-quarter length of a lady in a black dress, quietly painted and refined in style, "Portrait," No. 45, and Mr. W. S. Allen sends one of the best heads in the exhibition, admirably brushed, solidly modelled, and possessing marked individuality, in the "Portrait of Col. V. A.," No. 2.

Mr. Weir's contributions are three in number, and include a portrait of a gentleman, "Portrait," No. 131, which is excellent as a study of character, and is both soundly and cleverly painted. His other two pictures are "Still Life," No. 132, and "Still Life," No. 133. The first of these, a study of a Dutch pewter mug and a glass or two, is chiefly remarkable for its quality of light and the impression of reality. The other is a picture of a large brass colander and a pumpkin freshly split open with a large knife stuck in a piece which lies on the table. Vollon, who, like Mr. Weir, is a figure painter of the first rank, has achieved his greatest celebrity among his fellow-painters as well as with the public by the painting of still life. Some of his pictures of this sort have a world-wide reputation. Of Mr. Weir's picture it is not too much to say that it might well be signed by Vollon himself, and indeed were it so signed, it would without question be considered one of his finest works. It is impossible to do more than name this picture, and add that in color and handling it is a most accomplished performance. Its admirable quality can only be appreciated by seeing it. To those who can enjoy a piece of painting for its own sake, we commend this picture, with the assurance that the sight of it will give them the keenest sort of pleasure. Side by side with it in the exhibition is another picture which appeals to the artistically cultivated in much the same way. It is painted by Horatio Walker, and is called "A Pig Sty" (No. 129). Mr. Walker, who has painted cattle, and sheep, and pigs, and whose pictures have been of the best in the exhibitions at the Academy, the Water-Color Society, and elsewhere, has never painted a better picture than this one. It is, like Mr. Weir's "Still Life," an admirable piece of tone, and a most healthful, artistic piece of painting.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 3, 1888.

The Week.

THE tariff debate in the House is now in good running order, and the supporters of the Mills bill are certainly not having the worst of it. Mr. Ford of Michigan made a speech on Friday, addressed to the farming interest, showing how oppressive and illusory is a protective tariff which compels agriculturists to pay an average tax of 47 per cent. on the dutiable goods for which their products are exchanged, while their labor is brought into competition with the cheapest and most degraded labor in the world, that of India, where the wages of agricultural labor are only six to nine cents per day. "You may pile tariffs on wheat, corn, beef, pork, and cotton mountains high," said Mr. Ford, "and it will not increase the prices of those products in this country a penny—not a farthing." This is a well-worn truism of course, but one of those that seem hardest to penetrate the bucolic mind. When you have proved to the farmer who has been nourished on Horace Greeley's *Weekly Tribune* that he is selling nine-tenths of his crops in competition with the pauper labor of India and Egypt and Russia, and that there is no help for him, he struggles in a dazed and feeble way to get a little more tariff for the remaining tenth of his products—his potatoes, flax, honey, and wool. And when he fails in this small scheme, he falls back on the comforting thought that he is building up a "home market" for his products. He has been a hundred years pursuing this will-o'-the-wisp, expecting that a time would come when the home market, which he has been so long coddling with bounties drawn from his own earnings, would take all of his wheat, corn, beef, pork, and cotton, and then voluntarily raise the prices of them.

The speech of Mr. Russell of Massachusetts was the best that has been delivered since the opening of the debate by Mr. Mills. Mr. Russell represents a manufacturing State and a manufacturing district. Yet he tells us that not one in ten of the industries of Massachusetts is protected by the tariff, and that of all the industries in the State, the protected ones are those that pay the lowest wages to their workmen. He stated as a fact which was not denied, that all the great manufacturing centres in New England had grown up during periods of low tariffs, and that not one such has been started under a high tariff, or could be started to-day. He adverted to the Walker tariff of 1846 as the one under which the manufacturers of Massachusetts enjoyed their greatest prosperity and largest expansion. So well satisfied was Massachusetts with that experiment that she came forward in 1857 and asked for a further reduction of duties, and obtained it. The tariff was lowered 21 per cent. in that year, and her whole delegation in both houses of Congress voted for the reduction. Here the great interrupter of speeches, Mr. Milliken of Maine, chimed in: "And it produced the panic of 1857." Mr. Russell promptly corrected Mr. Milliken's chronology by showing him that the panic of 1857 came one year before the new tariff went into effect, and was about to favor him with a few words on the panic of 1873, which took place under the great anti-panic Morrill tariff that is still in force, when Mr. Farquhar of New York dexterously shunted the inquiry into another channel by asking what effect the tariff of 1857 had on the public treasury. Mr. Russell said that it had the desirable consequence of reducing the surplus, which was the aim also of the Mills bill. Mr. Farquhar had nothing more to say, and the debate went on, to the great advantage of Mr. Russell and the friends of tariff reform.

Mr. Burrows of Michigan made his speech on the Tariff Bill in the House on Tuesday week. He began with the frank statement that the surplus was certainly $56,500,000 per year, and possibly $75,000,000, and that it must be reduced by one or the other of these sums. He then stated that the only difference between parties was as to the mode and manner of effecting the reduction. Then he affirmed it to be the duty of members of Congress to define their positions clearly, and show exactly how they would reduce the surplus. Having thus cleared the ground and excited a lively curiosity as to the particular mode favored by himself, he launched into a general defence of the great principle of protection to American industry and a general denunciation of the Mills bill, filling eight pages of the *Congressional Record*, ending with a lot of quotations from English newspapers commenting on the President's message, but he never told what his plan for reducing the surplus would be. In a general and very guarded way he was in favor of reducing the internal revenue, and he mentioned the tobacco tax as one suitable to be removed. Beyond that he did not advance. He did not say whiskey once, nor even beer. Mr. Burrows's taciturnity on the particulars of internal-revenue reduction points out the dilemma of the Republican party. The surplus must be reduced, but not by disturbing the tariff. It may be reduced by putting whiskey and beer on the free list, but not by our initiative. How Not To Do It is the great question of the day, the real Republican issue of the coming campaign.

In the appointment of Mr. Melville W. Fuller to the office of Chief Justice of the United States, the President has given the country another surprise, Mr. Fuller being comparatively unknown except in his own city and State. It is a misfortune of the legal profession that its most eminent members, unless they go into political life, are usually restricted to a merely local reputation. When Mr. Phelps was selected for Minister to England, very few persons were able to identify or place him, but it became known gradually that he was one of the great lawyers of the country, and the President's choice has been signally vindicated. When Mr. Morrison R. Waite was chosen by President Grant for Chief Justice, the inquiry was at once raised —"Who is he, and where has he won his spurs?" Among the names suggested and favorably considered by President Cleveland for the position of Chief Justice was that of Mr. James C. Carter of New York. If Mr. Carter had been nominated, it would have been the unanimous opinion of the bar, the bench, and the press of this city that the ideal Chief Justice had been found. Yet the public in Illinois and in the Mississippi Valley generally would have been as much surprised and as curious to learn the facts of Mr. Carter's career as the people of the other States and sections are to learn those of Mr. Fuller. Mr. Fuller is one of those thorough practitioners whose love of the law for its own sake compels them to abjure office and popularity. This trait, conjoined to very engaging personal qualities, to wide scholarship, to rare modesty, and to a character without reproach, gives abundant promise that Mr. Fuller will be equal to the position to which he has been unexpectedly called.

Among the pension vetoes sent in by President Cleveland on Tuesday week was one for pension to William H. Brimmer, a wagon-master in the army. Brimmer was in the wagon service eight months and twenty-five days. Twenty-three years after the expiration of his service he filed an application for pension on the ground of rupture, caused by carrying sacks of corn on his back. In his affidavit supporting the claim he said that he had never mentioned the rupture while he was in the service. In February of the present year a medical examination of the applicant was made, which developed evidence of "a small, uncomplicated inguinal hernia on the right side, which was easily retained." No evidence was offered to show that his military wagoning had anything to do with his ailment. The claim was accordingly rejected by the Pension Bureau. Brimmer then went to Congress and had no difficulty in getting his claim allowed. This case was surpassed in absurdity by another which was reported favorably by the Senate Committee on Pensions, in which the claim of a widow of a colored soldier in New Orleans was allowed on the ground that, although the evidence showed that she was a "woman of the town," her relations had not been sufficiently continuous with any one man to establish a remarriage. Senator Hoar objected to the claim, and it was de-

feated. Regarded as a measure for reducing the surplus, this bill would have been quite as effectual as any.

The news that Commissioner Atkins of the Indian Bureau has resigned, or is going to resign, is good news, because he has not been the real head of his office. The real head of the office has been Mr. Upshaw, and somebody is needed in the office to repress Mr. Upshaw's zeal and activity, and control his actions. Therefore, the promotion of Mr. Upshaw to the vacant place would be a most unfortunate thing, and one which we are glad to believe is not contemplated. Moreover, we doubt much whether any Commissioner can take the Bureau out of politics as long as Mr. Upshaw is in it; and it ought to be taken out of politics promptly, if only as a preparation for the approaching Presidential canvass, because it has not, as conducted of late, been a help either to the President or his party. Mr. Oberly is talked of for the vacancy, and would fill it well, provided he can control Upshaw, but not otherwise. No matter how wise or good the Commissioner may be, his virtues will be wasted unless they are combined with the power to keep Upshaw in subordination.

The House Committee on Education has had the Blair bill before it ever since the measure passed the Senate, and has at last decided, by a vote of eight to five, to report back a substitute, introduced by Mr. Crain of Texas, which provides for the distribution of the proceeds of public land sales to the amount of $8,000,000 a year among the States and Territories in proportion to their total scholastic population. This entirely eliminates the idea of granting aid on the basis of illiteracy, and would give New York, for example, several times as much money as Mississippi and Louisiana, although the latter States have several times as much illiteracy proportionally as New York. Such a proposition is preposterous, and it hardly needs Gen. Boynton's assurance, in his despatch to the Hartford *Courant*, that "the bill will hardly pass this session."

The platform which Senator Sherman had the Ohio Republican State Convention adopt threatens to prove a serious obstacle to his securing the Presidential nomination. On the burning issue of the tariff it is utterly opposed to the attitude of the Republicans in the further Western States. As the Omaha (Neb.) *Bee* sumarizes the plank, it means "simply that the war tariff shall be maintained, and that the people shall not receive the relief from customs taxation which they require and which the public welfare demands; that tariff taxation as it exists should not be disturbed, unless it be to make it more stringent for the benefit of industrial nabobs and corporations that are now reaping great tributes from it." The *Bee* positively declares that the West and Southwest will not subscribe to the "Ohio idea" regarding the tariff as thus enunciated, and it notifies the Republicans of that State that, while they have shown a proper loyalty to Mr. Sherman, and deserve commendation for adhering to him, they need not be surprised if their unqualified attitude in favor of maintaining the war tariff is confronted by an opposition from the West and Northwest which may seriously embarrass the candidacy of Senator Sherman.

We have reserved comment upon the remarkable speech delivered by Mr. Samuel H. Miller, the temporary Chairman of the Pennsylvania Republican State Convention, in the hope of finding some explanation, but without success. Mr. Miller advised that the Pennsylvania Republicans should take the lead in restoring friendship and good-feeling between the two sections, and to this end protested against "a causeless and useless discussion about the captured battle-flags," against "keeping a chronological record of that class of citizens denominated 'Southern brigadiers,'" and, in short, against the whole bloody-shirt policy. He gave this advice not only on the ground that what he urged was right, but also that it was politic, as the sole chance of carrying any Southern State for the Republican party. The speech was a model of patriotism, and the only wonder is how it came to be delivered in a Pennsylvania convention. No explanation has yet appeared, but it seems safe to say that Mr. Miller will find no imitators, for the correspondent of the Philadelphia *Press* reports that his speech was "freely criticised," and "evoked no response in the Convention."

The Republican managers in Massachusetts are in a bad box. Two years ago they allowed the Governorship to be captured by a man who would never have been thought of for the place except because of his wealth. That Oliver Ames fell far below the traditional standard of Massachusetts Governors was too obvious to be questioned; that his nomination represented a sad lowering of the office from the plane of his immediate predecessor—a poor but able man—could not be disputed. But Mr. Ames wanted the place, and he got it, as rich men are apt to do when they make a dead set for an office nowadays. The organs obediently went to work asserting that he was all that could be desired, and he was elected, and re-elected last year. But the managers have always been rather ashamed of the business, and they are now anxious to get rid of Mr. Ames. To this end they have begun serving notice upon him that it is time for him to quit, and that they would feel under great obligations if he would announce his withdrawal. Precedent, however, allows a Governor of Massachusetts three terms, and Mr. Ames declares that he means to have his rights, and shall be a candidate for his party's nomination again this year. His position is impregnable—he simply says that if he was good enough to deserve election at all, he is good enough to deserve it three times, like a long line of predecessors; and the only possible way of meeting this argument is to admit that he never ought to have been Governor at all, which would involve a degree of stultification hardly to be expected.

An amusing feature of the Massachusetts canvass is the attempt of the men opposed to Ames to get rid of him by the vociferous assertion that "it is time to elect a soldier Governor," this claim being advanced on behalf of Gen. Draper, another rich man who wants the place. A quarter of a century has passed since the war, during which period nobody has thought of taking a soldier for candidate, but all of a sudden the party managers wake up to the idea that the State cannot maintain a reputation for loyalty unless it elects as Governor in 1888 a man who served in the war which ended in 1865. This is precisely the same sort of performance that was enacted in Iowa a few months ago. Senator Wilson's term was on the point of expiring, and he had rivals in the party who did not want to see him reëlected. He had made a good record, and there was no sound reason why he should not be continued in his place; so the anti-Wilson men suddenly broke out with loud cries that "it was time to elect a soldier Senator." It was, of course, only a transparent piece of political hypocrisy, and it met deserved failure, as seems likely to be the fate of the similar tactics in Massachusetts.

The woman-suffrage question has come to vote again in the Massachusetts Legislature, as in every Legislature with but two exceptions since 1867. The measure was presented only in the restricted form of a proposition to grant women the right to vote in municipal elections, but it secured only 36 affirmative votes to 107 in the negative. This is the smallest affirmative vote ever cast, and is in sharp contrast with the attitude of the legislators in 1871, when a resolution proposing a constitutional amendment to strike out the word male and give women full suffrage received half the votes in the House of Representatives, and was defeated only by the casting vote of the Speaker. The trouble in Massachusetts, as everywhere else, appears to be the lack of support for the proposed change among the people in whose behalf it is urged. If legislators could be convinced that the majority of women want to vote, there can be little doubt that they would favor woman suffrage; but at present they see no evidence that this is the case.

The investigation of the boycott and lock-out in the brewing trade by the State Board of Arbitration on Thursday brought out the curious fact that the Brewers' Union attempted to boycott the Knights of Labor. Both organizations have engineers and firemen on their rolls. The witness Herbrand, Secretary of the Brewers' Union, was very reluctant to admit that his organization had boycotted the Knights, but the truth came out in the following colloquy:

Q. Your Union belonged to the Knights of Labor in 1886, did it not? A. Yes, but we ceased to be in 1887.

Q. The Knights of Labor have locals of engineers and firemen, have they not? A. Yes.

Q. And so has your Union? A. Yes.
Q. Do you recognize this contract with the seal of your order, stipulating that no engineer or fireman shall be employed in a brewery unless he holds a card of membership in the National Brewers' Association of Journeymen Brewers? (Witness would not give a direct answer.) Did you have it printed for fun then? A. To make up our minds to lay it before the bosses.

Other evidence was dragged out of this witness, to the effect that the Brewers' Union were ordered to parade with red flags after the execution of the Chicago Anarchists, that the witness himself was a contributor to an Anarchist newspaper, and that the Anarchical tendencies of the Union were one of the reasons why the employing brewers had decided to emancipate themselves from the Union. These facts must prove extremely puzzling to the demagogues who dance to the piping of Labor. What is a candidate for office to do when he finds one trade organization stigmatizing the members of another as "scabs," and requiring the employers to sign a contract and turn such "scabs" out of their employment? The situation thus created must prove embarrassing to the most experienced and well-meaning politician. It is so hard to find out what is "organized Labor" under such conditions.

Four out of five of the Committee of the Board of Overseers appointed to consider the subject of athletic sports at Harvard University unite in recommending the Faculty to prohibit intercollegiate contests absolutely. Many of their arguments coincide with those advanced in these columns some months ago, when we were commenting on President Eliot's annual report and his foreshadowing of this important reform. But the Committee also negative the plea most plausibly made on the other side, that college athletics would droop but for the stimulus of intercollegiate rivalry. They say explicitly that "the existing system does not tend to create a general habit of athletic exercise among the whole body of students," but "rather tends to discourage it"; and they cite rowing as a striking proof of this assertion. One member, in a minority report, recommends restricting the contests to the university teams, and letting them be played only with Yale College. This would, of course, abate the present evil, but would be open to most of the old objections, and to this other —that the long-standing feeling of animosity between Yale and Harvard would be intensified, whereas it is in the highest degree desirable that it should be extirpated, and that the two colleges should cease to think and talk of each other as being rivals in a special sense. We therefore hope the overseers and the Faculty will adopt the majority report.

Lord Randolph Churchill has managed to produce another sensation by deserting his Tory brethren in the debate on the County-Government Bill, and attacking the Ministry for their refusal to extend the measure to Ireland. On this point the Ministry are peculiarly vulnerable. They fought Gladstone at the last election on the ground that Ireland, being an integral part of the empire, was entitled to exactly the same rights and privileges as England, and ought to have them, but nothing more, and they were very strenuous in maintaining that good county councils of some sort were just what Ireland needed, and all the Home Rule she ought to get. In fact, they came into office with the cry of equality for the Irish within the empire. Their first piece of legislation, however, on finding that the support of the Liberal Unionists could be positively relied on, was the Coercion Bill, applicable to Ireland only, and giving the Government enormously increased powers not only in punishing, but in defining crime. The execution of this law, too, has been marked by increasing severity. The police and military have been sustained in undeniably illegal courses, savage punishments have been inflicted for really trifling offences, and recently the magistrates have gone so far, doubtless on the suggestion of the Executive, as to increase sentences on appeal when the appeal has been decided against the defendant—a practice which is legal, it is true, both in England and Scotland, but on which no English or Scotch court has ever ventured. Mr. Balfour, the Irish Secretary, too, and the real ruler of Ireland at present, has made a habit of treating the whole Irish question as a huge joke, with which he produces shouts of laughter at Tory dinners and meetings. In fact, one has to go back to the beginning of the century for displays of the same cynical indifference to what are called the principles of popular government. The boldest step the Ministry have taken in that direction is, however, the announcement that they will not give Ireland the same county government as England until the Cabinet thinks the Irish are fit for it, and this announcement is made to a legislative assembly which contains 106 Irish members elected by popular vote. Churchill now says this is going too far, and his revolt is said to have produced a great sensation. But we do not think it will produce more than a sensation. The Tory ranks do not break over incidents of this sort; and the Liberal Unionists will stick to the Government as long as Gladstone lives, or their constituencies are unable to turn them out of their seats.

What the effect of the Pope's decree pronouncing immoral the Plan of Campaign and boycotting will be in Ireland, nobody seems to know as yet. The joy of the Tories and Orangemen over it is most comic, considering the horror they usually entertain of Papal influence, and the extent to which they hold this influence responsible for the ills of Ireland. The more effect the decree produces on the Irish mind, the more sorrowful they would be if they were consistent. But their inconsistency in this is of a piece with the whole of the present attempt to restore order in Ireland. It is a mass of contradictions. The Pope's judgment will almost certainly restrict the activity of the Catholic clergy in promoting the Plan of Campaign, but as long as it is not sanctioned by a threat of withholding the sacraments, the laity will probably keep on in their present course. It is to be observed, however, that there are but few estates now in Ireland on which the rents have not been reduced in proportion to prices, either by the Plan of Campaign or by the action of the Land Commission. Consequently the practical importance of the Papal interference is very much smaller than it would have been a year ago. As to boycotting, it also has ceased, for the same reason, to be a political weapon of much value. The boycotting done now is said to be small in amount and mostly due to private malignity, and can be readily stopped.

The Panama Lottery Bill, now under discussion in the French Chambers, is a much more sweeping measure than an authorization to borrow 350,000,000 francs, as was stated by the *Tribune* last week. Section 1 of article 1 authorizes the company to make an issue of securities amounting to 600,000,000 francs. By section 2 of article 1, in order to answer to the obligations which may be imposed upon it, the company is authorized to add 20 per cent. to the sum of the loan, or 120,000,000 francs, making a total of 720,000,000 francs. Section 3 of article 1 provides that the bonds shall receive an annual interest which shall not be less than 3 per cent. on the nominal capital. Section 4 of article 1 provides that the repayment of the loan and the payment of the prizes shall be guaranteed by a sufficient deposit in trust of French *rentes*, or securities guaranteed by the French Government. The second article of the bill, and by far the most important, authorizes the Panama Company to convert into obligations of the same type (that is, lottery bonds), and under the same conditions and guarantees, all or any part of the loans heretofore made. The significance of this clause can only be realized by consulting a table of the company's outstanding obligations. Six loans have been issued, including the one of March 14, 1888. Of the six, three consist of 500 fr. bonds at 3, 4, and 5 per cent. interest respectively, and three are 1,000 fr. bonds, one redeemable at a fixed date, and two redeemable by semi-annual drawings. The total number of bonds is something in excess of 2,000,000, and the total nominal indebtedness is about 1,500,000,000 francs, exclusive of the 300,000,000 francs of capital stock. Of the last four loans, moreover, there remained unsubscribed about 550,000 bonds, of the par value of 1,000 francs each, or an additional sum of 550,000,000 francs, which M. de Lesseps will find a way to put on the market under the Government authorization. So that the authorization is, in fact, for an amount of over two and a half milliards of francs in lottery securities. *Carte blanche* to M. de Lesseps would not have been more sweeping. Of course, this sum is yet to be raised; even the Government's connivance does not imply inexhaustible credit. The success or failure of the operations on the Isthmus will have a controlling influence in this matter.

MR. BLAINE'S CANDIDACY.

THE election of delegates to the Republican National Convention has already proceeded far enough to show clearly the dominant sentiment in the party as to the candidate for President. State conventions were held last week in Massachusetts and Pennsylvania at the North, and in Florida and Texas at the South, two representative States in each section; and in all, the overwhelming majority evidently desire that Mr. Blaine shall be the nominee. Even in Ohio the week before, it was manifest that the very men who made lip professions of loyalty to Sherman, at heart desired Blaine; and despite all the efforts to tie up the delegates to the alleged "favorite son," it is generally believed that fully half of them cannot, for long at least, be held from following their strong impulses away from him. Iowa and Indiana have shown more sincerity than Ohio in their support of State candidates, but nobody doubts that the delegates are in great danger at the Convention of forgetting that they are supporting home candidates. The scattering talk in two or three other States in favor of local millionaires, like Alger of Michigan and Stanford of California, deceives nobody but the men who are vain enough to waste a little of their wealth in working up "booms" which are too ridiculous to stand exposure to the national scrutiny. The occasional suggestion of men of a higher type, like Hawley of Connecticut and Gresham of Indiana, meets little response, and every such man is fatally discredited by the fact that he has shown independence enough to incur the damning odium of Mugwump praise.

Indeed, nobody can survey the field at this date, less than two months before the meeting of the Convention, without reaching the conclusion that the Republican party wants Blaine for the candidate, and means to have him. From all the evidence accessible, it appears well within bounds to say that three out of four of the party "workers" throughout the country prefer him to any and all other men. The men who in 1876, 1880, and 1884 withstood his candidacy and twice defeated it, are now either quite outside of the party or no longer wield any influence in its councils. The management of the organization is almost entirely in the hands of Blaine men, but no management is required to produce evidence of a Blaine sentiment in the conventions, for the feeling is clearly spontaneous and widespread. A small percentage of thoughtful Republicans still maintain their ancient distrust of the man, and are more than ever before convinced that it would be folly to nominate him, because the experiment has been once tried and resulted as they had always predicted; but the overwhelming majority alike of the managers and of the rank and file want Blaine, and are bent on having him.

The insincerity of the man has never been so clearly exposed as in the treatment by his party of his so-called withdrawal. "My name will not be presented to the National Convention," he wrote in his "Florence Message" of January 25. If this meant anything according to the canons accepted in the interpretation of language among honorable men, it meant that he was outside the field of possible choice. But a week had not passed after the publication of the message before the chief Republican organ, edited by Mr. Blaine's next friend, declared that he had not said that he would not be a candidate "if his party should deliberately judge his nomination necessary to its success or to the safety of the country;" and for two months the *Tribune* has labored to show that this necessity existed, without eliciting a word of protest from the person chiefly concerned. The truth is, that those who really believed that Mr. Blaine meant to withdraw, must have been undeceived by the assurances of Mr. Blaine's intimates in this country that the Convention might safely go ahead and nominate him just as though he had never said anything.

There is only one possible reason why Mr. Blaine should not run. Our theory of party government presumes that a party will nominate for the Presidency the man who best represents it, and whom it most desires to see President. There is no possible doubt that Mr. Blaine stands in this relation to the Republican party to-day. As a loyal party man Mr. Blaine would have no right to say that he would not run except in one contingency—that he was physically unable to stand a canvass or to discharge the duties of the office if elected. A few people who still cherished a belief in his sincerity attributed his so-called withdrawal to the fact that he was in ill health, and they were strengthened in this idea when they found him telling the correspondent of the New York *World*, February 25, that he "could not go through the burden and fatigue of another Presidential canvass." This theory was confirmed by the reports of various people who have seen Mr. Blaine within a few weeks, that he looked like a man badly off with disease of the kidneys. But his spokesmen in this country indignantly resent the suggestion that he is not the very picture of health. The *Tribune* declares that he is "as well as he ever was in his life," and Walker Blaine quotes his mother as writing on April 10 that his father "had not felt so strong and vigorous for many years."

No reason, therefore, appears why Mr. Blaine should not be nominated. His party wants him if he is able to run; his friends say that he is better able to run than ever before. So far as the Mugwumps are concerned, we think that as a rule they, like the Republicans—and the Democrats, too, for that matter—desire to see him nominated. They consider him unworthy to be President, and they hoped that the Republican party would be above nominating an unfit candidate; but as the party wants him, and he really represents the party as it now exists better than any other man, they would prefer to have him run, and get beaten after a fashion that would leave no chance for Burchard excuses.

THE BRUNDAGE TAX BILL.

THE two reports of the Commission appointed to revise the tax laws of New York in the year 1870—the Commission consisting of David A. Wells, Edwin Dodge, and Geo. W. Cuyler—are supposed to be well known to all persons who give special attention to the subject there treated. These reports practically expunged all the arguments previously advanced in favor of the taxation of invisible and intangible things, such as bills of exchange, promissory notes, credits, money at interest, choses in action, cash in hand, stocks and bonds in the hands of the owners. Later reports by State Tax Commissions, whether agreeing with the point of view taken by the New York Commission or not, have served mainly to enforce their conclusions by demonstrating the perfect futility of all the attempts to reach this class of property with any approach to equality by any sort of taxing machinery.

As fresh illustrations we shall invite attention to the report of the Connecticut Tax Commission of last year, and to the more recent investigations of Prof. Ely of the Maryland Tax Commission. The latter are particularly useful by reason of the examinations (made by the writer personally in the States of Ohio, West Virginia, and Georgia) of the practical results of the energetic efforts put forth in those States to unearth and tax the invisible and intangible things which the Brundage bill seeks to reach. It is well known that the State of New York does not attempt to tax these elusive securities. The law does not exempt them, but the law has been allowed to fall into "innocuous desuetude." It is for this reason that the Brundage bill is now brought forward. If due and diligent effort has been made in any State to tax this species of property, and if the result has been a failure as conspicuous as our own, that fact should be taken as an argument *prima facie* against making the attempt here. Now what are the facts?

The Connecticut Commissioners tell us that the present system of taxing intangible things "has now been tested by the experience of thirty-six years, and it is safe to say that it has by no means fulfilled the expectations of its framers. . . . Of intangible property, such as notes, bonds, book debts, and Western mortgages, a small portion only has ever been reached, and this portion is of late growing less and less every year." The law of Connecticut since 1850 has required the taxpayer to make out and return the list of his property under oath. The following table shows the actual workings of the law since 1855:

Year.	Bonds, notes, etc., listed.
1855	$19,186,092
1865	20,521,204
1875	16,355,766
1885	13,208,724

Here is a shrinkage of about 40 per cent. in property of this class returned and actually taxed since the year 1855, whereas it is well known to every intelligent citizen that the holding of such property has more than doubled in Connecticut during that interval. It would probably be within bounds to say

that it has increased fourfold. The decline in the amount of personal property reached and reachable by the tax-gatherer in Connecticut has been in about the same ratio as in New York, where the listing of personal property is not required by the law.

In Ohio, where more diligent efforts are made to secure the taxation of personal property, a similar shrinkage in the actual results has been going on for several years. Gov. Foraker, in his last annual message, pointed out the fact that there has been a decline on the tax lists of more than $33,000,000 since 1883. Prof. Ely quotes the testimony of intelligent citizens to the effect that only 10 to 20 per cent. of personal property is reached by the taxing authorities in Columbus, and a still smaller percentage in Cincinnati. In the smaller towns a much larger proportion of personalty is reached, for the reason, probably, that in the smaller towns the people keep a sharper watch upon each other. It follows that the holders of personal property in the rural districts pay an undue proportion of the State tax, and that this happens in a State where the tax-gatherer's pursuit after personal property is keener, perhaps, than in any other State in the Union. It happens also in Ohio, as in Connecticut, that the property of widows and orphans in the probate courts gets the most disproportionate assessment of all. "A lawyer of standing in Columbus," says Prof. Ely, "who holds estates in trust for several parties, says that whenever he goes to the tax office to pay taxes, he feels capable of committing robbery, arson, and murder, because he is obliged to pay taxes on the full value of estates of two, three, and four thousand dollars belonging to little orphan children, whereas he sees wealthy clients paying on ten or fifteen per cent. of what he knows they are worth."

It was noted by Professor Ely that the State of Georgia is uncommonly well served by her chief taxing officer, the present Comptroller-General, and that his admonitions and instructions to the assessors to look carefully after personal property and see that "no guilty man escapes" have been very persistent and methodical. The taxpayer in Georgia is required to make out the list of his personal property and swear to it. He must catalogue his goods, chattels, watches, furniture, kitchen utensils, moneys, credits, and effects of every kind whatsoever, ships and boats and the property contained therein, all money due to him from within or without the State, and all stocks, bonds, or other securities of corporations within or without the State. After making out the list, he must be examined by the assessor by way of refreshing his recollection, and his answers must be taken down in writing. If he has control or possession of any property belonging to others, he must catalogue that portion separately. When the lists are thus perfected they are turned over to the Grand Jury of the county for a fresh examination, and after they have been scrutinized and passed upon by that body they go into the hands of the tax receiver.

This system is not only the law, but it is faithfully and diligently executed. There is no complaint in any quarter of laxity on the part of the assessors or the Grand Jury, yet the results are extremely unsatisfactory. The Comptroller-General, in his report for 1886, says: "From a careful examination of the digest on file in this office, it is evident to me that such [personal] property is not returned as it should be. . . . A great many merchants and other citizens of this State have borrowed money on bonds, notes, and other evidences of debt owed by them, and have deposited such bonds, notes, etc., as collateral security with the persons from whom they have made such a loan, and *think* that said notes, bonds, etc., being out of their hands on April 1, such property should not be returned by them; this is not true." In the mere article of merchandise offered for sale, which can be seen and handled, he says that not 50 per cent. is returned for taxation. In the whole city of Savannah there were not ten watches returned for taxation. The usual complaint about perjury was rife.

The same story is told for West Virginia. A special Tax Commission was organized and set to work in that State in the year 1884. They reported that not more than one-fifth of the invisible property was ever listed for taxation, and that of the visible personal property listed one-half was assessed 40 per cent. lower than the other half. "All the taxes from invisible property," they say, "come from a few conspicuously conscientious citizens, from widows, executors, and from guardians of the insane and infants; in fact, it is a comparatively rare thing to find a shrewd trader who 'gives in' any considerable amount of notes, stocks, or money. The truth is, things have come to such a condition in West Virginia that, as regards paying taxes on this class of property, it is almost as voluntary, and is considered pretty much in the same light, as donations to the neighborhood church or Sunday-school."

In Wisconsin the same condition of things was found, but that State appears to have drifted into the easy condition of New York, the attempt to tax personal property having been practically abandoned except in the small villages and rural districts. Now, the question for the New York Legislature to consider is whether it is worth while to make a fresh effort to do something which experience has shown, over and over again, cannot be done. In order to answer this question intelligently, let us inquire what the thing is that it is sought to do. It is to impose a penalty of about 2 per cent. per annum for the offence of bringing into or retaining in the State circulating and movable property which gives value to all the fixed property of the State, corporate or real. At the present time New York offers great attractions to this kind of property by the practical exemption she offers from taxation. She has profited by it to an enormous degree. Rich people have come and are coming from all parts of the country to take up their residence among us. Is this desirable or is it not? Is the spending of all this money in and around New York a benefit to the city and State, or otherwise? Would it be wise to reverse the current, and set the flow of capital outward rather than inward? We fancy that there are not two opinions on this subject. We judge that the holders of city real estate would be the first to cry "Hold!" if they observed any movement which tended to check the incoming and to promote the outgoing of personal property.

But we are told that while it is true that real estate in cities derives its value from the presence of personal property, which tends more and more to accumulate in cities, the farming community derives no such benefit, and that thus an unequal burden falls on agricultural land. This is true in part, because the New York farmer has to compete with all other farmers whose products can reach this market; but, on the other hand, the advance in city real estate due to the growth of personal property enables and requires the cities to pay 80 per cent. or more of the State taxes, New York and Brooklyn alone paying 55 per cent., while several of the rural counties actually receive from the State Treasury more money than they pay into it. In point of fact, the taxation of the State of New York is now so extremely light (2 7-10 mills on the dollar of a valuation which is probably not above 40 per cent. of the real value) that we should hardly be aware of the demands of the State Treasury if we did not receive the reports of the Comptroller once a year.

THE BOULANGER CAMPAIGN.

The Boulangist campaign in France becomes, as a study of political manners, more and more interesting. In the first place, far from submitting a programme of any sort to the public, Boulanger firmly declines to say what his plan for redeeming France is. This recalls to some of the wags of the press what was known as the "plan Trochu" during the siege of Paris, or, in other words, a plan which Gen. Trochu had for routing the Germans, but which he refused to communicate to any one until the decisive moment had come, and which, they said, he had in the meantime deposited with a notary. When Boulanger is asked what his plan is, he replies that "this is his secret," and that he should be a fool to reveal it. He cites as a precedent for this reticence the course of Mr. Gladstone in refusing to produce now, while he is out of office, a plan of Irish home rule. Being asked to what party he considered himself as belonging, he declared that he belonged to no party. How could any one think, after what the country had seen of parties during the past seventeen years, that he was going "to brigade himself in a party"? If they had only seen what he saw of parties in the Chamber while he was Minister of War, they would never want to hear of a party again. What he aims at is to convert the "Boulangist party" (*le parti Boulangiste*) into the party of France—a party which would have nothing to do with politics, but would occupy itself with "general interests."

The interview at which these ideas were extracted occurred at Rochefort's house, and when the General was asked how, exactly

and in detail, this Boulangist party was to be formed, Rochefort answered for him that at the rate things were then going, the whole Chamber would be Boulangist in one year from that date, there being already thirty Boulangist Deputies. At this point Boulanger himself took up the tale, and intimated that what he was driving at was the Presidency of the republic, which, when the Chamber was entirely Boulangist, he of course would have, and he would be no more a dictator, he declared, than Grévy or Carnot.

He was asked whether, when he was President, he would go to war. This he denied indignantly, and told the reporter of the *Figaro* he might head the article he was going to write, "Boulanger, c'est la paix"—which of course recalls in a comic way the Napoleonic phrase, "l'Empire, c'est la paix." This, he said, was his answer to placards which had been stuck up all over the country headed "Boulanger, c'est la guerre." The nearest approach to a declaration of his policy which he made was in laying down his dinner knife on the table, and calling the reporter's attention to the straight line made by the blade and handle. "I am just like that line," said he; "why should I be obliged to go to one side or the other?" When he left the room, Rochefort exclaimed: "I adore that man. Did you ever see anybody simpler, or more natural, or, in short, a better fellow?" On the reporter's suggesting modestly that when Boulanger got into power, perhaps Rochefort would turn against him, the latter replied: "That will be *his* affair; but really this time I don't think I am mistaken." The only thing certain and definite that can be extracted, in fact, from the conversations of either the General or his friends is that he thinks he occupies the position which Louis Napoleon occupied in 1851; that the country is tired of parties and of parliamentary government, and wants a great man to take it out of the slough; that he, Boulanger, may, under these circumstances, consider himself "France," and do the best he can to get the Government into his hands. It does not appear that he has now or ever had any political ideas, except such as pass current in French barracks and are produced at mess-tables.

The politicians in the meantime are very much alarmed by him. The best observers felt sure he would carry neither Dordogne nor Nord, but he carried both by large majorities, although the Republican delegation in the Chamber from both these departments, issued addresses warning the voters against him as a dictator in disguise. Even the Reds have denounced him vigorously in addresses and proclamations, but without much effect. The following are some specimens of the stories by which his canvass was helped in Nord: that he was a sailor, and went a-fishing on the banks of Newfoundland before he entered the army, and therefore ought to have the sailor vote; that he is a natural son of Napoleon III.; that he is a grandson of Napoleon I. in this way: A man named Boulanger, who had been a miner, entered the Grand Army under Napoleon the Great, and rose to high rank, and became very intimate with the Emperor, who, having had a child by a Russian princess, begged Boulanger to father it and give it his name, which Boulanger very obligingly did; and the present candidate is the child in question, and ought to have both the miner vote and the Bonapartist vote. Of course there are defects in this story. On the face of the narrative, it would seem as if he were the son and not the grandson of the first Napoleon, and as if, this being so, he ought now to be about seventy years old; but these little discrepancies do not count about election time. Moreover, there is an almanac widely circulated in the rural districts in his behalf, which declares that the signs of the zodiac make it very clear that he will conquer Germany on the 7th of May, 1890, and be proclaimed President of the republic in 1891. One Boulangist stump-orator goes about with a dog, which barks loudly when his master in his speeches mentions the name of Jules Ferry, the principal representative of the Opportunist party. There is a good suggestion in this for our campaign speakers. A dog taught to bark joyously on hearing Blaine's name, and to howl piteously on hearing Cleveland's, or conversely, might produce a good effect among doubtful voters.

It cannot be said that the French Republicans deserve or are receiving much sympathy in this the hour of their distress. They have persisted for ten years in the policy of overturning ministries for trifles, in spite of repeated warnings as to how it would end. No attempt have they made to build up a strong and united party, or to kill the suicidal habit of supporting the Cabinet only in return for "favors" and "recognition." They are rallying now, and trying to show a united front to the enemy—the terrible coming "Cæsar"; but it is humiliating to see the kind of Cæsar he is—a smug-faced soldier who never gained a victory or commanded in a battle, who won his promotion by sycophancy, and has no sign of the hero about him except his seat on horseback, which, however, is admitted on all hands to be rather that of a ring-master than of a great commander.

One thing they are mourning over bitterly—the substitution of the *scrutin de liste*, or general ticket, for the *scrutin d'arrondissement*, or district ticket. This was Gambetta's plan for stopping jobbery among the Deputies, by making each Deputy the representative of the whole department elected on a general ticket, instead of the single representative of one district. He thought that in this way the claims of constituents would weigh less heavily on each member. The scheme, however, has had no great success as regards jobbery, and it is now furnishing the Boulangists with the means of wiping out the minority completely in all departments in which they are a majority. On a general ticket in such cases they carry every seat, and give each election the air of that dreadful thing the "plébiscite," with which Napoleon wrought such execution among his enemies.

INCAPABLE ENTHUSIASTS.

THERE is an aphorism of Lichtenberg's, quoted by Mr. John Morley in his recent lecture, to the effect that enthusiasts without capacity are the really dangerous people. At first thought the saying is paradoxical. It is the enthusiasts with capacity, one is disposed to say, that are to be feared, for they can accomplish something. Yet, if we consider the matter, it appears that the enthusiasts with capacity are the really great men. Giving the word capacity a not unreasonably broad meaning, it is only such men that urge the world into genuine progress. If they led men astray, they would prove their incapacity. There have been perhaps great men who had little enthusiasm, although, of course, they had capacity, but their part has been that of conservators rather than reformers. The great onward lurches of the race have been due to the men of combined fire and steel, of energy as well as intellect, distinguished, in short, by both enthusiasm and capacity.

Wherein, then, lies the danger of incapable enthusiasts? It is in the misdirection of their enthusiasm. They hold up unattainable ideals, and lead men off on hopeless expeditions. In this way they cause a treble mischief. They consume time in futile struggles, they waste energies that would have been available for good, and they throw discredit upon all enthusiasm for reform. They have neither that kind of capacity, called common sense, which enables some men to distinguish between the practicable and the impracticable, nor that capacity, called insight, which enables others to anticipate the direction which progress must take. There is enough of the spirit of self-sacrifice in the world, of "public spirit," to make things a great deal better than they are, if it were properly directed. But if it is scattered and diverted in a thousand different directions and towards inconsistent ends, progress is blocked; and it is in achievements of this kind that incapable enthusiasts accomplish their mischief. Fortunately, as they get in one another's way and quarrel, their results are chiefly negative. They fail to carry out their own schemes, but they succeed in thwarting others. Unfortunately, they disconcert the plans of the wise as well as of the foolish.

For the most incapable of enthusiasts must have a following. No cause is so absurd as not to attract some one when enthusiastically urged, for the reason that enthusiasm is intrinsically attractive. It is a generous trait, and although not incompatible with egotism, it is incompatible with deliberate selfishness. It tends to carry a man outside of himself, and thereby acquires a moral quality. In fact, the predominant meaning of the word seems to be devotion to ends relating to the condition of mankind, and it is rather by a figure of speech that men are said to be enthusiasts in pursuits unconnected with the interests of their fellows. So essentially is man a social animal that whoever declaims to him that great line of Terence's, straightway wins his heart. No matter how fantastic the champion, his spirit is contagious, and by mere enthusiasm he becomes a power. When the major premise is friendship to humanity, it is odious to inquire too particularly into the minor, and if it is believed that a man's heart is in the right place, most people do not concern themselves about his head.

To criticise enthusiasts is thus always an invidious thing, and moreover their prophetic attributes serve them as a protection. Their ideals are all in the future, and as no one knows what the future may bring forth, it

is not easy to show that these ideals cannot be realized. Nor can it be denied that the world has often been mistaken, and pronounced those men incapable enthusiasts who finally have been determined to be great reformers. It is not always the case that great men are very articulate reasoners, and geniuses have a way of reaching their conclusions by instinct or inspiration rather than by logical process. Hence it is inferred that those who do not reach their conclusions by reason must do so by inspiration—a principle that hedges all enthusiasts with a certain divinity. Truly it is not easy to discriminate. Hardly any one would now call John Brown an incapable enthusiast, yet at the time of his epoch-making foray it was thought charitable to call him a madman. He may, perhaps, have reasoned as well as Arnold of Winkelried, or thought not without reason that he could play the part of Samson in the temple of the Philistines. The denunciation that fell upon him was of the same nature as that which fell upon the other abolitionists; they were odious because they were held incapable, and yet the incapacity proved to be rather on the part of the critics than of the enthusiasts.

The case of the abolitionists, however, is an excellent example of the possibility of distinguishing true prophecy from false. For nothing was plainer than that our society would not always tolerate slavery. There was nothing unprecedented in the demands of the abolitionists. Slavery had been abolished before, and it was rather surprising that it should have been maintained so long in a community so far advanced in civilization. No one who pretended to reason could assert that history taught that slavery was a permanent institution, or that it would exist in an ideal state of society. All that could be rationally urged against the abolitionists was that their methods were not the correct ones, or that the time was not ripe—arguments that were refuted by the logic of events if not by that of the anti-slavery party. Hence it was necessary to resort to appeals to the feelings, to coarse abuse, and even to violence against these enthusiasts, who had reason on their side; and when these arguments are employed, there is a presumption against the case of those who employ them. In fact, it may be laid down that the criterion of the capacity of enthusiasts is the attitude of their opponents. The final appeal is to reason; those who attempt to bring their case before other tribunals admit its weakness.

If we contrast with the abolitionists some of the enthusiasts of the present day, the applicability of the distinctions which we have taken becomes apparent. Their declared aim is to increase the wealth of the poor, and they propose to accomplish it by subtracting from that of the rich. It is true that political economy teaches that the accumulation of capital tends to increase wages; but as they dislike the conclusions of that science, and lack the capacity to follow its reasonings, they declare with the greatest assurance that it is obsolete. They propose to abolish the ancient relation of master and servant, and to institute a novel kind of partnership between labor and capital, in which labor shall dictate its own wages, control the management, and share in the profits, while capital shall bear all the losses. They lament the woes of the poor, and rejoice over the formation of trades-unions, whose principal effect and whose avowed object is to shut out the poor from opportunities of work, and whose practice is to persecute those who endeavor to maintain their independence or who try to work in defiance of union hostility. They declaim against the injustice of the present constitution of society, and ignore the injustice which they encourage men to inflict upon one another. They refuse to explain the details of their projected reforms, but the most logical of them are driven into Socialism, and advocate the improvement of the condition of the poor by setting up the Government in business with capital furnished by the taxation of the poor whose condition it is to improve, regardless of the lessons of experience concerning the wastefulness of all governmental enterprises.

The most conspicuous proof of the incapacity of these enthusiasts is their insensibility to moral considerations. The great causes of poverty, vice, improvidence, laziness, and dishonesty, are treated as its effects, and charity to the poor is indeed made to cover a multitude of sins. The outrageous and growing faithlessness of laborers as regards the performance of their contracts meets with no condemnation from these effusive sympathizers with labor. They rave over the corruption of our legislation by capitalists, and ignore the fact that laborers form a majority of the electoral body, and that they prefer to choose representatives so ignorant, so dishonest, and so rapacious that capitalists are compelled to buy them off to avoid ruin. It has not often been the case, in the history of our race, that enthusiasm for justice has been attended with such a disregard for the most elementary virtues. It is a most discouraging sign that so large a proportion of our clergy and of the writers for the "religious" press should have proved themselves incapable enthusiasts by their utterances in these matters. They may not have much positive influence for evil, but they have encouraged so much folly that it is impossible to look for any great improvement in the condition of the poor until this generation has passed away.

IRISH NOTES.

DUBLIN, April 18, 1888.

AFTER a harsh and backward period, spring is coming upon us in all its beauty. Light clouds shadow the hills over which green tints are spreading; the birds answer each other in the hedges—over all there is the indefinable charm of the season. The moral order in Ireland is, however, not changed. A coercive policy is being carried out to the uttermost. William O'Brien was arrested on Saturday, John Dillon yesterday. Numerous are the other arrests, mainly in connection with the meetings in the west on Sunday week, where Mr. Balfour's challenge regarding the suppression of the League was resolutely taken up, and an attempt made to hold meetings in spite of their being tardily proclaimed. Some of these meetings were suppressed with brutal violence. At Ennis the people managed to elude the authorities and assemble in a warehouse opening off a yard separated from the street by a gateway. As they were passing out the authorities came upon them. The people made no resistance, and even opened the gates for the police, who commenced taking down their names. It has been fully proved that not a hand was raised or a stone thrown. Yet into this yard and upon these people charged, by order, police with drawn bâtons, infantry with fixed bayonets, and cavalry with sabres. Many persons were injured. The armed forces of the Crown cannot have had their hearts in the work, or the results must have been fatal. Fortunately, at least one English member was present to see what occurred the same day at Loughrea.

It is difficult to understand the policy of the Government regarding the suppression of meetings. The humane course would be to issue the prohibition as long as possible beforehand, and to give it the fullest publicity; instead of which it is often delayed until the evening before, or the very day of the meeting. Crowds of countrymen attend, and a police charge is to many the first intimation that they have placed themselves in opposition to what is here called law. It doubtless has a discouraging effect, and that may be the intention of the Government. The poor, depending on their daily labor, cannot afford to run the risk of broken heads and disabled limbs. Mr. Balfour also probably wishes to make it appear that every meeting not suppressed is held by his permission. There is never any disturbance where the police and military do not interfere. Of late years, since we became accustomed to the presence of the Government note-taker, he is invariably protected and accorded a place on the platform. Meetings were announced for Sunday week, and at the last moment suppressed. Another was advertised for last Sunday, at New Ross, on the border of a district where the League is suppressed. Large bodies of military were quartered in the town. William O'Brien was arrested on his way to this gathering. Elaborate preparations were made for eluding the authorities and holding meetings elsewhere if necessary. Only when ten o'clock in the forenoon came, and no prohibition had been issued, was it felt with any degree of certainty that the meeting would be permitted. The police and military were confined to the barracks. The Government note-taker marched with the promoters between bands and banners. Perfect order and good humor prevailed, as is always the case when the people are left to themselves. The few police and soldiers off duty that strayed into the crowd passed unnoticed. Some 6,000 persons were present, and the number might have been doubled had there been any certainty of non-interference.

Nothing can be more futile than Mr. Balfour's assertion that he has really suppressed the spirit of the League, and weakened its prestige and organization. He has made it more dangerous; in the proclaimed districts secret gatherings and secret combinations replace open proceedings. The people are more than ever devoted to their leaders. William O'Brien's character has been revealed to an extraordinary degree. The crudeness, bitterness, and exaggeration that too often characterize *United Ireland*, of which he is editor, have led the outside public to underestimate his entire singleness of purpose, simplicity of nature, self-forgetfulness, and religious fervor. It is said by many that he intends, when the Irish question is satisfactorily settled, to enter a monastery, and this I quite believe. Nothing can shake Mr. Parnell's position as leader; but O'Brien and Dillon are the most beloved of the people, sharing personally their difficulties and dangers.

I never travel through Ireland or look beneath the surface here that I am not renewedly and painfully impressed with the dark shadows that inevitably accompany this movement. It is quite different from anti-slavery, or temperance, or any other great agitation in which the mainspring is conscientiousness and philanthropy. In our cause, indeed, such motives characterize the leaders and large numbers of the rank and file, and English support is generally unselfish; but the chief incentive here, so far as the land (apart from the Nation-

al) question is concerned, is personal interest, a desire to escape from the incubus of a land system that is crushing out the life-blood of the country. This personal interest inevitably leads to the assertion of much that is unreasonable, and much actual dishonesty. For instance, the position of prominent Nationalists is often shamefully taken advantage of by tenants. A landlord friend of mine was discouraged from openly joining the movement by a Nationalist leader, who warned him that if he did so, his tenants would take unfair advantage of him. One of the leaders lately applied for rent to a backward tenant, who held land at a low valuation. The tenant admitted this, but said: "I hold another farm at a rack-rent from X., who is not a Nationalist, and I must pay him, and so cannot pay you." As the good and bad landlords stand together, so do the good and bad tenants. Each side believes that whatever is good in the aims of antagonists is overshadowed by what is evil in their methods. Each side condones and ignores the evil in the character and methods of supporters, in view of the overwhelming good which is expected from the attainment of the common object. I do not see why this should be so much the practice here. We are required to keep silence regarding anything and everything objectionable in those who nominally side with us. Perhaps a reason for this may be found in a desire to avoid even the semblance of the division so much desired by opponents, and which has been the curse of Irish politics. Such want of candor, however, provides future complications and perils. The condition of parts of Kerry is appalling. The murder of poor Fitzpatrick at Lixnaw was most brual and unprovoked. Yet, because his daughter Norah had helped to prosecute and convict the murderers at the assizes, when she appeared on Sunday at chapel a large number of the congregation left, despite the protests of the clergy. Moreover, a conviction of the murderers would, I believe, never have been secured if they had not been tried under the Coercion Act in another county. It is easy for an English party to make political capital out of delaying a settlement, but reconstruction will be no easy task, and to us and not to them it must fall.

Regarding land settlement, things are in the accustomed confusion. No government has as yet compassed a real final reform. This tinkering satisfies no one but the lawyers, except, perhaps, the tenants who are purchasing under Lord Ashbourne's Act. Those whose rents were adjusted a few years ago are as discontented as ever. Some 60,000 cases await the courts. Uniform principles of land valuation for separating and defining the interests of landlord and tenant are more than ever seen to be impossible. Men pay large sums for interest in farms, and a few months afterwards go into court and get the rents reduced upon the basis of which they made the purchase. I lately heard of a case in which a tenant of an agricultural holding near Dublin had his rent reduced to £2 an acre, while his neighbor on the other side of a wall sold his land at £800 an acre for building purposes. Ownership in most instances is the only possible satisfactory settlement. How that is to be effected is the difficulty. The people in many districts now hold back, as the landlords formerly did. They still see that the rent and price of a farm depend upon its condition and capacity, and so they prefer to drift and let matters go to waste for a while longer, trusting to what may turn up.

The ascendency class here are jubilant. Several waverers of two years ago have returned to the fold. On the other hand, there are many Protestants more distinctly in touch with the people, and whose ideas of liberty and constitutional government have some bases in conviction, who are becoming aware that a continuance of the present state of things is impossible. A protest against coercion is being signed by Irish as well as English members of the Society of Friends.

As to public opinion on the whole in the United Kingdom, the Tory position is still strong. Mr. Balfour's policy may have to be tested much longer before its overthrow. I doubt whether, if an election took place now, the position of parties would be materially changed. Under all the circumstances of Ireland, and sad as it is for her, I cannot on their own account regret the decision of the thousands of our young people who are taking their fortunes in their hands, and crowding to our seaports to embark for the United States.

I have spoken of the internal condition of this country, and hazarded an opinion as to the state of feeling in England. I cannot conclude without reference to what is generally supposed to be going on in Rome. Archbishop Walsh, one of the ablest and most vehement Nationalist ecclesiastics, has been detained there some months. Contrary influences are evidently at work. Many of the best informed shake their heads, and believe that the Pope will eventually be worked upon to abate the zeal of the clergy in the cause of home rule. Others are firmly convinced that he will never risk in the slightest degree alienating the Irish people. By some it is thought that a temporary settlement is being negotiated which might be urged upon the clergy, as preferable for the interests of the Church to a continuance of the present contest. On the whole, intelligent Catholic Nationalists regard the position of affairs in Rome with some anxiety, while they admit that any action the Vatican may think proper to take would only retard—it could not prevent—the ultimate accomplishment of home rule. D. B.

FERRY'S BALZAC.—II.

PARIS, April 18, 1888.

THE daughter of Mme. Gay, Delphine, who was extremely handsome, married the famous journalist, Émile de Girardin. Balzac was a friend of Mme. de Girardin, but his relations with her husband never became very cordial. When he wrote his 'Médecin de Campagne,' in 1837, he hoped that Girardin would publish it in one of his papers, the *Journal des Connaissances Utiles*, which had 100,000 subscribers (an enormous number for the time); but the editor, who was of a very positivist turn of mind, thought the 'Médecin de Campagne' a very uninteresting *berquinade*, and would give no extracts from it. Balzac was offended; he wrote to Mme. Carraud: "This book is better than laws, or battles even; it is the gospel in action. How many people have already wept over the confession of the Country Doctor! Mme. d'Abrantès, who rarely weeps, has wept over the disasters of the Beresina, and the life of Napoleon told by a soldier in a barn." Balzac and Girardin quarrelled on some other points, and Mme. de Girardin found it difficult to reconcile them when Girardin wished to have some novels for a new paper which he had founded, the *Presse*. Balzac used to go and see Mme. de Girardin only at the hours when he knew he should not find her husband. He made in her house the acquaintance of Lamartine, who afterwards, in his 'Cours de Littérature,' made a very living portrait of the author of the "Comédie humaine." Balzac dedicated to Lamartine his 'César Birotteau.' One of his most extraordinary novels, 'Les Paysans,' which reveals a profound knowledge of the sentiments of the rural population of France, and of the effects of the French Revolution, appeared in the *Presse*. At the very moment when he worked at the 'Paysans' he was preparing for another paper, the *Constitutionnel*, that masterpiece, 'Cousine Bette,' which forms the first part of the 'Parents pauvres.'

The 'Paysans' appeared in 1846. It had no great success—it was too true. Its readers did not find it amusing—they were spoiled by the stories of Alexandre Dumas, the father. Girardin insisted every day on some abbreviations in the feuilleton; Balzac, who cared much for his long and almost photographic descriptions, was in a state of constant irritation. Mme. de Girardin poured oil between the wheels. She had it in mind to make of Balzac a member of the French Academy, as she was intimate with Lamartine, with Victor Hugo, with Charles Nodier, with Barante. Balzac was not very anxious to present himself; his affairs were embarrassed, and his monetary condition very precarious. At the last moment he withdrew his candidacy; Victor Hugo persisted, however, in giving him his vote. Who was elected in his place? I really do not know. Balzac never made the famous visits, so it cannot be said that he ever was a candidate; but it is clear that he was not encouraged, and that, if he had been in the least, he would have presented himself.

In the autumn of 1833, Balzac made, in a hotel at Neufchâtel, Switzerland, the acquaintance of the Countess Hanska, who was with her husband and her daughter. Mme. Hanska, who was of Polish extraction, was at that time thirty years old. She had the peculiar grace and distinction which belong to the women of her race; she spoke French to perfection, and was well acquainted with all the works of Balzac. Her notions were very aristocratic. Count Hanska was a great Russian proprietor, in the Government of Kieff. He invited Balzac to make him a visit at his estate. Mme. Hanska was of a mystical turn of mind, and full of imagination. At the end of 1833 she began a correspondence with Balzac which was never interrupted. The friendship which had sprung up on the Lake of Neufchâtel became, by a constant communion of thoughts, a deep affection. He confided to her all his troubles, his difficulties, his projects. He sent her his portrait painted by Boulanger.

In 1838 Balzac became acquainted with the gifted and beautiful Princess Belgiojoso, who had for a moment inspired a passion in Alfred de Musset. "She has had the good fortune to displease me," wrote Balzac to Mme. Hanska; "her house is well kept, and her people are very witty. I have been there two Saturdays, and have dined once; that will be all." In that same year Balzac, being a little more easy in mind, bought a piece of land at Ville-d'Avray, and built the little house which he has made famous. The view from it is admirable: the valley of Ville-d'Avray, the immense panorama of Paris, the hills of Meudon and of Bellevue. "Forty-five thousand francs more of debt," he wrote to Mme. Carraud. "The folly, you see, is complete now. I must pay, and, in order to do so, I work every night." Still, the speculator—for whoever has read Balzac must know that there was a speculator in him—was satisfied. He wrote to Mme. Hanska that the value of the place would soon be doubled. The truth is, that it was only a source of expense to him. He soon found himself so embarrassed that he entered into a mining adventure. He had read, in Tacitus,

that the island of Sardinia had numerous silver mines, and that the Romans had found much silver in them. He found himself, in 1837, in Genoa, and, remembering these lines of Tacitus, he had a conversation on the subject with a merchant of the town. This old merchant did not much encourage him; but some time afterwards, Carraud, who was a friend of the chemist Biot, having found a method for the extraction of silver from various ores, Balzac determined to go himself to Sardinia. He went to Corsica, and had to cross over to Sardinia in a small bark. He found, after many adventures, the silver district, and, to his great surprise, his old friend from Genoa, who had obtained the concession from the Court of Turin. He came philosophically back to France, by way of Milan and the Alps. His journey had lasted more than three months; it is a pity he did not write an account of it.

In the year 1842 he attempted drama for the first time. He read the "Ressources de Quinola" himself to the artists of the Odéon. The first four acts were heard with interest. "Now, sir," said the actors, "the fifth act." "The fifth act? I have not composed it yet, or, rather, I have not written it; but I will tell it to you," and he improvised his fifth act before the stupefied artists. The piece fell flat. The *parterre* of the Odéon, at that time, was very ferocious. *Quinola* is a cousin of *Figaro*, but his wit was not well understood, and it must be confessed that Balzac had not the sense of stage requirements.

Mme. Hanska, in 1843, became a widow and the mistress of a great territorial fortune, and established herself in St. Petersburg. Balzac had not seen her for a long time. He went to Russia and stayed with her for two months. Mme. Hanska stayed in Dresden in 1845, but she did not allow Balzac to visit her at once in that city; she had several members of her own family in Saxony, and was afraid of their comments. Balzac went, nevertheless, though for a few days only, to Dresden, and made the acquaintance of Count George Mniszech, who became his friend at once. Count Mniszech was then paying attentions to the daughter of Mme. Hanska, whom he married the year afterwards.

Balzac afterwards joined Mme. Hanska for a little time at Baden. He had made her an offer of marriage; this union was to him, in the midst of his troubles, a ray of hope. Mme. Hanska hesitated a little; she admired Balzac, but she was not very young, she was not very romantic, though she was of a poetical disposition. It is easy to imagine that Balzac's courtship was much interrupted. With a degree of sincerity which did not always plead for him, he told all the complications of his existence to Mme. Hanska, who was his confidante and sometimes his adviser. In the absence of his friend, he felt homesick: "Forgive me, I am so unhappy to be in Paris while you are in Naples." He was allowed to go and see her in Rome. He felt a great enthusiasm for the Eternal City. He saw her again at Wiesbaden, and it was at this time that he wrote his masterpieces, 'Cousin Pons' and 'Cousine Bette." They had finally affianced themselves (the engagement took place while they were in Rome), and Mme. Hanska came to Paris; but the marriage did not take place at once. She had adjourned it to the time when their situation should be less embarrassed with business affairs. She had herself many difficulties connected with the succession of Count Hanska, and with her daughter's settlements.

Balzac bought a little house in the Rue Fortunée, and, in expectation of his future wife, turned it into a complete museum. He had the genius of what we now call bric-à-brac, as is well shown in the 'Peau de Chagrin' and some other of his novels. He lived in the happy time when the curiosities of the Renaissance, the beautiful remains of the seventeenth century, the charming *meubles* of the eighteenth century, could be bought for a trifle. Long before the Goncourts, Balzac revealed to us the beauties of the French art of the past. He bought somewhat indiscriminately, but he never bought anything really bad or vulgar. He had Florentine furniture, the commode of Marie de Médicis, the secretary of Henry IV., which he had found in Luynes during a journey in Touraine. Balzac supposed that these two pieces had been presented by Marie de Médicis to the Maréchal d'Ancre. He had also many beautiful pieces—magnificent old panels in carved wood—of the time of Henri II., of the time of Louis XIV. and Louis XV. Balzac was not much of a connoisseur in pictures, but he had the good fortune to find some good pictures of the eighteenth century in France; in Rome, he bought good Italian pictures, as well as a Holbein. We will say nothing of his many *bibelots*.

Balzac has spoken with much feeling of the dispersion of a collection in 'Cousin Pons.' The same fate awaited his own. In the commencement of 1847, he left for Russia, and was received by Mme. Hanska at her château. She was not yet ready to abandon her daughter, whom she thought too young for the administration of a great fortune. Balzac returned to France just in time to be a witness of the Revolution of 1848. This revolution was a great blow to him personally, as it caused perturbation in all his affairs. Literature suffered from politics, his health became affected by his numerous annoyances; the doctors discovered that he had heart disease. His marriage was delayed by the difficulty of obtaining the consent of the Emperor of Russia, and this could only be evaded by the complete donation of Mme. Hanska's estates to her children. Her irresolution came to an end when she saw how ill Balzac really was. His affection had lasted for seventeen years; she saw now this constant friend in a pitiable state of health, she consulted her heart more than her reason. He had fallen ill at her house in Ukraine. When he was well enough to think of travelling, she said to him: "You will not travel alone, you will take your wife with you."

The marriage was celebrated on the 14th of March, 1850, in presence of the Count and Countess Mniszech. On the 20th of August, 1850, Balzac died in Paris. His married life had lasted five months. The sister of Mme. Hanska was married to "Bibliophile Jacob" (M. Lacroix); she died about a year ago at the age of exactly one hundred years. M. Lacroix died a few years ago. In their apartment in the Rue de la Ville l'Évêque, which I visited a few weeks ago, are the few last remains of Balzac—his portrait, when he was young, the portrait of Mme. Hanska, an elderly lady, dressed in the fashion of 1830. Two old servants who had been in the house for many years showed me these remains almost with emotion, when they perceived that my sentiment was more than an idle curiosity. Mme. de Balzac herself died before her older sister, Mme. Lacroix. She lived to the end in the apartment in the Rue Fortunée, but she lived in great distress. She was very unregulated, if not extravagant. She pawned and sold, one after another, the fine objects collected by Balzac; and, after her death, at the beginning of 1882, whatever remained of the collection, and the house itself, were sold.

Correspondence.

THREE CASES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Mr. Goschen, the British Chancellor of the Exchequer, has just brought in the annual budget. The most remarkable thing about it is not the conversion of debt, as that, though it required coolness and nerve, was merely a question of price. Our own debt has been converted, though more easily, yet in the same way. Nor do I now raise the question as to the policy of paying debt or reducing taxation. What makes it of such interest is the ease and quietness and rapidity with which a year's finance is settled. Mr. Goschen, speaking exactly as if it were his private purse, calculates the balance of his income and expenditure within 2½ per cent. of the whole, and this is a large margin, as the calculation in some years runs as low as 1 per cent. or even less. With his surplus he proposes to take a penny off the income tax, but as that would require rather more, he takes an increase of certain assessed taxes. That is all there is of it. There is no committee to overhaul every year all the principles of taxation, and every branch of revenue and expenditure, throwing the country into a paroxysm of terror, and never coming to any intelligible conclusion at all. Mr. Gladstone and Mr. Morley may criticise the wisdom of this special action, but it is well understood that what the country needs in finance is quiet and a steady policy; that the man who has the responsibility must also have the power, and that Parliament must not interfere. Yet the responsibility is also sharply enforced, as in the case of the famous match-tax, which ruined the career of Mr. Robert Lowe as a financier. None but a first-class financier can hold the position, and a proved man of that type is allowed to have his own way. Mr. Goschen's success has done probably more than any one thing to strengthen the present Ministry.

Let us now cross the Channel. There are, or rather there were, two financial authorities in France, the Finance Minister and the Budget Commission, but the struggle which, of course, took place between them has ended in a complete victory for the latter. The life of ministries, which in the first years of the republic was counted by years, came down to months, then to weeks, and is now almost a question of days. Of course, a finance minister of this kind can have no policy. Each new incumbent submits his ideas, which the Budget Commission treats with contempt. But that Commission, like the dog in the manger, will neither let anybody else do anything nor do anything itself. It desires unlimited expenditure, but does not wish to impose taxes; is ambitious to revise the system of taxation, but fears that the hostility of interests newly taxed may outweigh the gratitude of others relieved; and so it goes on granting the Minister a month's continuance at a time of previous rates, and with a chronic deficit is drifting on towards Niagara. The disorder of public finance is extending also to private. First, there is the gigantic speculation which has undertaken to control all the copper in the world, and now De Lesseps's Panama lottery scheme, which was steadily refused by the Ministry as long as there was a ministry, seems in a fair way of being passed by the Chambers, if it has not already been, and with some prospect of involving a guarantee on the part of the Government. The Boulanger craze does not necessarily mean war, but may merely express the desire of the country to see somebody

at the head of the Government with the capacity to rule.

Coming now to this country, we find the Secretary of the Treasury in a legal position rather worse than that of the French Minister of Finance after defeat in a long conflict—that is to say, he has no power at all over financial policy, which is confessedly in the hands not merely of one, but of two committees of the House of Representatives, not to speak of two others of the Senate. Setting apart the external circumstances, have we anything to boast of in financial management over the French Chambers? Not merely as to the tariff, but as to banking, currency, and silver, the financial problems are among the most important for the future of this country, while our machinery for handling them is about the worst that could be devised.

There is nothing whatever, except the greed of Congress for power, to prevent our having the benefits of the English method, with this additional advantage, that as the President is elected by the people, and as the Secretary of the Treasury is his chosen agent, that official would not even be as dependent upon Congress as the Chancellor of the Exchequer is upon Parliament, and would, with the President and the country behind him, stand in a relation to Congress very different from that which has ended in the complete prostration of the French Ministry. G. B.

Boston, April 28, 1888.

THE STATE OF JAPAN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your article in the *Nation* of February 16, under the title of "Coercion in Japan," seems to me to do so much injustice to this country and its civilization that I am constrained, as a well-wisher of Japan who has gained some knowledge of her people by eight years of residence and constant intercourse, to ask the privilege of a few words upon the other side.

The occasion of the article, as your readers will remember, was the so-called "Law for the Preservation of Public Safety," the main point of which was the authority it gave to warn suspected persons off from the capital and put them under police surveillance. This certainly was a most extraordinary act, and it is not my purpose to defend it. Yet it must be said in justice upon the other side, that no one is in possession of the information which would show whether the law was necessary or not except the Government which promulgated it. Your statement that the law was applied to several hundred "children, boys, and men" would seem to any one who did not know Japan quite conclusive evidence of the enforcement of the law with most unnecessary harshness. But as a matter of fact the most dangerous class in Japan is its boys, even boys so young that without great inaccuracy they might be described as children. The advance in education has been so great that boys of fourteen or fifteen, who have been trained in the Government schools, are in most cases possessed of a good deal more knowledge of certain kinds than their parents. That they should be conceited, opinionated, and headstrong, goes without saying. Large numbers of the brightest of such boys are sent off at from fourteen to sixteen years of age to complete their education, usually in Tokio. Here they are possessed of an amount of liberty never thought of by young America in its wildest dreams. With a monthly allowance from their parents or friends, and absolute liberty in many or most cases to choose their own studies and their own schools, with all the Japanese boy's precocious interest in political and social questions, and extraordinary facility of speech, and with absolutely no ballast of experience or mature reflection, is it surprising if the Government has to look sharply after the "children and boys"?

But, passing by this, let us come to that general survey of the political state of Japan which forms the bulk of your article. And first for the general statement in your concluding paragraph—"The prospect of Japanese absolutism becoming a constitutional monarchy, or her people having any real share in the functions of government during this century, is now exceedingly remote." To which I reply, that the people of Japan already have a real share in the functions of government. For some years each prefecture has had a representative assembly, which absolutely controls all local (as distinct from imperial) taxation, and has full power to determine how the funds thus raised shall be used, subject, of course, to the general law of the empire. Appropriations for schools, roads, bridges, etc., are all made by these local assemblies. Six or seven years ago there was a good deal of dispute between the various prefects or governors and these assemblies over the annual appropriations. All these disputes have been quieted by the logic of events, which has shown clearly that in such matters the real power was in the hands of the people, and the prefects, in making their annual estimates, must calculate not what they would like to have, but what they are likely to get.

Besides these prefectural assemblies, there are councils having analogous powers in towns and villages. The property qualification for voters in the election of members of the former is the payment of a tax on real estate of $5 per annum; in the case of the village and town councils it is considerably less. That the movement is still in the same direction is shown by the fact that there are now measures pending in the Senate, and likely to be carried through, giving increased privileges of self-government to cities and making the mayors of towns and villages elective.

Another straw showing the movement of the current is shown in a case now pending in the Superior Court of this city. An election to fill a vacancy in the Assembly of a recent prefecture was recently held. Party spirit ran high. The sub-prefect who had the counting of the votes was of the minority party, and, if report be true, threw out, on the ground of mistake in the writing of a name, votes enough to elect his candidate, and reported to the prefect accordingly. The prefect accepted his report and declared his candidate elected. For this he has been indicted at the instance of the opposite party, and, appointee of the central Government though he is, must now stand his trial in the ordinary courts of law, for accepting and giving effect to the report of his subordinate. This is but one of many indications that the power of popular government as already established in Japan is growing stronger day by day.

What the new Parliament will be no one can yet say. That it will not be a mere sham is pretty evident from what has been already done. That it will wield from the start such power as that of the British Parliament is highly improbable, and also, it seems to me, highly undesirable. Surely no true friend of Japan can deliberately wish that her people should attain at one leap to liberties which it has taken the English race centuries to acquire and to learn how to use. If all that is acquired in 1890 is a parliament after the Prussian model, that surely ought to be enough for one year; and so much, added to what is gone before, of fulfilment of the Mikado's promise to form a government founded upon public opinion, should acquit Count Ito and his subordinates in the Cabinet of accusations of "rank treachery," or of "turning the imperial oath into perjury."

Passing by such an error of detail as that the present leaders of the Government have been "busy for years in crushing three great rebellions" (the only great rebellion was that of Saigō in 1877, crushed in nine months, the next in importance being only great enough to cost the people of Japan three cents apiece to put down), and passing to the representation in your article of the present political condition of this country, there is a curious air of anachronism about it, as if the article had been written by some one who had been in Japan fifteen or twenty years ago, and, while keeping up more or less since with the general course of outward events, had entirely failed to realize the immense change in spirit which these years have brought. Assassination or beheading may be the "Asiatic method of asking for the resignation of obnoxious Cabinet officers," but it is certainly not the method now or lately in vogue in Japan. Of recent Ministers of State, Kuroda, in 1882 or thereabouts, and Inouye, in 1887, were driven from office by popular opinion—the former for alleged corruption, the latter for too great concessions to foreign Powers in the negotiations for treaty revision; but neither has met with any tragical fate. Okuma, Itagaki, Tani, and Soyeshima are names of some who have quietly withdrawn because of disagreement with the party in power, Okuma and Itagaki becoming leaders respectively of the moderate and advanced Liberals. There has been no instance of a Cabinet Minister beheaded since the revolution which established the Mikado's Government in 1868, and no beheading of anybody since that form of punishment was abolished in 1873. Capital punishment in any form is now reserved for cases of high treason, murder, and sometimes arson, and can be inflicted in no case whatever except by due process of law, through the agency of the courts, as is the case also with all punishment for felony. A good instance (one out of many) of the absence of blood-thirstiness in the treatment of political offenders is Mr. Mutsu. He was convicted of complicity in Saigō's rebellion, condemned to five years' imprisonment, released at the end of two years and a half, in eighteen months more put into office, and now goes to represent his country as Minister at Washington.

As for removal of ministers by assassination, there were three cases in the years immediately succeeding the revolution of 1868. But these are in no sense indicative of the present condition of the country. Since then there has been an attempt on the life of Iwakura in 1874, and the assassination of Okubo in 1878, and that is all—not enough, surely, to give occasion for any special airs of superiority on the part of a country which has lost two Presidents by assassination in twenty-three years.

For other points in your article: the heavy taxation is hardly to be avoided in a country which has had to provide itself *ab initio* with the appliances of modern civilization. The refusal of foreign Powers to allow Japan to levy any but nominal import duties makes the burden heavier by placing it all upon domestic products. It is true that a good many millions are spent on the army and navy, but is not that excusable in a country which has

at her back Russia, to whom Yezo would be so great a prize? It is true, also, that the general Government spends comparatively little on education, but then it must be remembered that all primary, secondary, and normal schools, with a number of medical schools besides, are supported by the local authorities, and that the school system so supported compares favorably with that of the most advanced nations.

Surveying the whole field, I cannot see that there would be any special danger in at once placing American citizens here under Japanese law. For my own part, I would far rather be under the jurisdiction of the courts of Japan than those of a good many countries in which we make no claim of extra-territorial jurisdiction.—Respectfully yours, T. S. Tyng.

Osaka, Japan, March 27, 1888.

VILLAGE COMMUNITIES AND THEIR NEEDS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Each summer the wealth and culture of our cities are brought in contact with the class who have always been the bone and sinew of this as well as of every other land. It has been and is our opportunity. How are we using it? What do we leave behind us besides our money? In a few instances the duty has been recognized to the extent of adding a few books to the village library or of raising a subscription for the clergyman or his wife. Should it stop here?

This is not an appeal for almsgiving, nor for the founding of an institution. It is an appeal to the thoughtful to devise means by which the energies of the people can be so directed that, while the families preserve their individuality and dwell apart, the members of each family may have more reward for their labor, and attainable objects for their ambition.

Fifty years ago there was less difference than now between the farmer's son and the merchant's or banker's son, both in facilities for training their faculties and in the opportunities for exercising their powers when trained. As towns grow into cities, educational advantages increase, but so also does the cost of living. The farmer's dollar comes no faster than it used to come, but it used to go further in getting board for the son or daughter who came to the schools or colleges of our towns. In a letter of Mr. Longfellow's, dated February 7, 1825, he estimates his expenses for a proposed post-graduate course at Harvard thus: "The only charge is $1 per quarter for the use of the library. Room rent is from $30 to $50 per year, and board from $2 to $3 per week. The expenses for one year will not be very great—$184 I suppose to be about a fair calculation" (vol. i, p. 59). Now President Eliot puts from $500 to $800 a year as the lowest estimate of necessary expenses at the same college. Is not this a reason why foundations or scholarships or prizes should be established in country districts, to be competed for by the children of the schools, and which, when gained, should enable the possessor to choose a higher school or college wherein to carry on his education? Let the prize be a stated sum paid quarterly, through a year or two or three, and let the one who earns it choose the place where he is to spend it. There is no degradation in receiving aid that has been already won by effort, and the effort once made is the best assurance that it will be made again. Scholarships in colleges are good, no doubt, but the young men would better earn them by what they have already done in schools than by what they promise or hope to do if they are given the opportunity. In England there seem to be a number of these foundations.

Education does not, however, solve all problems. A dozen years spent in a small rural community enables the writer to assert confidently that more handicrafts of the lighter sort are greatly needed. The gain would be very great if the element of beauty could also be added to the employment. Life is very monotonous in a village, and there are but few ways of gratifying the artistic instinct, which of late has been over-stimulated in both town and country without being wisely guided in either. Is there no one of leisure and of taste in our cities who yet retains enough practical knowledge of men and of affairs to come forward with a well-thought-out scheme for employing the energies of the family without removing the individual members from the household? Among the mountains of New Hampshire the women still spin and weave the wool taken from the sheep that have been raised on the hillsides. Can they not be instructed in the combination of colors, or in the producing of dyes that may make their cloth both more attractive and more salable than it now is? Will not young women aid in the work by wearing in the villages the cloth that has been produced there?

Might not schools or classes for the instruction of men and boys in woodcarving be established? Give them models to train their eyes, and tell them what is wanted in the hand-carved woodwork of our houses. Let them cut the timber from their own farms and work it in their own barns. The water that runs down the mountain can take the place of steam, when power is needed to reduce the log to the needed shape. A few lectures on the time of cutting down the tree and the seasoning of the wood, some object lessons in carving, and an assured market for the result of their labor, ought very soon to turn a whittling Yankee into a prosperous artisan in the working of wood. A traditional chamois perched on an impossible rock might not be attained for years, but many of us would be content to wait æons for it if we were assured that a more useful and practical industry were arising among our forests.

There is one mode of increasing the income of the inhabitants of the mountains that I protest against. It hurts my pride as an American to see a child of parents who have been born on the soil, hold out a few miserable apples in one hand and a cap in the other to receive an alms, or to have the gate opened for a guerdon, when one drives through the farm, by a child who ceases to watch for one's return if the guerdon has been paid. The right of a farmer to receive compensation for a way through his fields to a view point, should be recognized; but let him keep his road in order, and exact a fair and fixed toll at the entrance, instead of turning his children into sharpers or beggars. Such training may be admirable for a future book agent or a peddler or a ward politician, but it was not in this way that Lincoln and Garfield fitted themselves to be statesmen and leaders and finally Presidents. M. N. S.

EXTREMES MEET.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the notice of Mr. Adolphus Trollope's Reminiscences that appeared lately in the *Nation*, your reviewer quotes a grim story of Garibaldi's saying—

"As for the priests, they ought all to be put to death without hesitation, and without delay. 'Rather a strong measure,' I venture to say. 'Not a bit too strong, not a bit,' he rejoined warmly. 'Do we not put assassins to death? And is not the man who murders your soul worse than the man who only kills your body?'"

It is pretty to notice, as Mr. Pepys might say, how exactly this argument of an advanced modernist coincides with the reasoning of the Angelical Doctor in his justification of the burning of heretics. This is the way St. Thomas Aquinas puts it in the *Summa 2da, 2dae, quaest*, xi, *art.* 3:

"Multo enim grauius est corrumpere fidem, per quam est animae vita, quam falsare pecuniam, per quam temporali vitae subuenitur. Unde si falsarii pecuniae vel alii malefactores statim per saeculares principes juste morti traduntur; multo magis haeretici statim, ex quo de haeresi convincuntur, possunt non solum excommunicari, sed et juste occidi."

H. W. Fay.

Westborough, Mass., April 27, 1888.

Notes.

D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, have in press 'Chemical Problems,' by Drs. Grabfield and Burns, of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology.

W. S. Gottsberger will shortly publish 'Poems,' by Rose Terry Cooke; and 'From Lands of Exile,' from the French of "Pierre Loti," by Clara Bell.

The next of the American Commonwealths series published by Houghton, Mifflin & Co. will be 'Missouri,' by Lucien Carr.

A History of Germany in two volumes, octavo, by Theodore S. Fay, formerly U. S. Minister to Switzerland, is about to be put to press by A. S. Barnes & Co.

Thomas Whittaker announces 'The Names of God in Holy Scripture,' by Andrew Jukes.

John Richard Green's 'Short History of the English People' has been translated into French by M. Auguste Monod, and will soon be published by Plon & Nourrit in two octavo volumes. M. Gabriel Monod, the editor of the *Revue Historique*, has written an introduction to the work, which is given in the *Revue Bleue* of April 7, under the title: "La France et l'Angleterre; leur développement historique, leur génie, et leurs institutions." This is a short and clear exposition of what M. Monod calls "the historical circumstances and material conditions" which have made of the two races, so similar in many of their original elements, nations now so different from each other in most of their characteristics and institutions.

Under the title of 'Civilization in the United States: First and Last Impressions of America,' Cupples & Hurd, Boston, have grouped in book form the late Matthew Arnold's estimate of Gen. Grant, based upon the latter's Autobiography; his "Word about America," and "Word More about America," and final "Civilization in the United States." The order, as will be observed, is not chronological, and the publishers have omitted to indicate when and where these several papers appeared, or to give the dates of Mr. Arnold's visits to this country. The collection, therefore, is not quite so fair to Mr. Arnold or so instructive to his readers as it might easily have been made.

What Mr. Robert Browning calls "the present and final edition" of his poetical works has begun to be issued by Macmillan & Co., in an unpretentious but well-printed and very handy form. The first volume contains "Pauline" and "Sordello," and, after twenty years' endurance of the former poem in its original crude and boyish state, Mr. Browning

has felt justified in mending and strengthening its style. The type of this edition is admirably large and clear.

From the volume, 'A Comtist Lover, and Other Studies,' Elizabeth Rachel Chapman has extracted for separate publication her analysis of Tennyson's "In Memoriam" ('A Companion to In Memoriam.' Macmillan). We should ourselves be somewhat shy of joining in the "cordial reception" which the author tells us has been accorded to this prose argument. A test of her capacity for the task may, we think, be found in her selecting from the stanzas, "Ring out, wild bells," the "grieving overmuch for those gone before" as the chief evil to be rung out with the dying year.

We praised last year, and are glad to praise again, the well-devised 'Vacation Journal: a Diary of Outings from May until November, with Hints and Information for Tourists' (A. D. F. Randolph & Co.). It is a pretty and a useful volume for pocket or satchel, with poetical extracts for each day, names and addresses, botanical descriptions, tennis laws, etc. Under June we notice that a stanza from the "Ancient Mariner" is ascribed to Whittier.

'Walks in Paris' and 'Days Near Paris' (New York: George Routledge & Sons) are two more of those semi-literary guide-books with which the name of Augustus J. C. Hare is associated. They are pleasantly written, and give a quantity of useful and interesting information and a large amount of more or less apposite and more or less edifying quotation. The illustrations, from the author's own sketches, are pretty and truthful. It is to be regretted that there is no indication of the date of writing. In matters such as the arrangement of works of art in the great galleries this is of importance. To an old haunter of the Louvre the arrangement of the pictures as given by Mr. Hare sometimes seems unfamiliar, and one asks one's self in vain whether his description is that of an earlier or of a later arrangement than the one remembered. In one instance Mr. Hare is certainly out of date. The magnificent "Victory of Samothrace" is no longer in the Salle des Cariatides; it is now some years since, with the addition of the wings and other fragments, it was set upon its original prow-shaped pedestal at the head of one of the grand staircases, where its effect is indescribably impressive. Mr. Hare's selection of works of art for mention is of the usual guide-book kind, and it is natural that one should find Murillo's trivial "Immaculate Conception" marked with the conventional star, and followed by the conventional mention of its price; but how did it happen that there is no mention whatever of one of the supreme *chefs d'œuvre* of the collection, the "Antiope" of Correggio?

The fifty-fifth issue in "Morley's Universal Library" (Routledge) is W. M. Praed's 'Essays,' a first collected edition of this writer's prose. In the humbler series (in size and style of production only) likewise conducted by Prof. Morley, "Cassell's National Library," we can now enumerate Bishop Jewel's 'Apology of the Church of England,' Don Manoel Gonzales's 'London in 1731,' the first volume of Sir John Malcom's charming 'Sketches of Persia,' Spenser's 'Shepherds' Calendar,' with a comparison of Clement Marot's Eclogues of Pan and Robin; and Shakspere's "Much Ado About Nothing," with much helpful elucidation, including the well-known tale from Ariosto's 'Orlando Furioso.'

A school edition of "Much Ado About Nothing," with notes and a glossary, edited by K. Deighton (Macmillan), is on our table with other text-books hardly more than to be named at this time—a comely edition of Wordsworth's 'Prelude' (D. C. Heath & Co.), edited by Prof. A. J. George of Boston University; 'Atalanta's Race, and Other Tales from the Early Paradise by William Morris' (Ticknor & Co.), edited by Oscar Fay Adams and W. J. Rolfe, with notes, woodcuts, and a portrait; Scott's 'Lay of the Last Minstrel,' edited in Ginn & Co.'s series of "Classics for Children" by Mrs. Margaret Andrews Allen; Alexander E. Frye's 'The Child and Nature, or Geography Teaching with Sand Modelling' (Hyde Park, Mass.: Bay State Publishing Co.), a suggestive if in some ways a rather fantastic book; 'Geography of the British Isles,' by Archibald Geikie (Macmillan), a miniature school-book, useful on this side of the water principally as a supplement to our own geographies—poor enough, as a rule; and 'Erzählungen aus der Deutschen Geschichte, für Schule und Haus' (Henry Holt & Co.), by Josepha Schrakamp—judicious selections from standard German historians, with notes.

We gave a few months ago a review of the new and fine edition of Gillespie's 'Surveying,' published under the editorial supervision of Prof. Staley of the Cass School of Applied Science. Prof. Carhart, who fills the chair of Civil Engineering in the Western University of Pennsylvania, and his publishers (Ginn & Co.) seem to have thought that there was still room for another work at least in the department of "Plane Surveying." Certainly neither author nor publishers have spared any pains to produce a book worthy of the patronage of the profession. We notice two new features in the work. F. H. Robinson, C.E., formerly a colleague of Prof. Carhart, and now City Engineer of Wilmington, Del., contributes a chapter on city surveying. Chief-Justice Cooley of Michigan treats of the "Judicial Functions of Surveyors," in a chapter of great interest not only to the profession, but to the public at large. Justice Cooley, in very pleasant but very decided language, reminds surveyors that in surveying private property their duty is to find the old metes and bounds, not to establish new ones; and though a modern surveyor with his more refined methods may be able to demonstrate that an old surveyor a half century ago was considerably "out" in his courses and distances, yet, in a court of law, long and peaceful acquiescence is worth a great deal more than refined calculation. We have seldom seen a scientific book of which the make-up was more pleasing to the eye, or which promised to be more serviceable.

Prof. Kalogeras of Athens has just published (1887), for the first time, the Commentary of the Greek Father Euthymius Zigabenus (or Zygadenus), who died about A. D. 1118, on the Epistles. We have long had his valuable work on the Gospels, a copious but less helpful commentary on the Psalms, and some dogmatic and controversial works. The new publication, making 1,350 octavo pages, is a quite important addition, giving commentary upon all the Epistles of Paul and upon the seven General Epistles. The work is of much the same character as that on the Gospels, being largely founded on Chrysostom and his school, whose views are tersely and in general clearly stated, but giving also a good deal that appears to be original. The editor has laid the whole world of New Testament interpreters under obligations by issuing this carefully and clearly printed publication. Along with many honorary offices, as Archbishop, Professor of Theology in the University of Athens, etc., his chief task is to be tutor to the Greek Prince Constantine, to whom he addresses (in Greek) a copious and amusingly eulogistic dedication.

The most frequent subjects of the dramatic literature of the sixteenth century are the stories of Susanna, the Prodigal Son, and Joseph. Alexander von Weilen, in 'Der Aegyptische Joseph im Drama des xvi. Jahrhunderts,' records eight Latin and nineteen German plays, composed from 1534 to 1625, that are occupied with the legend of Joseph. Crocus, the Dutch Jesuit, published a play in 1536, which served in a measure as a model to the principal religious play writers of this period, the Alsatian Gart, Macropedius, and Voidius. The piece by Gart has within a short time been edited by Erich Schmidt. One curious play mentioned by Weilen has for title "Josephine vendu (*sic*) par ses sœurs."

From the Permanent Secretary of the American Association for the Advancement of Science at Salem, Mass., we have the customary annual volume of Proceedings, recording the thirty-sixth meeting last August in this city. The address of Prof. E. S. Morse, the retiring President, is given in full, while the various papers read are usually summarized or simply indicated by title. There is a full list of all the meetings held by this peripatetic Association since September 20, 1848, and by its forerunner, the American Association of Geologists and Naturalists.

Mr. Sidney S. Rider does a good service in his (Providence) *Book Notes* for April 28, by tracing the history of the suffrage in Rhode Island down to the recent revolutionary Constitutional Amendment. He points out that the qualification of the possession of ratable property proceeded fnom the King of England and not from the Colonial General Assembly; that it was retained in Dorr's People's Charter of 1842, and is now retained when the object of the vote is to impose a tax or for the expenditure of money. Mr. Rider prints side by side the new amendment and the corresponding sections from Dorr, and gives some curious facts concerning the latter's rough draft, now in the editor's possession. The adoption of the more liberal amendment is the avenging of Dorr. As illustrating the fraudulent voting engendered by the old restrictions on suffrage, Mr. Rider tells of the practice, on the part of political leaders, of dividing lots of land into pieces, and giving recorded deeds for them at each election to voters who used the deeds at the polls and immediately returned them for cancellation.

Some interesting tables, comparing the wages paid in France for certain classes of labor in 1853 with those paid in 1884, are given in the *Revue Scientifique* for April 7. In the whole country, exclusive of Paris, the wages "pour la petite industrie" have increased from 1 fr. 89 to 3 fr. 17, or an increase of nearly 66 per cent.; the wages of the women being about half that of the men. In Paris, for the same class of labor, 3 fr. 81 was paid in 1853, against 5 fr. 84 in 1884 for men, 2 fr. 12 at the former period and 2 fr. 90 at the latter for women—an increase of 53 and 37 per cent. respectively. The wages "pour la grande industrie" can only be compared for four years, and the changes have been slight. Women's wages in these classes have fallen in Paris from 2 fr. 67 to 2 fr. 58, but in the country they have risen from 1 fr. 76 to 1 fr. 79. The wages of engineers ("ouvriers chargés de la marche des moteurs") in Paris have increased from 5 fr. 61 to 5 fr. 71; in the departments from 3 fr. 96 to 4 fr. 04.

The principal article in the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for April is Mr. J. Y. Buchanan's account of his explorations in the Gulf of Guinea. The article is illustrated by dia-

grams and numerous tables showing the temperature of the water at different depths. The discussion of the Welle-Makua problem is continued by Mr. J. T. Wills. According to the *Mouvement Géographique*, this question has been finally settled by Capt. Van Gèle, an officer of the Congo Free State, who professes to have traced the Mobangi or Ubangi to a point where he was able to prove its identity with the Welle-Makua of Schweinfurth and Junker. This report, however, needs confirmation.

The April Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society opens with a description of a 'Journey into the interior of Labrador' by Mr. R. F. Holme. Not only has this country never been explored, but very few white men have ever crossed it in either direction. Mr. Holme himself was unable to get more than 150 miles from the coast, on account of the failure of his provisions. The interior presents a sharp contrast to the coast both in appearance and climate. The barren, cold region of the seaboard ceases about twelve miles from the water, and a luxuriant forest growth begins, which extends over the whole country "with the exception of a few spots, chiefly towards the north, called 'barrens,'" which are the home of vast herds of cariboo. The inhabitants, exclusive of a few Europeans, are Esquimaux, who live entirely on the coast, and the Cree Indians, who inhabit the forests. These latter are probably the nearest approach to the original North American red man now existing, as they have little intercourse with the whites and are protected from the demoralization of drunkenness by stringent prohibitory liquor laws. In the summer about 30,000 fishermen are to be found on these coasts. Mr. Holme expresses deep regret at being obliged to turn back when within fifty miles of the Grand Falls, which he believes "in some respects to be the most stupendous falls in the world." The centre of Labrador is a plateau estimated to be nearly 2,500 feet above the sea level, and the waters of a chain of lakes fall, it is conjectured, the greater part of this height at a single leap. They have been seen, and that many years ago, by only two white men.

The Chinese Government is making strenuous exertions to promote tree culture, both with the hope of preventing droughts and the disastrous floods, and to check the wanton destruction of trees by which once fertile tracts are made barren. A proclamation has been issued in the Province of Chi-li, in which Peking is situated, giving "eight directions for tree plantation," in which are minute instructions as to the choice of trees and the methods of planting, and "ten benefits to be derived from the same" —from the sale of timber and fruits, the increase of the rainfall, the purification of the atmosphere, etc., and the furnishing of shade to travellers and families.

—Since English poets left off the habit of writing occasional Latin verses, there has been no instance of such highly artificial work as the character of Pope contributed by Austin Dobson to the current *Scribner's*. The lines are a clever imitation superficially; but if one thinks what Pope would have been capable of, with such a man to dissect as he himself was, Mr. Dobson's amiable epigrams grow vapid. Of course he does not mean to write in Pope's spirit, but with his manner—so much is to be said; yet this is a weak defence. How easy it is to write in Pope's manner, the poetasters who imitated him attest; and really, if one disregards the antiquated printing of these lines, and looks at them without dashes and italics and capitals, they are not much to be preferred to those perishable couplets a hundred years ago. They are no more like Pope than the Latinists were like Horace. Is it possible, too, that the band of bards to which Mr. Dobson belongs will remain for ever in ignorance that their mutual paying of compliments is, to the barbarians of the outer world, an inexpressibly comic trait of the coterie? Since Mr. Stevenson paid his tribute to Mr. Lang as him "of the brindled hair," one thinks they might begin to have an inkling that the Rabelais Club is the place for that sort of amusement. The essay which accompanies these verses is only a tolerable encyclopædia article; it is neither a study of character nor a criticism, and is without even that freshness of turn which is all the subject, thus treated, admits of. The remainder of the number is very excellent as a whole. Mr. Longfellow's paper on the decoration of Greek vases is full of valuable suggestions for the American artists who are interested in this form of ornamentation. The article upon modern explosives is well done, being comprehensive, definite, and interesting, and not too technical. Mr. Stimson's novel—the most notable serial now running—continues its curious intermixture of serious thought and light worldliness. The illustration of the number is especially to be praised.

—The anonymous contributor of the article on "The Anglo-American Copyright Question," in the *Westminster Review* for March, writes in a tone of grievance, due, it seems, to Mr. Brander Matthews's papers concerning "American Authors and British Pirates," published in the *New Princeton Review* for September, 1887, and January, 1888. The writer, after quoting several pages of the examples given by Mr. Matthews of the treatment of American authors by the piratical publishers of England (with no attempt, be it said to his credit, to palliate or excuse the wrongdoing of the latter), and admitting "that an author whose books are pirated, and, it may be, mutilated at the same time, suffers a serious injury," still considers that the hardships complained of are largely exaggerated. He also thinks that the difficulty, as well as the expense, encountered in securing a British copyright for the American author's work is overestimated. "The great majority of authors live in cities and large towns," he argues, "and most of the centres of population in the American Union are in the northern part of it; moreover, railway travelling in the United States is reasonably cheap," and as the stay in Canada need not exceed a few days at no great expense, the conclusion he arrives at is, "that the number of American authors who are debarred from obtaining a British copyright by their inability to bear the cost of doing so, must be very small."

—It is difficult, doubtless, for an Englishman to realize that a trip to the nearest point in Canada from Washington or St. Louis, or any other place as far South, would cost quite as much in time and money as a journey from London to some city in Germany, and would involve more discomfort, with little compensation by the way. We fancy that a proposal to require such a journey upon the part of an English author for each book he might desire to copyright in Germany would not be viewed with complacency. It should not be overlooked, moreover, as it seems to be in this case, that it is not only this expensive and irksome journey which is required of the American author, but that he shall have a reputation sufficiently well established to enable him to secure a publisher for his work in London as well as one in the United States. The possibility of securing some sort of English copyright for his book by going to Canada, and the enjoyment by the American author—together with the other citizens of the United States—of the works of European writers at the low prices made possible by piracy, "far outweigh," says this writer, "any pecuniary loss or literary mutilation he may suffer at the hands of the 'British pirate.'" When the American author, upon bringing his book to a publisher, learns that he must expect the sale of only a limited number of copies, because the latter has already supplied the popular demand by reprinting a similar work (which he had for the taking) by some celebrated English author, he is not likely to find consolation in the fact that he, like other American readers (who might possibly have been *his* readers), may secure a copy of his rival's book at a trifling price. Nor do we think that even the knowledge that he can obtain protection in England for his book will lead him to agree with this writer that "American authors are the most fortunate authors in the world."

—The volume of the Archives of Maryland published before the close of last year covers the period from 1667 to 1689 inclusive. The large gap in the Proceedings of the Council of Maryland has been supplied by documents from the Public Record Office, London, of great value and interest. The regulation of intercourse with the Nanticoke Indians, who were a source both of fear and of annoyance through the border ruffianism of the lower whites, is twice confirmed in this volume by treaties with their "Emperor." In each instance they were bound to deliver up runaway apprentices and slaves. The old habit of "not talking turkey" to the Indian is reflected in the phraseology relating to the treaty of 1687, with its supplementary article, "that if any Indian commits an offence against the English he should be tried by the English law, and if an Englishman commit an offence against an Indian he should be tried by the same law." Noteworthy in 1676 are the somewhat excessive "Queryes about Maryland" of the Lords of the Committee of Trade and Plantations, and the far from categorical replies of Lord Baltimore, in which occurs a curious passage concerning a question already raised in these Archives, viz., the baptism of negroes. Maryland, he says, had been infected with the notion prevailing in other colonies that baptism meant manumission, "to the Dammage of the Masters and Owners as if their said servants were actually Dead." Hence a law was made to encourage baptisms by pointing out that in England formerly villeins got no such benefit as enfranchisement from the rite—with good effect, "all Masters generally since the makeing of this Lawe haveing beene willing to Instruct those kynde of Servants in the ffayth of Christ and to bring them to desyre and receive Baptisme."

—Calvert's answer to the twenty-third and twenty-fourth inquiries was, "that the greatest Obstruction of the Trade of this Provynce is what the late Acts of Parliament made in England for Navigation have occasioned, the removeing of which is not to be expected untill it be for the Interest of England to remove them." He was himself shortly brought up against these Acts in connection with the duty on tobacco, and made to eat humble pie by reinstating as Collector of Customs one Christopher Rousby, who got off to England and lodged complaint against Baltimore, carrying a very high head, and saying of charges of immorality against himself, that "it is a way of writing made easy to his Lo'p by his practise, . . . though his Lo'p have no cause or

ground for the same but hopes that casting much Dirt some might stick to work his ends against us." Rousby went back and was murdered by Col. George Talbot. A sample of the fetters of the Navigation Acts is given on page 447. A good deal of light is thrown upon Claiborne's trading venture and settlement on the contested Isle of Kent, and upon Capt. Josias Fendall's sedition trial; much, too, on the early boundary dispute with William Penn. In connection with depositions favorable to Claiborne, we meet with the name of William Blizard; and still odder is that of Alexander D'hynoyossa, who so far forgot his lineage as to stab "with a knife Mr. Wells in the belly." Historic is the name of Michael Taney, gent., in 1687 high sheriff of Calvert County. As he is indexed by the editors for page 502, we conclude that the "Nich. Taney" of Calvert County therein mentioned is a typographical or clerical error for Michael. We read in 1681 of "Clark of the Councill John Llewellin (who writes shorthand)," and the Fendall trial is a good example of reporting, whoever did it. The antiquarian humor of this volume is not great, but here and there one smiles at a turn of expression like this: "They said they would be att Palmers Island by that tyme corne was halfe legg high"; or this, of a ship surveyed for seaworthiness, and found to have "suffered much wrong by the worms of this Country both in the Keele," etc.

—Among recent American contributions to the promotion of historical study, the 'Brief Institutes of General History,' by Prof. E. B. Andrews of Brown University, deserves especial commendation (Boston: Silver, Rogers & Co.). It is not a text-book in the common sense of the term, but rather a handbook for the teacher or somewhat advanced student. The plan is one that is more familiar to German than to American readers. The book consists of eleven chapters—one introductory, on the nature, science, and philosophy of history, and the ten following on as many periods or general topics; for example, the Old East, the Classical Period, the Mediæval Roman Empire of the West, Renaissance and Reformation, Prussia and the New Empire. Each chapter is furnished with a very judiciously selected bibliography, and each section of the chapters with special references to the best sources of information. These sections consist of text and notes. The text is somewhat similar in character to the German *dictata*, *e. g.*, Droysen's 'Historik,' or, in other words, to the main propositions of a lecture; the notes, on the other hand, comprise much valuable illustrative and statistical matter, such as exact dates, strength of military forces, summaries of noteworthy special investigations on contested points. A companion volume, which we have not seen, is devoted to English and American constitutional history. We feel no hesitation in warmly commending Prof. Andrews's book to teachers and students. It bears on every page the stamp of careful research and vigorous thinking.

—The new interest in the Scandinavian discovery of America has manifested itself in two characteristic books, which are at variance with each other, while both are permeated with the most vagrant sort of an unhistorical spirit. That of Miss Marie A. Brown, which in the present issue bears her own imprint at Boston, and is called 'The Icelandic Discoverers of America,' may be dismissed as the creation of an almost disordered mind, for in its captiousness it obscures the essential elements of the whole question. The other, in its wealth of cartographical adornment and sumptuousness of page, will carry the name of Eben Norton Horsford, as the author of the 'Discovery of America by Northmen,' wherever these adventitious aids can find for it acceptance in the libraries of the world, as seeming to express the results of American scholarship. Unfortunately, the American scholar has nothing to do with this manifestation in his behalf. The question which is dealt with is not a very complex one. Did the Northmen, having passed from Scandinavia to Iceland, thence to Greenland, hesitate to push their adventurous vessels further, and did they accordingly cross Davis's Straits, and pass on down the coasts of North America? There is only an occasional dissenter, among historical students, from the affirmative of this proposition; but when it comes to the identification of localities, to determining where the Northmen picked grapes, where they beached a ship, where they built a booth, and where they buried a companion, the trained student, accustomed to deal with historical evidence, finds the details of the sagas too susceptible of a varied interpretation to feel any confidence in decisive judgment. It is those who make no hesitation at perversion, and ignore everything that does not serve their purpose, who find clearness in obscurity, and decisiveness everywhere. If historical problems are to be settled thus, there is no need of training the judgment. Every historical subject, in some stage of its progress through the ages, passes similar ordeals. Searchers of historical libraries find here and there on their shelves not a few of just such over-confident determinations. Such questions as the Northwestern Passage and the Straits of Anian have always invited this audacious kind of inquiry. Then as now there were over-confident views, and the spending of money in quarto editions. The resulting books are more significant at present in the study of psychology than in the elucidation of the problem to which they were addressed.

—Macmillan & Co. send us two new elementary text-books on Physics. The one, 'Outlines of Natural Philosophy for Schools and General Readers,' is by Prof. Everett of Queen's College, Belfast, the author of the work on 'Units and Physical Constants,' which was first published by the Physical Society of London, and which is indispensable to every teacher of physics. Everything from the pen of so distinguished a physicist as Prof. Everett is worthy of respectful consideration; but as a text-book for beginners, we think some of our American works are superior to the 'Outlines,' and as a general reading-book we should prefer the elementary treatise of the late Prof. Stewart. The book is very handsomely got up, contains more than two hundred illustrations, and contains no mathematical formulæ whatever. The other book is the first volume of an abridgment of the 'Practical Physics' of Stewart and Gee made by the authors. The first two volumes of the latter work were recently reviewed in our columns, and nearly everything said in that review is applicable to the present volume, which, in an abridged and condensed form, covers the same ground, viz., the processes of physical measurement and experiments in electricity and magnetism. Teachers in such educational institutions as possess the necessary apparatus will find here a course of experiments probably quite as extensive as they will desire. There are two or three interesting points about the book. The frontispiece consists of two parallel scales in close proximity, so that they are easily comparable, the one inches and their subdivisions in halves, quarters, and eighths, the other centimetres and their subdivisions in millimetres. As paper contracts slightly with age, such scales cannot be depended upon for absolute accuracy, but when, as in this case, they are both printed on the same leaf, their relations to each other remain the same, and their utility for purposes of comparison remains unaffected by the contraction. Another very interesting point is the representation, by three full-page plates, of the ground plan and fixtures of the physical laboratories of three of the principal English schools, the Manchester and the Hulme grammar schools, and the Blairlodge school at Polmont. These are accompanied by the necessary explanations, and should be of service to such institutions in this country as are so fortunate as to possess the means of adding a laboratory to their other aids to instruction. A third point is a "Price List of Apparatus and Materials" for fitting up a laboratory. The prices in England are, of course, of little use as guides in this country, but the list of articles is of interest to every one engaged in making physical experiments.

THE WAGNER-LISZT CORRESPONDENCE.

Briefwechsel zwischen Wagner und Liszt, 1841-1861. 2 vols. Leipzig: Breitkopf & Härtel. 1887.

It has long been known that Wagner's most intimate and influential friend, before the King of Bavaria extended his patronage to him, was Franz Liszt; but it remained for the publication of the private correspondence between the two composers to reveal the full significance of Liszt's services. Without King Ludwig the Bayreuth Festival could never have been given; but without Liszt's material assistance and spiritual encouragement it is doubtful if the Nibelung Trilogy would ever have been composed. It would be impossible to find, even in the ancient classical era of friendship, an example of more absolute and ardent devotion than in the attachment between Wagner and Liszt. Wagner himself compares it to the intimacy of Goethe and Schiller, in a letter dated 1856: "I have found much to edify me in the Goethe-Schiller correspondence; it put me in mind of our own relations, and suggested the precious results which might spring from them under more favorable conditions." It cannot be said that this correspondence is of such *varied* interest as that of Schiller and Goethe; but within its own sphere it is as fascinating and of as great biographic value as any collection of letters ever published. The letters are arranged according to their dates, each one being followed by its answer, although in not a few cases the answer is absent, having either been lost or suppressed by Wagner's widow, who is supposed to have edited the collection. It is not known whether another volume is to follow. Material for such no doubt exists; for although there was a temporary estrangement between the two great musicians, they subsequently became as intimate as ever.

Wagner's letters are not only more numerous but much longer than Liszt's, making up at least two-thirds of the two volumes. At first they are infrequent and formal; but the "Honored sir" and "Sie" are soon exchanged for the cordial "Dearest friend" and "Du"; and finally it becomes "Dein deinster Liszt." In 1849 Wagner wishes to thank Liszt for being the first conductor who had thought fit to produce his "Tannhäuser," after it had been neglected for four years following its first performance. This friendly deed, he adds, was the more agreeable to him because the intendant of the Dresden theatre had just conducted himself with such insulting insolence towards

him that he had been on the point of giving up a position and an art which subjected him to such indignities. In reply, Liszt gives rapturous expression to his admiration for "Tannhäuser," and adds: "Once for all, count me among your most ardent and devoted admirers; depend upon me, and dispose of my services." And never has a promise been more nobly kept. Liszt does not often dwell in his letters on his personal annoyances and drudgeries, but there is enough to show that his life was not such a bed of roses as it is commonly supposed to have been, and as it doubtless was while he celebrated his triumphs as a pianist in every European capital. But when he assumed the functions of an operatic conductor and composer at Weimar, the petty troubles of public life did not spare him. Even his income was hardly more than sufficient for himself and family. Nevertheless, he was always ready to extend a helping hand to Wagner, who was constantly in want of money and had no one to appeal to but Liszt. Liszt gave him part of his own slender income, and exerted his influence in getting contributions from aristocratic and other patrons of art.

Wagner has been censured for the persistency of his pecuniary appeals to Liszt; but there was really nothing else for him to do, except to give up composing, which Liszt would never have permitted him to do. The circumstances under which Wagner lived must be taken into account. He was a political exile from Germany, where alone he could have made a living by utilizing his accomplishments as a conductor; and the Saxon authorities went so far in their persecution of him as to throw impediments in the way of his going even to Italy or France as late as ten years after his flight. His only source of income was from the sale of his early works to various German opera-houses; but for these he received very small sums—twenty to thirty Louis d'or for each—and the *tantièmes* did not amount to much, as the operas were but rarely performed at first. The very uncertainty of this source of income tormented Wagner. It was, as he complained, too much like a lottery; and the constant worry as to whether he should have anything to eat tomorrow for his wife and himself tended to destroy that mood of happy artistic exaltation in which alone he could compose. The work he was engaged in—the composing of the gigantic Trilogy—was *the most impractical thing he could possibly have done.* It took years and years to complete it, and after it was completed years and years would elapse before its performance would yield any revenue. There is a passage in letter 57 which indicates that it was simply financial embarrassment that compelled him to give up "Siegfried" in 1851, and begin to compose "Tristan," which, being a separate work, could be more readily produced, and might therefore put some money in his purse. Wagner's contemporaries can hardly feel proud when they read that while he was composing "Tristan" he was at one time compelled to pawn his valuables, including his watch, and this ten years after his "Rienzi" had been heard and admired. His frequent depression of spirits in consequence of this wretched state of affairs, and of the slow progress of his works, may be inferred from the fact that there are half-a-dozen letters in which he declares his intention to commit suicide. His one desire, he insists, is "to work, to write operas—that is the only thing I am good for"; and all he asked of the world in return was money enough to defray his household expenses: "I cannot live like a dog, cannot make my bed on straw, and seek pleasure in bad liquor. I must have some appreciation if I am to succeed in the arduous work of creating a new world." "Great heavens, such sums as I might *earn* (!!) in America [whence he had received some offers], people ought to present to me, without asking in return anything except what I am now doing, and which is the best thing I can do."

If these facts are borne in mind, Wagner's constant appeals for pecuniary aid appear in their proper light. He knew very well that managers and publishers would some day reap fortunes from his operas; and there was, therefore, nothing Utopian or impertinent in his demand that they should buy him a house and enable him to secure the leisure for creating the works that were to enrich them. There is nothing "small" or contemptible in such an attitude, but there is something very small and contemptible in the attempts of Dr. Hanslick and other German reviewers because of it to besmirch Wagner's character. It was no one's affair, anyway, but Liszt's, and Liszt was only too happy to do everything in his power for his exiled friend, who was compelled, by the very nature of his profession, to do work from which he could expect no immediate return. "Davison told me the other day," writes Liszt, "that the profits of his recent Berlin season sufficed to buy a villa near Dresden. In comparison, you ought by right to be able to buy all Zürich, besides the seven electorates and the lake, with your scores!" Had it not been for Liszt, even the one regular source of income which Wagner had—the percentage on the receipts from his operas—would have been much smaller. For Liszt was not only the first who produced "Tannhäuser" and "Lohengrin" with a conscientious regard for the composer's intentions ("selon le bon plaisir de l'auteur," as he says), and thereby paved the way for these works at other opera-houses, but he wrote enthusiastic essays on them, and, in the absence of Wagner, made arrangements for having his operas produced in various cities. He was even willing to go to Berlin and superintend the rehearsals of "Tannhäuser"; but, owing to the stupidity of Intendant Hülsen, his services were refused. Wagner fully realized the importance of Liszt's services in these matters. "Without you I should now be completely forgotten," he wrote in 1851.

It was a terrible trial for Wagner not to be able to visit his friend and share in his labors in breaking ground for the new school. For eight years he heard none of his own operas, and one of the most pathetic letters in this collection is one in which he asks Liszt whether it would be advisable for him to come to Weimar in disguise and attend a performance of "Lohengrin." Liszt seriously advised him not to risk it; and all that remained therefore for Wagner was to take part in a musical festival in Switzerland, of which he accepted the direction merely, as he confessed to Liszt, in order to get an opportunity to hear at least a few fragments from "Lohengrin." In another letter he complains that the inability to hear his own operas acted as a damper on his creative impulses, and made it difficult for him to continue at work. One of the chief services of Liszt lay in this, that he sustained his friend's flagging spirits by occasional messages of unbounded admiration, and by playing from Wagner's scores on the few occasions when he was able to visit him. Wagner had little execution as pianist, and it was therefore always a feast to him to have Liszt play his scores in his own inimitable way. Thus, in 1855, he writes regarding the "Walküre": "The completion of this work (the most tragic I have ever composed) will require much labor, and I must seek to recompense myself by means of exalting impressions for the energies I have expended. In this you alone can help me. The idea of going through this work, too, with you is the only compensation I expect from it. I myself am quite unable to do anything with it on the piano in such a way as to get any benefit from it." And in July, 1856, he writes:

"Franz, I have a divine idea! *You must get me an Érard piano!* Write to the widow. Tell her that you visit me every year three (!) times, and that you *must* have a better piano than my dilapidated one. Tell her a hundred thousand fables; say that it is a point of honor for her to have an Érard piano in my house. In short, don't reflect about the matter, but go to work with inspired impudence (*unverschämt genial*)! *I must have an Érard.* If they refuse to give me one as a present, I want to get it on credit, with a yard-long instalment."

In the next letter we see why he was so eager to get the Érard: "Tell Mme. Érard to send me a grand at once. I will pay 500 francs on it every year. No doubts! *I must have it when you visit me!*" It was the eagerness to hear some of his own latest music at least on a good piano, since orchestras were inaccessible to him.

No less encouragement and pleasure than by playing his scores, Liszt gave him by the admiring remarks on his compositions with which he seasoned many of his letters. "Your 'Lohengrin,'" he writes in 1850, "is a sublime work from beginning to end. Many, many passages have pressed tears from my heart." And eight years later: "I cannot tell you how deeply the work affects me every time. When I conducted it the last time, I felt proud of my century for possessing such an artist as you revealed yourself in this work! With 'Lohengrin' the old operatic world comes to an end. The spirit moves on the waters, and there is light." Liszt was the first who had the privilege of seeing the score of "Lohengrin," and to him it is dedicated. The same privilege was accorded him in the case of "Rheingold," "Walküre," and "Tristan." "How I must thank you, dearest, only one, for sending me the scores of 'Rheingold' and 'Walküre.' They exert on me the fabulous attractiveness of the mountain of magnet which irresistibly attracts ships and mariners," he writes in 1856. And two years later: "What a heavenly Christmas gift Härtel has sent me! All the children in the world, with Christmas trees adorned with golden fruits and lovely presents, cannot experience as much joy as I alone derived from your unique 'Tristan. Away with all cares and troubles of the humdrum world! Here is something again to weep over and flare up in enthusiasm. What ravishing magic! What an incredible wealth of beauty in this flaming love potion! What must have been your feelings when you conceived and composed this wonderful work!"

Such rapturous expressions are now the order of the day, but that Liszt wrote them almost forty years ago shows that his genius was great enough to appreciate Wagner's, even before his creations had presented themselves in their engaging instrumental garb. And Liszt had the courage to repeat these rapturous opinions in his published essays, whereby he greatly quickened the growth of Wagner's popularity. The effect which his essay on "Lohengrin" had on Wagner is illustrated in this remarkable extract (I., 122):

"It is difficult to describe to you the impression which at this particular moment your latest act of friendship has made on me! I had again become cold and suspicious regarding myself, and the thought of undertaking a new work of art aroused in me hardly anything but derisive contempt. The artistic misery far and near is so great, my spirits so depressed, that just now the only thing I could do was to laugh at myself when I thought, for instance, of the execution of my 'Siegfried,' and this mood I

transferred to all my work. A few days ago I turned the leaves of my 'Lohengrin' score; it inspired in me positive disgust, and my occasional outbursts of laughter were not of an encouraging nature. Now once more you approached me, and impressed, delighted, and inspired me to such enthusiasm that I was dissolved in tears, and suddenly felt again that there is no pleasure more voluptuous than that of being an artist and creating works of art. It is indescribable, the effect you have produced on me."

After reading Liszt's appreciative essay on the "Flying Dutchman," Wagner writes (1854): "Who has understood me? YOU—and no one else! and who now understands YOU? *I*, and no one else! Be assured of that." And this brings us to the other side of the question. Did Wagner reciprocate Liszt's admiration of his music? An attempt has been made to show that he did not. But if his essay on Liszt's Symphonic Poems did not suffice to contradict this notion, the present letters would completely refute it. Thus, on p. 128, vol. ii., we read:

"In the month of May, so abominable for me, I have not been able to do more than look through your six scores with dimmed vision; but even thus I received the electric shock which the great produces on us, and one thing I know, that you are a wonderful man, to whom I can in no respect find a parallel in art and life. So great an impression did your conceptions and the general outlines of your execution make on me that I was eager to see more from you at once—the three other numbers, 'Faust' and 'Dante.'"

On the next page is a most remarkable analysis of Liszt's musical individuality, which is too long to quote, but which ends with this sentence: "So your orchestral compositions may be regarded as a monumental embodiment of your personal art, and herein they are so new and incomparable that the critics will require a long time to find out what to make of them." In a postscript he adds:

"But how terribly beautiful your 'Mazeppa' is: I was quite out of breath when I had read it through the first time! I felt sorry, too, for the poor horse: how terrible is nature and the world!" Again: "Every day I read one or the other of your scores, very much as I should read a poem, easily and without impediment. Then I feel every time as if I had dived into a crystalline depth, there to be alone by myself, leaving all the world behind, and living my own real life for an hour. Refreshed and invigorated, I then reappear on the surface, to long for your personal presence. Yes, my friend, *you have the power! Du kannst es!*" And once more: "The sonata is beautiful beyond all conception; grand, lovely, deep, and noble—sublime like yourself. I am most profoundly moved by it, and all my London *misère* is forgotten."

It is by no means as well known as it should be that Liszt was one of the most brilliant men of letters of his time. His musical essays, which have only recently been collected into a complete edition, contain a marvellous wealth of ideas and suggestions, and display a most exuberant imagination and mastery of style. Moreover, hardly any writer on music had like himself what is considered the highest critical gift—the art of reproducing the emotions of the art work discussed by him. To this Wagner alludes in one of his letters (i, 166): "Your style must be incomprehensible to one who does not understand music; but the way in which you can reproduce in apt words the self-same emotions which music alone can excite in us, fills with delight every one who has had those feelings, but could find no words for them!" The perusal of Liszt's essay on "Tannhäuser" awoke again in Wagner a wish which he had previously expressed, that Liszt might compose poems for his own musical purposes: "You have all the endowments, as well as any one! Write your poems in French or Italian; in that very sphere you cannot but create something entirely new, bring about a great revolution." Unfortunately, Liszt never followed this advice, yet posterity will rank him not only among the greatest composers, but among the foremost literary men of his time.

We have noted a hundred other interesting passages in these letters, but our space is exhausted. Of special interest is Wagner's account of his experiences in London and Paris, and of inestimable importance the directions he gave Liszt regarding the proper performance of "Lohengrin," etc.—directions which every conductor and singer should read. English readers will soon have an opportunity of perusing the Wagner-Liszt correspondence in a translation on which Dr. F. Hueffer is at work.

AGRICULTURE AND PRICES IN ENGLAND.

A History of Agriculture and Prices in England, from the year after the Oxford Parliament to the Commencement of the Continental War (1793). By James E. Thorold Rogers. Vols. V and VI (1583-1702). Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1887.

IT is at once an easy and a pleasant task to bring to the notice of the reading public a new book from the pen of Professor Rogers. The reputation of the author as a careful investigator is so well established by what he has already done, that either praise or criticism seems out of place on the part of one who reviews his writings; the reviewer, therefore, may content himself with a simple statement of what is to be found in these new volumes.

But at the outset it may be well to say a word respecting the work as a whole, of which the two volumes lying before us form a part. It is now more than a quarter of a century since Professor Rogers began to collect data for a history of agriculture and prices in England. "Such labors as I have undertaken," he says in the preface to his first volume, "are essential to that economical interpretation of history which, I venture on asserting, is as important an aid towards the comprehension of the past as the study of legal antiquities, of diplomatic intrigues, or of military campaigns." The work when completed will comprise eight volumes, and present an authoritative history of English prices from 1259 to 1793. Why, it may be asked, should the investigation be arrested with the year 1793? That, we reply, is the date at which the monumental work of Thomas Tooke begins, which, together with the two volumes added by Mr. Newmarch, brings the history of prices down to 1856. We may in this manner come to appreciate the importance and scope of Professor Rogers's work. The economic literature of no other people contains a complete history of prices from the thirteenth century to the present time, and, according to our author, "there is no European country, except England, the archives of which could supply satisfactory evidences of prices." It is impossible, in these days when economic study is turning largely in the direction of economic history, to overestimate the importance of so complete a record of prices covering six centuries of time.

The fifth and sixth volumes of this work, which have just appeared, trace the industrial development of England from the middle of Elizabeth's reign to the beginning of the reign of Queen Anne. This is perhaps the most important period in the growth of the English nation—at least no period has received greater attention at the hands of historians. And yet, notwithstanding all that has been written, the industrial forces which gave character to the seventeenth century have never been adequately portrayed. Nor can we say that this is accomplished by Professor Rogers. He has not attempted to give a picture of English industrial life, but rather to supply the material from which such a picture may be drawn. There is little of interest in the mass of facts presented in these volumes, except for the student who sees how they fit into the development of the English people; but for such a one the labor of reading becomes the source of keen intellectual enjoyment. According to our author, there are seven classes of important economic events which make their appearance during the one hundred and twenty years covered by his investigation; and we may perhaps most perfectly get at the spirit and aim of his work if we notice these events one after the other as he himself has presented them.

The first and most obvious of the events in question is the effect which the influx of the precious metals from the New World had on prices. There is no period, says our author, which throws more light on the general theory of prices than the one considered in these volumes. To a certain extent this is true of all Europe, but England shows in a peculiar manner the relation existing between industries and an increasing circulating medium; for it must be remembered that she possessed no gold-bearing colonies, and was in consequence obliged to secure her quota of gold and silver by means of trade with other countries. It was through the avenue of trade, and not by direct importation, that money came into England; and it was through trade, also, and not (as in the case of Spain) by means of military disbursements, that the money imported was put into circulation. On this account England presents an especially fruitful field for the study of the influence of money on industries.

There is, in this connection, also another fact of interest to the economist, which, though not stated by our author, is yet illustrated by the figures he presents. The student of history finds it necessary to explain why England in the seventeenth century developed her industries more rapidly than any other of the nations of Europe. There are, of course, many causes which worked in this direction, but one factor of great importance seems to have been overlooked. As we have said, England had no gold-bearing colonies. This was the occasion of regret on the part of the English people, and for the time it did place them at a disadvantage when compared with Spain. And yet this fact, so deeply deplored, was more potent in the development of England's commercial greatness than any other one fact which may be mentioned. Since England could not obtain the precious metals directly, she was obliged to obtain them indirectly by building up her home industries. But this is not the most significant feature of the situation. During the seventeenth century English merchants had a continual incentive to extend their operations. The market in which their goods were sold was directly influenced by the gold imported from the mines; while the home market in which their goods were bought could only be affected by the gold which the merchants brought home as the result of successful trade. On this account, prices on the English market were always a step behind prices on the markets of Europe where English goods were taken. There was thus an incentive offered for the constant expansion of commerce and industry.

The second fact of interest to industrial history pertains to the rise of rents on arable land. It will be remembered that, by the middle of the sixteenth century, customary rentals of feudal times had ceased to exert a control-

ling influence; and our author tells us that "very early in the seventeenth century the rent of arable land had generally increased nine-fold over the old rent, and in many cases even twenty-five fold over customary rent at an earlier period." This remarkable rise in rent is traceable to two causes. The rise in the price of agricultural produce permitted farmers to pay higher money rents, while the general improvement in methods of farming made it possible for them to give a larger proportion of their produce to the landlords. It was not, however, till the eighteenth century that agricultural improvements exerted a decided and independent influence on rentals. But we are not on this account to conclude that agriculture in the seventeenth century was at a low stage. From the accounts given of it by contemporary writers, we learn that it was varied and productive. The principal authorities upon which Professor Rogers relies for information respecting agriculture are Norden, Markham, Vaughn, Platts, Hartlib, and Worlidge. We are a little surprised that he makes no mention of 'Best's Farming Book,' published by the Surtees Society, which is a most interesting account of rural economy in Yorkshire in 1641. It certainly contains some facts which our author has not revealed, though perhaps none necessary to the end which he has in view.

We cannot speak in detail of all the points brought out in these volumes which are pertinent to the development of English industrial society, and will therefore content ourselves with mentioning the next four without comment. Population increased rapidly despite the epidemics which ravaged the towns. The maritime adventures, which at first were but "little above the level of piracy," developed into a well-regulated system of trade and commerce. Another interesting feature of this period is found in the mass of social legislation which a class government imposed upon the people of England. "Many of the consequences which are derived from this legislation," says Professor Rogers, "influence English social and economical life at the present time, and are inducing economical problems upon us of no common greatness and difficulty. The seventeenth century is the beginning of modern economical history." The development of the joint-stock principle in commerce and manufactures is regarded as of sufficient importance to warrant special mention. Among the most successful of the institutions established is the Bank of England, which, it is asserted, gave steadiness to the machinery of representative government from the day of its organization.

But our chief interest in a treatise upon industrial history must centre in the new facts which it discloses respecting the labor problem. We cannot, of course, go very far in presenting the figures which show the movements in wages of laborers and the cost of living in the seventeenth century, but we can state in a word the conclusions of the author. The great economical fact to which he calls our attention is "the success of the conspiracy, baffled for more than two centuries, against English laborers. This is indeed," he remarks, "the saddest part of the retrospect. I have attempted in an earlier volume, as in this, to narrate, not without indignation perhaps, but with no conscious unfairness, the early history of the strife between employers and workmen, and the commencement of that crisis in the struggle during which the laborer was hopelessly beaten." The conspiracy to which Professor Rogers refers consists in that legislation by which it was endeavored to curtail the freedom of the English workman, while professing at the same time to guarantee him physical support. He refers to the Elizabethan Labor Code, to the Poor Law passed as a complement to the Labor Code, and to the Act of Settlement. The first of these laws gave to the justices of the peace the right of fixing wages and of punishing deviations from the wages fixed; the Poor Law authorized enforced labor; while the settlement acts prohibited a workman from going out of his own parish in search of work. Now, during the period we are considering, it would have been difficult under the most favorable legal conditions for the workingmen to have made headway against the increased cost of living. Prices had risen seven-fold. The average price of wheat from 1260 to 1542 was 5s. 11¼d. per quarter; the average price in the seventeenth century was 41s. per quarter. But when, in addition to the burden of rapidly rising prices, the law gave to members of the employing class the right to prohibit migrations from a certain parish, to force men to work under threat of legal punishment, and to fix legal wages, the condition of the laborers became utterly hopeless. Whatever may have been the intention of those who framed these laws, it must be admitted that they entailed evils as great as would have been entailed by a deliberate conspiracy against laborers.

It is in connection with this discussion that Professor Rogers pays a loving tribute to John Stuart Mill, while at the same time criticising his method of approach to economic questions. And so clearly does he put the point at issue between those who hold to the philosophic and those who have adopted the historical method of investigating industrial problems, that we cannot refrain from quoting this paragraph in full:

"I know of no person whose friendship I valued more than that of Mill. I greatly respected his candor; I admired his translucent utterances. No man ever gave one a clearer conception of what he meant at the moment. He was so earnest and so convinced, so gentle and so modest, that for a time one felt that he must be right. But few writers, I am sure, have been so much in the wrong, and few writers have done so much mischief as he. The evil came from want of knowledge. His estimate of economic causes was entirely autobiographical. He mistook his own impressions of the social state for the causes which had brought them about. He believed (for he told me so, and he never said what he did not believe) that every moral gift and every intellectual power could be imparted by education. The beggary, the misery, the improvidence, the recklessness of the English laborer were in his mind due to immediately preventable causes. Had he studied economical history, and given their due weight to that vast series of causes which made the English peasant what he is, I am convinced that his indignation would have been directed against other agencies than those which he collected and criticised. But, unfortunately, he wrote on social conditions without a preparatory training, even in those facts which had been published."

We cannot bring our notice of this work to a close without tendering to Professor Rogers our congratulations for the new honor which the University of Oxford has conferred upon him, in electing him to the chair of political economy left vacant by the death of Professor Bonamy Price.

EDUCATION.

Industrial Instruction. By Robert Seidel. Translated by Margaret K. Smith. 12mo, pp. 160. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 1887.

Education of Man. By Friedrich Froebel. Translated by W. N. Hailmann. 12mo, pp. 332. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1887.

The Ruling Principle of Method Applied to Education. By Antonio Rosmini Serbati. Translated by Mrs. William Grey. 12mo, pp. 363. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 1887.

The Elements of Psychology. By David J. Hill, LL.D. 12mo, pp. 419. New York: Sheldon & Co. 1888.

THE catalogue of the "Industrial Education Association" in New York city, apparently showing an attendance of 686 students, furnishes an opportunity to point out a significant tendency in modern education. A great development of industrial life has taken the place of that which characterized mediæval civilization, and the immense growth of the world's population has modified the ratio between population and the means for subsistence. These facts, or the forces which they set free, are revolutionizing our educational system. Time was when the pure sciences were the chief pabulum of instruction. But experience shows them to be unproductive, and the chief want of the present, with its developed industries, depending as much upon manual as upon mental skill, is a training that will be practical. The several books under notice represent the various stages of development towards this view. We begin with the one which exclusively concerns the industrial.

Seidel has the courage to predict that "the future in the state, as well as in pedagogy, belongs to labor." Socialists may welcome this view, but it is further off from realization than enthusiasts imagine, important as the author's position may be. He is thoroughly *en rapport* with the new tendencies, and has no purely ideal ends to defend. It is interesting and important to notice his point of departure, as it shows why education cannot proceed entirely in the old grooves. He points out the futility of that system of industrial education which was designed to protect the small trades, because it was clear that the larger and machine industries were certain to supplant the others; and hence industrial education, if it is to be given at all, must be in the channels which present economical conditions lay down for us. Now, the influence exerted by industry upon a large scale is simply an actual fact, which has to be met and reckoned with. It changes old conditions, and necessitates, therefore, a change of method to meet the exigencies thus created. Education has to be extended from the liberal to the practical.

Seidel's work marks the extreme tendency of which we speak, although it was not written to defend such a position against the claims of speculative studies. Froebel's is a step removed from this, and, although aiming at practical methods, is more in sympathy with the intellectual aims of past ages. It rather shows the theory which characterizes the mental transition from the intellectual to the industrial. It is conceived in opposition to the views of Pestalozzi—at least apparently, although examination shows it in reality the same. Pestalozzi based his views of education upon the mere idea of knowledge; Froebel upon that of self-activity and the realization of personal aims. Here he might have shown his sympathy with manual employments, with a system of education having social and practical bearings. But no. All the self-activity which he has in mind is born of Hegelianism, and means, in the last analysis, that the individual child or man should be trained to realize in himself "the treasures of science—the wisdom of the race." This is only to return to the position from which he started. The method which he proposes is admirable, and may be called a scientific foundation of his kindergarten system. It is, to limit the matter of instruction to the character of experience and intelligence which receives

it. In this way all dogmatic doctrines and creeds are reserved for maturity. Although, in many respects, mystical in the aims it would realize, and moulded in the spirit of a philosophy which is no longer in the ascendant, the work has most valuable suggestions for every instructor of the young. Its historical value is considerable, but it can be only transitional in its influence.

Rosmini's work is more practical. It endeavors to develop methods more than ends, and this single fact brings him into closer contact with modern life. It is another step of removal from the view proposing purely intellectual ends in education, although there is no advocacy of anything like industrial training, except in the most general way. Rosmini was a contemporary of Froebel, but worked out his system in entire independence of that author. There are many points of resemblance between their methods, but one of essential difference between them which accrues to the favor of Froebel, in spite of his mysticism. Rosmini was a Roman priest, and his work was sanctioned by his Church; Froebel was a product of Protestant theology and philosophy. This fact marks the essential difference between their views in regard to the matter of what they would teach children, especially in religion. "Rosmini, as could not be otherwise, based the practical religious education of the child on instruction in the dogmas and formularies of the Church. Froebel, on the other hand, with a consistency impossible to his great contemporary, refused to depart in religious instruction from the fundamental principle of both, that children should never learn words representing ideas which their minds were incapable of conceiving." This is important to notice because it clearly defines a movement in modern thought of which even its own advocates do not realize the tendencies and consequences. That Rosmini did not remark it while consciously developing his system, can only be explained by the intellectual and political power of Papacy, which could so determine and control a man's opinions that they were very little exposed to revision. Certainly he did not realize that his whole method undermined that of instruction by authority. He would begin the child's education by using the simplest concrete objects to interest curiosity and to employ the child's own experience for producing ideas and conviction, and then proceed to the more intellectual and complex conceptions of knowledge as the child's own spontaneous development demands. This is the whole of his method in a nutshell, and it is unquestionably the correct one. But it involves a revolution in educational methods and matter of which few are aware. Of course, it is almost universally adopted in the schools, but not as a method of domestic education. When it is adopted everywhere, its effects will be seen. The book shows the influence of psychology in determining all methods of pedagogy, and moves towards the practical spirit of modern times in that it has no speculative problems to solve, and no special intellectual ends like those of philosophy to condition the mode of education it defends.

The last book under our notice, although a treatise on psychology, is of that kind which belongs to pedagogical work rather than to scientific and philosophic study. It has no merit whatever as science or philosophy. The manner in which it was written precluded all this. It is a kind of encyclopædia in little of all questions in speculation; and such a compilation of opinions and quotations, with the most astonishing prolixity of analysis, has seldom been offered to educators. The attempt is to bring the student into contact with all the problems of science, philosophy, and religion within the compass of a few hundred pages, as if he would never meet with another opportunity to reflect upon them. From such a book the student can arise with no other conception than that he has seen a great many things. There are no less than 223 quotations and references in 373 pages of print, nearly all of them quotations. The book states the views of, and quotes from, 140 different philosophers, and mentions about 30 others for the purposes of illustration. The analysis represents 460 different topics, besides general headings. It will be evident from this that the work violates every principle of rational education which provides for mental discipline and the mastery of a few fundamental principles for guides in later development. Moreover, the smattering given often relates to subjects which do not need to be approached by the student at all. For instance, what do we want to do with scholastic discussions of "Nominalism," "Realism," and "Conceptualism" in high schools, where this book will be used, and where, perhaps, the subject ought not to be taught? So also with "Monism," "Pantheism," etc. It would be better to omit psychology entirely than to teach it in this way. The work is hardly out of scholastic methods, and, both in respect to this and to its matter, it is the furthest remove from the practical tendency we have noted of all the books under our consideration. It is much more suited for sale than for pedagogy, although no wide-awake teacher will be deceived by it.

The Campaign in Virginia, 1781. An exact reprint of six rare pamphlets on the Clinton-Cornwallis controversy, with unpublished MS. notes by Sir Henry Clinton. Edited by Benjamin Franklin Stevens. London: Henry Stevens & Son. 1888. In 2 vols., 8vo.

THIS work is the most important contribution ever made on this particular part of our Revolutionary history, and the fullest elucidation ever made from the British side of any campaign in the same war. Five of these tracts have been known to students before; but the last of the series, not earlier recognized, is now added to them, as well as very numerous notes made by Clinton on the margins of all of them. These annotated copies were sold a few years since, when Clinton's library came upon the market in London, and were bought for the Department of State in Washington. The tracts gave the illustrative correspondence of the principal actors, but not in full, and all these letters (extended so as to be full transcripts of the originals, which were sought in their repositories) are now grouped together after the tracts. To these are added elucidatory extracts from the Lords' journals, the preface of the French version of some of the correspondence, and a list of about 3,500 other documents illustrating the relations of Clinton and Cornwallis at this time, with memoranda of their depositories and of the places where they are printed.

The new material consists mainly of the comments and corrections of Clinton, which are added to the texts; and the chief editorial function has been to collate the texts and these notes—for Clinton duplicated them several times—and mark the variations. This has been done with a precision almost unprecedented in similar work, and one has a feeling that the attending references are almost overdone, for it is not discoverable that any considerable part of this conscientious labor has really added to the scope of the work by placing many essential variations in conjunction. It will pass, however, for a sample of extreme caution and precision, which puts these two volumes at once into a category of editing almost unique in such material, and such as is usually confined to textual variation in philological matters where an importance clings to minute differences. Mr. Stevens in an introduction gives all necessary preparatory information; and he closes the book with an index equally minute, and which he makes also the vehicle of biographical information. The defect of the book as a monographic treatment of the campaign is the unavoidable one of the absence of all later corresponding comment by Cornwallis, so that Clinton has an unfair advantage in stating his case.

Such is the book as a contribution to historical literature; but most American historical scholars will regard it as an earnest of the kind of labor to be expected upon the work of indexing or printing the mass of European documents, illustrating our history from 1763 to 1783, and especially elucidating the Peace of Paris, which Mr. Stevens has been for many years collecting from the private and public European archives, and which he has been asking the American Government for several years past to accept at a price and to publish. If the present book is a fair sample of the editorial care which has been bestowed upon this other garnered material—and one would judge it to be necessarily so—the historical scholar may feel satisfied that the larger work will be edited by Mr. Stevens with a precision that will answer, and perhaps more than answer, any historical inquirer. Painstaking in this way is costly, however, and may perhaps swell the charge to an extent that will block the hoped-for undertaking. It is a question if in non-essentials it is worth while to pursue such a minute collation, although the method is probably the best way of establishing a conviction of trustworthiness. The student would certainly rather have the papers with reasonable precision than fail because of such a burden of nicety to get them at all. It seems a pity that so much material as Mr. Stevens has gathered should not in some way be made available to our historical workers, and that with expedition.

Strongbow's Conquest of Ireland, 1166-1188. By Francis P. Barnard, M.A. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

WE have already made mention of this admirable little book in connection with the series of primers called "English History from Contemporary Writers." In it are brought together translations of all the main extracts from contemporary or supposed contemporary writers or annalists, British and Irish, relating to Strongbow's invasion of Ireland; and we find appendices—the descendants of Nesta, list of the adventurers who joined Strongbow, the Irish and Norse chieftains who appear during the war, notes on the life of Giraldus, and other information—invaluable to the students. We regret that, as in some other books of a like character lately published, the illustrations do not come up to the letterpress. Where so much care and expense has otherwise been gone to to produce a standard educational work, it is shortsighted policy not to spend a few more dollars upon the woodcuts.

We have seldom had brought before us with more painful vividness the incidents of the Anglo-Norman *invasion* of Ireland (conquest there was not for 400 years later). We see in all their nakedness the rapacity of the invaders, the weakness and divisions of the natives,

duplicity and faithlessness on both sides. We are told by one of the English chroniclers on page 8: "In proportion as the realm [of Ireland] was [had been] free from external aggression, so much the more miserably were the natives commonly engaged in tearing the bowels of their fatherland by their intestine feuds." Whatever may have been the glories of Ireland in previous times, this was undoubtedly true regarding the condition of the country in 1169. Had Strongbow and his followers brought about a settled state of things, had they laid the foundations of a well-ordered state, none would have more cause to bless them than Irishmen of the present day. As it was, they but added to the confusion and unsettlement; they were actuated by principles and methods carried on to the present day; they would neither rule wisely and well nor let the Irish themselves evolve a settled government. We trust no one will read the book without looking over the preface, in which full allowance is sought for the extravagances, "sometimes sheer buffoonery," "credulity," "malignity," and other faults of Giraldus Cambrensis, whose writings are principally drawn upon. The extent to which the invasion was a family affair can only be understood by study of the table of the descendants of the Princess Nesta, which is perhaps as correct and as carefully compiled as another list of her descendants we have seen.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, O. F., and Rolfe, W. J. Atalanta's Race, and Other Tales from Morris's Earthly Paradise. Boston: Ticknor & Co. 75 cents.
Alden's Manifold Cyclopædia of Knowledge and Language. Vol. II. America to Artemis. John B. Alden. 40 cents.
Arnold, M. Civilization in the United States. First and Last Impressions of America. Boston: Cupples & Hurd.
Bardeen, C. W. Question Book of Book-Keeping. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen.
Bridgman, R. L. Ten Years of Massachusetts. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Briggs, R. Steam Heating: An Exposition of the American Practice of Warming Buildings by Steam. D. Van Nostrand. 50 cents.
Brooks, E. S. The Story of New York. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co. $1.50.
Brown, Charles Brockden. Ormond.—Edgar Huntly.—Arthur Mervyn, 2 vols.—Jane Talbot.—Wieland. Philadelphia: David McKay.
Browning, R. Poetical Works. Vol. I. Pauline—Sordello. Macmillan & Co. $1.50.
Chapman, Elizabeth R. A Companion to In Memoriam. Macmillan & Co. 75 cents.
Charnay, D. Une Princesse indienne avant la conquête. Paris: Hachette; Boston: Schoenhof.
Clark—Giddings. The Modern Distributive Process. Studies of Competition and its Limits, of the Nature and Amount of Profits, and of the Determination of Wages, in the Industrial Society of To-day. Boston: Ginn & Co. 75 cents.
Cossa, Prof. L. Taxation: its Principles and Methods. Introduction and Notes by Horace White. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Davies, Rev. E. Illustrated Handbook on Africa. Reading, Mass.: Holiness Book Concern. 25 cents.
Deland, Margaret. John Ward, Preacher. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Dowden, E. Correspondence of Henry Taylor. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.80.
Encyclopædia Britannica. 9th ed. Vol. 23. Chas. Scribner's Sons.
Ewing, Gen. H. A Castle in the Air. Henry Holt & Co. $1.00.
Falloux, Comte de. Mémoires d'un Royaliste. T. I., II. Paris: Perrin; Boston: Schoenhof.
Foster, D. S. Rebecca the Witch, and Other Tales in Metre. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.25.
Foster, Prof. F. H. The Seminary Method of Original Study in the Historical Sciences. Chas. Scribner's Sons. $1.00.
Frye, A. E. The Child and Nature; or Geography Teaching with Sand Modelling. Hyde Park, Mass.: Bay State Publishing Co.
George, A. J. Wordsworth's Prelude. With Notes. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Goddard, F. B. Furniture and the Art of Furnishing. The Tradesman's Publishing Co. 20 cents.
Goddard, F. B. Grocer's Goods: A Family Guide. The Tradesman's Publishing Co. 20 cents.
Goddard, F. B. Marketing. Guide to the Purchase of Meats, Poultry, Game, Fish, Vegetables, Fruits, &c. The Tradesman's Publishing Co. 20 cents.
Gossip, G. H. D. The Chess-Player's Manual. Geo. Routledge & Sons. $3.
Guizot, M. et Mme. Le Temps passé: Mélanges de Critique littéraire et de Morale. 2 vols. Paris: Perrin; Boston: Schoenhof.
Hale, Lucretia P., and Bynner, E. L. An Uncloseted Skeleton. Boston: Ticknor & Co. 50 cents.
Hendrick, W. "The Table is Set;" A Comedy in One Act. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen. 15 cents.
Henry, E. Eighty-nine. Casseli & Co. $1.25.
Hitchcock, Rev. R. D. Eternal Atonement. Chas. Scribner's Sons. $1.50.
Hotchkiss, P. P. Banks and Banking, 1171–1888. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 75 cents.
Hodge, Rev. A. A, and Rev. J. A. The System of Theology contained in the Westminster Shorter Catechism Opened and Explained. A. C. Armstrong & Son. $1.
Humphrey, Rev. E. P. Sacred History from the Creation to the Giving of the Law. A. C. Armstrong & Son. $2.50.
Irving, J. T. Indian Sketches (1833). G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.
Jones, C. C., jr. Negro Myths from the Georgia Coast, told in the Vernacular. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Knight, G. W. History and Management of Land Grants for Education in the Northwest Territory. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Kurtz, C. M. National Academy Notes. Cassell & Co. 50 cents.
Larousse. Grand dictionnaire universel, 2e Supplément, fasc. 12–15. Boston: Schoenhof.
Leeds, H. C., and Dwight, J. The Laws of Euchre. Boston: Ticknor & Co. 50 cents.
Lorenz. Catalogue général de la Librairie française. T. X, fasc. 2. Boston: Schoenhof.
Manners: a Handbook of Social Customs. Cassell & Co. 50 cents.

Fine Arts.

SOCIETY OF AMERICAN ARTISTS.—II.

"Tulip Culture," No. 71, by George Hitchcock, is a picture which attracted a great deal of attention at the Salon of 1887, and the estimation in which it was held by artists in Paris is shown by the fact that the Salon jury awarded it a *mention honorable*. It is one of those pictures which please artists and laymen alike, for to the former it appeals by its frank and honest painting and its excellent qualities of light and air, while the latter are moved to admiration by the novel character of the subject, and find pleasure in looking at a picture in which nature seems so faithfully portrayed. It is a charming picture, of which it is sufficient to say here that it is thoroughly good work, and that in it Mr. Hitchcock has been eminently successful in accomplishing a task of considerable difficulty in the management of color. It is unfortunate that it is placed in one corner of the gallery, when it would have appeared to so much better advantage in the middle of the room, in the fullest light it would be possible to get on the canvas.

Such a place is happily given to the large picture "In Summer," No. 4, by Frank W. Benson. This, too, is an out-of-doors subject, a portrait of a young lady in a white dress, who is seen sitting in the shade on a lawn, which in the middle distance is flooded with sunlight, and extends to a background of trees, and houses, and garden walls beyond. It is very simply painted—too simply at times, for it amounts to positive thinness in certain passages—but it is a remarkably faithful study of values, it is clean and fresh in color, and very good in ensemble. It is to be especially noted as the work of a young Boston artist who has not exhibited before in New York, and who may be safely set down as a painter of whom much may be expected.

Something of value in painting of the nude is generally to be seen at the Society exhibitions, and this year is no exception to the rule. Besides Mr. Kenyon Cox's "Indian Summer," which has been mentioned in another article, here are a charming full-length figure of a young girl, "'Neath Apple Boughs," No. 82, by Will H. Low, a refined and delicate piece of work; another in a half-recumbent pose, "Offering to Aphrodite," No. 39, by Herbert Denman, a well-drawn and agreeably colored female figure painted with much nicety of observation and placed in a well-balanced composition; and a small picture, with a figure of a woman reclining, and a landscape setting, "Ariadne," No. 50, by Wyatt Eaton, which, without having the distinctness of line and fresh quality of color which characterize the first-named works, has an individuality of its own, and is especially to be commended for excellent painting of the flesh in shadow. With these should be mentioned the half-nude figure, "Chloë," No. 128, by Henry O. Walker, in which the luminous tones of the flesh are well contrasted with the white drapery which partly envelops the figure, and a quiet scheme of color is well sustained throughout.

Mr. Maynard's majestic figure, "Civilization," No. 84, which occupies the centre of one of the end walls of the gallery, effective in its well-managed arrangement of white in the drapery and reddish tones in the marble wall, and Mr. Dewing's "Allegorical Figure," No. 41, dignified in style and painted in a harmony of greens and pale grays, are decorative works of distinctive character and individual merit. Mr. Tiffany's rather commonplace arrangement of reds and blues in the large decoration "In Memoriam," No. 113, and Mr. Low's design for a window, "Madonna della Pratellini," No. 81, a conventional composition, but of decided charm of quiet color, are two other works of the same class, and perhaps with these may fittingly be mentioned Mr. Blashfield's excellent "Interior of St. Mark's, Venice," No. 6, a finely colored canvas, and, as a study, remarkable for truth of observation.

"A Milkmaid," No. 80, by Chester Loomis, is a picture of a Normandy peasant girl riding on a donkey with large metal milk cans slung over his back on each side of her, and is noticeable for clever painting and truth of local color. The figure is charming, and the landscape, with its foreground of grass and herbage and its luminous sky with white clouds, is broadly and sufficiently painted. "Finding a Pose," No. 130, by J. Louis Webb, is a studio interior with two figures, those of the painter seated in the foreground, and the model, a girl in Greek costume of white, who essays a pose at the further end of the room, where some marble busts, a pair of steps, palms and garlands, and other accessories are arranged. The painting of stuffs is notably good, and the picture as a whole has its greatest merit in its appearance of atmosphere and in the rendering of values. It is, moreover, well composed, and escapes the commonplace in the treatment of a somewhat trite subject. Mr. Shirlaw exhibits two pictures, one, "The Sketch Book," No. 105, a small three-quarter-length figure of a young woman with a book in her hands, which is remarkable for mellowness of tone such as distinguishes some of the old Dutch works; the other, "Westward," No. 106, which is a landscape composition with a traveller's wagon and figures of men and horses in the foreground, treated, like the first, rather for the effect of tone than for absolute reality.

In landscape there is, as usual, an excellent showing. Mr. Tryon is seen at his best in a small picture, "December in Connecticut," No. 117, in which a stretch of country, with hills and clumps of trees and stone fences, lying under a wintry sky, is painted in subdued color; and he is further represented by a large work, possessing the charm of a twilight effect, with the fading glow of the setting sun, whose last rays gild the tops of some houses on a hill in the middle distance, "October Evening," No. 115, and by an effective and finely toned "Moonrise," No. 116. "Late Afternoon at Wakefield, R. I.," No. 125, by R. W. Van Boskerck, an effect of sunlight on a meadow, with haystacks in the distance, is realistic in effect without being forced, and is a soundly painted landscape. "Windmills," No. 118, by John H. Twachtman, is a picture, presumably of a Dutch motive, in which there are excellent qualities of line in the drawing of the ground, and the sky is luminous and delicate in color, although the ensemble gives rather the effect of

a decoration in flat tones than that of the enveloping quality of atmosphere. Mr. Twachtman exhibits other landscape studies also, one of which in particular, "Church at Arques," No. 124, is a charming bit of delicate color and is full of light and air. "Evening," No. 75, by H. Bolton Jones, a small picture of a winter landscape, tender in color and delightful in sentiment; "Foggy Day on the Sands," No. 74, by Francis C. Jones, a delicately toned and truthfully observed effect of misty atmosphere; "Landscape," No. 46, by C. H. Eaton, a handsome composition, with large masses of dark foliage and effective notes of color; "Landscape—Cape Ann," No. 92, by Charles A. Platt, a cleverly painted piece of plain and sky, with floating clouds; "Late Afternoon," No. 31, by Bruce Crane; "November Gloom," No. 87, by J. Francis Murphy; "The Red Oak," No. 90, by Walter Palmer; and "Spring," No. 61, by Edward Gay—are all works by well-known painters of landscape. With these are pictures deserving of mention by Butler Harrison, R. A. Eichelberger, C. W. Eaton, F. W. Kost, Charles Melville Dewey, K. I. Langdon, Arthur Hoeber, and Stanley Middleton. "Moonlight," No. 7, by George H. Bogert, is good in effect and excellent in tone. "Evening in Fontainebleau Forest," No. 57, by Ben Foster, is a wood interior, with a sunset sky seen through the trees, which, in spite of being somewhat blackish in tone, is atmospheric and complete in general effect. "Moorland—Cape Ann," No. 38, by Joseph De Camp, is a strongly painted effect of sunlight on rocky ground near the sea-coast, which is exceedingly realistic, but is without much quality of color. "In the Fields," No. 55, by B. R. Fitz, is a landscape with some figures of peasant women at work, painted with especial regard to securing an impression of atmosphere, which is given somewhat at the expense of the look of reality to be obtained by the rendering of exact values and color notes of out-of-door effects. Mr. Wiggins, in "Early Evening Among the Sand Dunes," No. 135, shows a group of cattle standing in the broad shadow of a hill behind which the sun has set, and Mr. Thomas Allen in "Thoroughbreds," No. 1, has painted the heads of four Jersey calves, with a background of green foliage, in his usual clever manner.

One of the *clous* of the exhibition, and certainly one of the best pictures that have ever been sent to New York by an American artist abroad, is "Bay of St. Ives at Evening," No. 107. The painter of this picture, Mr. Edward E. Simmons, has been best known by his figure subjects, and as a painter of Brittany fisher folk has been favorably noticed in Paris and at home for a number of years. Like Mr. Alexander Harrison, whose reputation was first made in like manner, but who is perhaps best known in America as the painter of that beautiful picture of moonrise on the sea, "La Crépuscule," Mr. Simmons has ventured out of the beaten track, and has set for himself a simpler but in some ways a more difficult task in essaying to paint an effect of early evening light on sea and shore with no element of interest outside of what may be found in the placid calm of nature. The composition of the "Bay of St. Ives" consists of a wide expanse of the waters of the bay in the foreground, stretching away to a tongue of land which juts out from the right at the high horizon line near the top of the picture, and a strip of sky above with low-lying clouds, through which the rising moon is peeping. It is neither too late for the sun's light to be entirely lost in the shadows of night, nor is it too early for the moon's rays to gild the edge of the clouds with silvery brightness. The effect is that of the pale violet hues of the long summer twilight. In his treatment of this simple but poetic motive, Mr. Simmons has brought to bear all the resources of his art, and his picture is as truthful as it is artistic. It is a beautiful work, and such as cannot be well described in words. Its full charm can only be felt when one has seen it, and will prove most lasting when one has seen it again and again.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 10, 1888.

The Week.

THE difference in the appearance of the two great parties as they approach their National Conventions is ominous for the Republicans. The Democrats in one State after another are falling into line so unanimously and solidly behind Cleveland, that there is now scarcely a probability of there being any other candidate's name before the Convention. The President is likely to receive every vote on the first ballot. The Republicans, on the other hand, are not only divided into sections and groups in favor of half-a-dozen or more candidates, but they are devoting themselves mainly to the question of whether or not their leading candidate was honest when he intimated that he did not wish the nomination. The longer this astonishing discussion goes on, the greater becomes the demoralization of the party. At present, so many party newspapers and leaders are committed against Mr. Blaine's nomination as inviting inevitable defeat, and so many of Mr. Blaine's supporters are so incensed against them for expressing that opinion, that the whole party is more in a condition for a family fight than for a convention. Then, too, the strongest men in the party cannot be nominated, because they are hateful to the Blaine faction, and are certain to be knifed in the Convention in case Blaine does not get the nomination. With unanimity and enthusiasm behind a strong candidate in one party, and suspicion, demoralization, and a probably distrusted and weak candidate in the other, the contest promises to be the most one-sided in recent years. The positions which the two parties occupy on the great questions of the day add materially to this one-sidedness.

It is now no longer doubtful that Mr. Chauncey Depew is among the contestants for the Chicago nomination. This is a great discouragement to the Blaine faction, for it means that New York will at least be divided at Chicago, whereas Mr. Blaine's chances depended upon a substantially unanimous support from this State. The heaviest blow at the Blaine movement, however, was struck at Springfield, Illinois, on Wednesday week, when the Republican State Convention presented the name of Judge Gresham with a degree of cordiality and enthusiasm that left no suggestion of a backward thought. Not only was Judge Gresham endorsed in the warmest possible manner, but Mr. Blaine was evidently selected for reproof in the resolutions of the Convention, which demand the candidate "whose character and record command universal confidence," and who can make "an aggressive and not a defensive campaign." If these resolutions had been passed by a Mugwump Convention, they could not have been more pointedly levelled at the Plumed Knight. They will be accepted everywhere as a sign that one State at least, and a very important one, is fully delivered from the Blaine superstition, and is ready to assume the offensive in the anti-Blaine movement.

Judge Gresham's chances of receiving the nomination are, however, not very flattering. His position is very similar to that of Gen. Bristow at Cincinnati in 1876. He represents the best elements of the party, but the very aggressiveness of his Illinois supporters, while it challenges admiration, will excite the bitter hostility of the Blaine faction. Moreover, it has been repeatedly charged, and is universally believed, that Mr. Gresham was very cold in his support of Blaine in the last campaign. He was one of the "suspects" of the Arthur Administration. He has been charged with latent heresy on the tariff question. This charge has been made by the Grand Inquisitor, the Bulletin of the Iron and Steel Association. We presume that the charge has foundation in the fact that Judge Gresham looks upon the tariff as a matter of details, and holds that it is always open to debate whether a duty of 100, or 75, or 50, or some other per cent. on any given article is best calculated to promote the public interests. This is heresy in the Republican party, and accordingly there will be added to the forces opposing Judge Gresham all the power of the dominant faction, which demands that the present tariff be let alone, and that the needed reduction of the surplus be taken off the internal revenue.

Of all the humbugs ever put forth by the Blaine managers, the anti-saloon party ought to be placed first. Every year it goes through the perfectly transparent farce of holding a "Convention" which represents nobody save the few persons who come together of their own accord and resolve that, while rum is a dreadful evil, efforts for the suppression of it ought never to assume a form which will take votes from the Republican party. One of the speakers at last week's session "gave away the game" by saying that the "defeat of James G. Blaine by temperance votes in 1884 was a crime." This was received with tremendous enthusiasm, and it ought to be made the declaration of principles by the "Convention." It is noticeable that all the Presidential candidates who were invited to attend this year were unable to be present, and sent very guarded regrets. It would be interesting to know who foots the bills.

The recent Democratic State Convention in Iowa was notable for the support which was given the policy of civil-service reform, both in the speech of the temporary Chairman and in the platform adopted. Mr. J. C. Cook devoted a large part of his speech to this subject, declaring that reform in the civil service is one of "the live questions of a living future," commending what President Cleveland has done in this direction, and expressing the hope that the Democratic National Convention will in this place the party upon firm and advanced ground. The resolution adopted is by far the most progressive put in any Democratic platform:

> "In appointments to all offices the duties of which may reflect the policies of the Administration, persons should be selected whose principles harmonize with the party having the responsibilities of such Administration. But subordinates should be selected and retained for their efficiency. Levying assessments upon office-holders for partisan purposes cannot be too strongly condemned, and we commend in the fullest extent every effort which President Cleveland has made in the direction of the reform and elevation of the civil service."

The most interesting and hopeful feature of the incident is the fact that the attitude of the temporary Chairman and of the Committee on Resolutions correctly represented the sentiments of the majority of the delegates. Not a sneer about "snivel-service reform" was heard in the Convention, and while nobody pretends that all the delegates were hearty believers in the new system, everything indicated that if the spoilsmen had made a fight for a plank like the one adopted by their brethren in Indiana, they would have been beaten by a good majority.

There is a growing schism in the Republican party in reference to the sugar duties. Mr. Caswell of Wisconsin made a speech in the House on Friday in favor of repealing these duties entirely, and giving a bounty to the planters. In this policy Mr. Caswell undoubtedly represents the views of the bulk of his party in the West. But Mr. Kelley and the extreme protectionists of the Pennsylvania school will listen to nothing of this kind. They fear the example of a repeal of duties on any American product, and especially do they fear the reproach that would be cast upon their system by direct payments from the Treasury to support an industry. The alternative measure, and the only one for getting rid of the surplus, is the repeal of the internal tax on liquors. But the Western men will not listen to this scheme. In the event that a direct issue is made in the party between the two plans of reduction, it is almost certain that the Western men will carry their point, since the tariff-reform sentiment is so strong among the people that some concession on import duties must be made, and since the repeal of the sugar tax secures the largest reduction of revenue with the least uproar in the protectionist camp. It does not follow that the Western Republicans would fight very valiantly to secure a bounty to the planters, or that they would be much distressed if the bounty system should involve protectionism in serious embarrassments hereafter. In short, the Republicans west of Ohio are much more concerned with the present predicament than with any possible future one. The ultimate fate of the high-tariff system does not give them bad dreams, as it does Mr. Kelley.

Mr. Henry Cabot Lodge has been signalized in the character of a crawfish a good many times since his appearance at the Chicago Convention as a terrible opponent of Blaine. On Thursday Mr. Wilson of West Virginia brought him to book once more in the House of Representatives. It was his own book—the 'Life of Alexander Hamilton, by Henry Cabot Lodge.' Mr. Wilson read some extracts from this work, showing that in Mr. Lodge's belief Mr. Hamilton, if living to-day, "would probably be foremost in urging a revision of the tariff," and that he "would not be one of those who support heavy duties in order to furnish to industries already firmly established a protection which accrues solely to the benefit of the manufacturer, and no one else." Then the following colloquy ensued :

Mr. Lodge—What is the date of that book ?
Mr. Wilson—1883.
Mr. Lodge—The copyright date ?
Mr. Wilson—1882.
Mr. Lodge—That was before the revision of 1883.
Mr. Wilson—When that was written, the average tariff in this country was 42.65 per cent., and now it is 47.1 per cent.

The revision of 1883! Mr. Lodge would have us believe that the revision of 1883 reduced the heavy duties that furnish to industries already firmly established a protection which accrues solely to the benefit of the manufacturer, and no one else. The difference between the copyright date and the date of publication, upon which Mr. Lodge lays such stress, must imply that he referred to the revision recommended by the Tariff Commission of 1882, which favored a reduction of duties equal to 20 or 25 per cent., and not to the revision actually made by Congress in 1883, in which the general recommendations of the Commission were completely ignored.

The snag against which Mr. Lodge ran is one which the scholar in politics is very apt to strike when he sinks the scholar in the politician. In fact, we fear, now that Mr. Wilson has given the hint, that Mr. Lodge will find a great number of disagreeable quotations from his own writings confronting him when he comes to make his speech on the tariff. For example, it would be just like some impertinent revenue reformer to bring up what the author of the 'Life of Hamilton' had to say about the taxation of whiskey: "No one will now question that Hamilton selected the most appropriate subject for taxation, which, in its nature, should always be taxed before anything else, and as heavily as it will bear." Still, Mr. Lodge would have a very ready reply, if he should be honest enough to make it, and it would be precisely what he said in reference to the opposition to Hamilton's excise measures: "The real difficulty was political, not economical." Mr. Lodge was at pains to speak, in answer to Mr. Wilson, of his "convictions" on the tariff remaining the same now as in 1882. Really, he has himself made this pretence unnecessary. In his 'Life of Webster' he put his position, and that of a great many of his party, in its true light. Speaking of the Senator's apostasy in 1828, in voting for the "Tariff of Abominations" in the face of his well-known economical convictions—an apostasy which, as has been remarked, was the premonition of the 7th of March performance—Mr. Lodge says: "Webster's course was a sectional one, but everybody else's on this question was the same, and it could not be, it never has been, and never will be otherwise." We shall await the "sectional" speech of the member from Massachusetts with great interest.

The Senate on Thursday adopted a resolution looking in the same direction as Senator Hale's investigation, calling upon the Secretary of the Treasury for detailed information as to all removals and appointments among the employees of the New York Customhouse since March 4, 1885. If nothing has happened in that establishment to bring discredit on any one since that date, it is but just to the officers, in these times of suspicion, that the fact should be made public in some authentic way. If, on the contrary, the civil-service rules have been evaded, or appointments or removals have been made in a way which is calculated to lower the President in the eyes of his supporters, it is but right that his attention should be called to it, and the voters made aware of it.

A Congressman recently received a letter from a man who served in the regular army before the war, and who now claims that he incurred disability at that remote period, asking that he might be given a pension. The request appears ridiculous, and yet a veto of a private-pension bill sent in by the President on Thursday shows that Congress has almost reached the point of granting pensions which have no closer relation to service in the Union Army during the civil war. A bill was passed granting a pension to the widow of Oscar B. Mills, who was appointed acting third assistant engineer in the navy in October, 1862, was promoted to the place of second assistant engineer in 1864, and served throughout the war without incurring any disability. In 1872 he was retired on the ground that he was laboring under general debility, resulting from a fever, but there was no pretence that his fever was contracted before 1868. On the 10th of August, 1873, he was accidentally shot and killed by a neighbor who was attempting to shoot an owl, and on this showing Congress proposed to grant his widow a pension. The President well says, in the message refusing his approval of the act: "As long as there is the least pretence of limiting the bestowal of pensions to disability or death in some way related to the incidents of military or naval service, claims of this description cannot consistently be allowed."

The *Tribune* appears to have gone a little crazy in contemplating the sins of Secretary Fairchild in the way of inflating the currency. It recites a supposed pledge of the present Administration that it "would resist every form of inflation, and especially prevent silver inflation." And now, it asks, "What of the performance?" Then it answers its own question thus:

"There has been an enormous expansion of the currency, and especially of silver notes issued. The amount of silver coin in circulation has increased $20,000,000, and the amount of silver certificates from $113,000,000 to $194,000,000. The circulation of gold certificates has also increased from $38,000,000 to $96,000,000. It is not just now to the point to discuss whether this has been wise or unwise. The fact is, that there has been an enormous expansion of the currency under a President who was represented as favoring a sound currency, and particularly as hostile to silver inflation."

Did the *Tribune* ever hear of the silver-coinage act, passed in President Hayes's Administration, which requires the Secretary of the Treasury to purchase silver bullion and coin not less than $2,000,000 worth per month? Does it know of the existence of a law requiring the Secretary to give silver certificates to anybody who deposits silver dollars in the Treasury and asks for them? Would the *Tribune* favor the policy on the part of the Secretary of ignoring the law and refusing to execute it? Would it recommend that after the silver dollars have been coined the Secretary should refuse them to anybody who wanted them and was willing to buy them at the price of 100 cents each? Why not state the sins of the Secretary in plain English, so that we may see whether there is any chance for absolution in this world or the next?

The firm of W. T. Coleman & Co. of San Francisco, which has just made an assignment for the benefit of its creditors, is another of those firms whcih have been brought to grief by Cleveland, or Mills, or somebody in politics. Many firms, as we can all remember, were getting along beautifully until Cleveland's nomination began to be talked of. The public then stopped buying their wares, and down they came. Our readers may recall the case of one firm which was ruined in the midst of prosperity by the general refusal of the public to buy steel springs, when it began to be rumored that Cleveland would get the Democratic nomination. "No more steel springs for us," the people said, "till we see whether this nomination will really be made." The experience of W. T. Coleman & Co. has been somewhat similar in its tragedy. Their assets, they say, are "$4,000,000 to $4,500,000," their liabilities "about $2,000,000." One would suppose that a firm which could make such a showing as this would pull through without difficulty—that plenty of help would be offered in many quarters. Unhappily, the firm had some "borax properties" with which they expected to save themselves; but what does the Committee of Ways and Means do but put borax on the free list in the new tariff bill? After this, there was no hope for W. T. Coleman & Co. The creditors, when they heard that borax was on the free list, broke off all negotiations, and the firm had to fail. It was in vain they showed the creditors their $4,000,000 to $4,500,000 other good assets. They kept saying: "Aye, but look at your borax. What is to become of your borax ? Who will now buy borax?" and other observations of a similarly heartless character.

It is thus that changes in the tariff overwhelm proud houses.

The end to the C., B. and Q. strike, which we might almost call the usual end, has come at last. The "strike" has for over a month consisted simply in the support of the strikers and their families out of the funds of the Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers, and in the communication to the newspapers of flattering tales about the incompetency of the new men employed by the company, and of the growing indignation of the public with the way the road was managed, and of the certainty of "victory" in the near future. Why strikes are prolonged after the strikers' places are filled is one of the mysteries of the "labor problem" which cannot be solved with our present means of information as to what goes on in trades unions. It must be in large part due, however, to some sort of deception practised on the men by their leaders, but it was generally supposed that the work of humbug was more difficult among the engineers than in other labor organizations. The strike has not been formally declared "off," but the men are at last convinced that the road can do without them, and accordingly the Chairman of the Grievance Committee makes this most melancholy but familiar announcement:

"The strike has not been declared off formally. The men, however, have been allowed to secure their old places with the company at the best terms they can get, whenever they can do so; and those who can't get work here will go somewhere else. A meeting of the Grievance Committee has been called, and what it may decide to do I can't say."

Probably no outsider can form any adequate idea of the amount of disappointment, and heart-sickness, and privation which this formula covers up. But it must be said for the strikers that they have been on the whole very peaceable, and have done little damage, considering that they have been laboring under the belief that the company was wrongfully keeping them out of places which they were entitled to keep on their own terms for an indefinite period.

The Harvard Overseers have fallen into the pit of compromise on the subject of intercollegiate athletic contests. Instead of frankly following up the principle of action indicated by the admitted evils, and expressed in the report of the large majority of its committee, they have adopted the minority report, but with modifications which make it even more unpalatable to the undergraduates. They recommend confining the contests to university teams and virtually to New England colleges, saying that such contests "should take place only in Cambridge, New Haven, and such other New England city or town as the Committee on Athletics may from time to time designate." Moreover, the time for holding them should be only Saturdays and holidays. The *Crimson*, in a very outspoken article, calls this a monstrous proposition, of which the practical result will be the abolition of the contests sought to be regulated. And, indeed, it is self-evident that, in taking Harvard out of the League, defeat is invited in any encounter (except boating) with Yale, for want of the same discipline against first-rate antagonists; and regular defeat means discouragement and disgust for the loser. Nor, we suppose, is it certain that, under the new conditions, Yale would condescend to play with Harvard at all, while to be shut up to the minor New England colleges would be intolerable to Harvard. The Overseers are therefore accused of seeking indirectly the end which they affect to repudiate. The *Crimson* hints at rebellion; but most significant is its remark that "such a radical change in the whole athletic system would, we firmly believe, put the axe to the roots of our social system as well." No observer of the relation between "society," wealth, and extravagance and athletics at Harvard can doubt the truth of this.

An impression exists, and it is apparently well founded, that Mr. Matthew Arnold's last article on America attracted scarcely any attention in England, and this not from any habit of non-attention to Mr. Arnold's writings in general, but because the article itself was superficial and not worthy of Mr. Arnold's great reputation. In this respect it resembled some of Mr. Carlyle's later objurgations on the same theme, which were treated by his English admirers and friends as the pardonable eccentricities of genius. But in one quarter of England Mr. Arnold's article continues to excite profound emotion. Mr. G. W. Smalley, the Norfolk squire, returns to the subject in the *Tribune* of last Sunday in a deeply affecting letter, which shows how the life-long friendship and intimacy that existed between Smalley and Arnold was lacerated by the article. In a former communication public attention had been drawn to the modern Damon and Pythias, and to the estrangement threatened by the untimely publication of the article. One could hardly resist the conviction that if Mr. Arnold had submitted his manuscript to Smalley beforehand, the distressful consequences would have been avoided. Recurring to the subject in his last letter, Smalley protests that it is altogether a mistake for Americans to say that they don't care what Arnold thought about their want of porters and cheap cabs at railway stations, and their other shortcomings, which made his visit so uncomfortable. "You do care, and you must care," says Smalley, because "in no conceivable event can the relations between the United States and England be a matter of indifference to the people of either country."

How closely these relations were bound up in the friendship between Arnold and Smalley, which was put in such peril by the article, is shown by a number of letters which passed between them at various times during the past five years. It would seem that but for the sudden death of Mr. Arnold this era of good feeling, so profitable to the two countries, might have resulted in permanent coolness, because Mr. Smalley acknowledges, in a penitential way, that when the article appeared he wrote a severe letter to Mr. Arnold, hauling him over the coals, setting forth, no doubt, the danger of an international rupture in the presence of the unsettled fishery dispute. But now that the grave has put an end to all possible complications, the country—both countries—will be touched to learn that Smalley deeply regrets that he spoke so sharply to Mr. Arnold, and that he would gladly recall those hasty words, as thus:

"From the general judgment I formed and expressed upon his 'Civilization in the United States' I cannot depart, but if there were a word in it which pained him as coming from a friend, I would give anything to recall it. There are many words which pain me as I look through all I have said—resentful words which add nothing to the force of the protest I wanted to make, but weaken it. I do not explain to myself how I came to use them, nor forgive myself for using them. If he had lived, it might have been no great matter; a blow given or taken is soon forgotten. But never does the *irrevocabile verbum* seem so hopelessly beyond recall as when the shadow of death has fallen upon him of whom it was said."

We are promised at least one more letter concerning Smalley and Arnold. It will set forth the final and deliberate judgment of the Norfolk squire on the literary productions of his friend before any shadow fell between them.

One of the latest adherents to Gen. Boulanger is the Rev. Hyacinthe Loyson, better known as Father Hyacinthe, who left the Catholic Church in disgust some years ago, married a wife, and has been carrying on some sort of Protestant place of worship in Paris ever since. He has been delivering a lecture on the "Republic and the Dictatorship," in which he expressed love for the republic and dislike of dictatorship, but at the same time denounced "parlementarisme." He then started off to call on Boulanger at his hôtel, but, not finding him at home, left a note in which he expressed abhorrence of anarchy and atheism, and called for "a strong, conservative, reformatory, and progressive authority—conservative of what is eternal in the life of the community, reformatory of what is bad in the inheritance of the past, and progressive in the sense of a larger application of justice and the Gospel to the physical and moral needs of the popular and laborious classes of the city and country." As no one but a brute could dissent from views of this sort, Boulanger, when he got home, sent Loyson an answer in which he said he entirely agreed with him, and added some sentiments of his own which rather eclipsed those of the minister, for he denounced government which is strong through the fear it inspired, and declared that "the people needed to be taken care of like a child," and held that it was for want of perceiving this that "parlementarisme" was going to die. Poor Loyson thought, doubtless, he was going to lift Boulanger up to a higher moral and political plane, but found that the wily Boulanger's philanthropy was several pegs higher than his own. The pastor wants to treat "the people" like boys of fourteen, while the General evidently wants to put them in petticoats and pinafores,

THE CIVIL SERVICE IN PHILADELPHIA.

We have read with care the evidence taken by the Sub-Committee of the Senate on "the operations of the civil service in Philadelphia." It shows clearly enough that Postmaster Harrity, as soon as he got into office, or rather as soon as he was confirmed, began to make changes in the Post-office which ended in something very like "a clean sweep." Now, considering the way in which offices were filled during the twenty-five years of Republican supremacy, we must not conclude that a "clean sweep" is, because clean, unjustifiable. There were undoubtedly offices in which, when President Cleveland came into power, a clean sweep was necessary for the good of the service. But in all such cases it was easy to make the necessity clear to all lawful inquirers. The unfortunate feature in Postmaster Harrity's case is, that no satisfactory explanation of his course is forthcoming or indeed seems possible; and by "satisfactory" we mean any explanation that will reconcile his performances with the President's utterances before and after his inauguration, touching the terms on which Federal officers should hold their places.

Very early in his official career, Mr. Harrity dismissed in rapid succession 113 letter-carriers without assigning any reason. Of these, 86 had been in the service for from six to twenty-seven years. Service as long as this creates a presumption of competency and efficiency in favor of any class of public officers, especially of officers like letter-carriers and sorting-clerks in a post-office, who are constantly exposed to the criticism of the public as well as to that of their superiors. No civilized Government ought, therefore, to get rid of them by wholesale, without giving the reason why. No appointing officer ought to be allowed to dispose in this summary fashion of men who have given their best years to the service of the community, without explaining to the community why it was necessary; and we never should have supposed that President Cleveland either would or could permit it—and we say this while holding firmly to the belief that the power of dismissal without explanation is one which every head of a public office ought to have, and in a great many cases must exercise.

But unfortunately we are not dependent for an explanation or any formal report upon Mr. Harrity. In fact, we get on probably better without one. He did not appear before the Sub-Committee, as Mr. Cadwalader, the Collector of the Port, did, but a swarm of dismissed carriers, working politicians, and aggrieved citizens did; and, putting all their stories together, it becomes very plain that Mr. Harrity's clean sweep was not remotely connected with the terrible fight going on in Pennsylvania between Scott and Randall, or, in other words, between the Administration and anti-Administration Democrats.

The investigation appears to have been brought about by a petition from the discharged letter-carriers, who formed some sort of association to call attention to their grievances, and a large number of them testified before the Committee. Some of this testimony is on its face of little value, but, taken altogether, it furnishes proof positive that the Post-office there has been largely remanned with political "workers"; that the political activity of the Post-office clerks and carriers, if not actually encouraged, has not been restrained; that they figure prominently at caucuses, and conventions, and ward meetings, and that their attendance at such gatherings has been facilitated and therefore encouraged by their official superiors; that the remonstrances of citizens touching the defects in the city postal service caused by these changes have been persistently disregarded by Mr. Harrity and his assistant, Mr. Drake; that new appointees were compelled, in filing their bond with two sureties, to pay a fee of $10 to Mr. Harrity's counsel and political crony—one Megargee—a charge unknown under Gen. Huidekoper, and unjustifiable under any one; that political circulars and calls have been printed in the Post-office on the Government press by the Post-office printer, either by Mr. Harrity's order, or with his knowledge and connivance. There was some, but not conclusive, testimony that assessments for political purposes have been extorted from post-office employees, but there was conclusive testimony that they pay such assessments freely, in the old belief that something disagreeable will happen to them if they do not.

Mr. Cadwalader, the Collector of the Port, came before the Committee, and made a very good showing as regards the management of the Custom-house. His account of the condition of the Custom-house service when he took charge was as follows:

> "The entire office, in my judgment, required reorganization. Every department of it was negligent and careless, and the habits of all the employees were such as I thought entirely inconsistent with the proper discipline of a public office—such as lounging and smoking, receiving visitors at all hours, newspaper reading by the clerks, general disregard of regulations, and a slipshod way of attending to all business, without exception."

He added, as the result of the change:

> "I can only say that from the time the change was made in that office, the receipts and the amount of business transacted increased in an extraordinary ratio, far beyond that of any port in the United States, until the receipts of this port have risen from $12,000,000 a year—about the highest amount ever received—until to-day they are $18,000,000, with no apparent increase of the business of the port."

This is an extraordinary statement, but it has not been gainsaid by anybody.

Of course, the condition of the Philadelphia Post-office must be regarded as a blot on President Cleveland's Administration, and also, in our opinion, a great political blunder. For Mr. Cleveland's renomination it has done simply nothing that was essential, because that renomination has been for two years a foregone conclusion. Nothing that postmasters, letter-carriers, or tidewaiters or gaugers could do could have prevented it any more than it could prevent water rising in a vacuum. What it will do is to lose him a good many votes among people who supported him four years ago on account of the enemies he had made, and who outnumber all the Federal office-holders probably twenty-fold. Nothing is more extraordinary in politics than the way in which residence in Washington magnifies the petty and servile horde who figure in politics as "workers," and dwarfs the great host of voters who, in these times, are prepared, in spite of all party ties and traditions, to stand by any candidate who convinces them that to him really and truly "public office is a public trust."

NO MONOPOLY OF ABILITY.

Previous to the inauguration of President Cleveland it was held almost as an article of the Republican creed that the ability of the country was practically monopolized by that party. The Democrats were usually charged with lack of patriotism, and accused of cherishing "treasonable schemes," to the success of which the continued dominance of the Republican party afforded "the only effective barrier," to quote the Vermont platform of 1880; but even if, in a burst of charity, they were credited with as much love of country and devotion to the public interests as Republicans, it was maintained that they lacked the ability to conduct the Government with efficiency. Nine out of ten Republicans had come to suppose that the only men qualified to fill high offices with distinction were Republicans, and that the American nation would cut but a sorry figure if its most important trusts were committed to Democrats. The Republican managers cultivated this idea as a taking argument for keeping their party indefinitely in power, and probably some narrow-minded partisans of the George F. Hoar school really believed, what that Bourbon actually said, that the Democratic party did not contain a lawyer who was up to the level of the late Chief-Justice Waite.

To the greater part of the people of the North, therefore, a most interesting and most valuable feature of the Cleveland Administration has been the revelation that there is no monopoly of ability as between the two great political organizations; but that, on the contrary, the Democratic party has men who, by the testimony of Republicans themselves, prove fully equipped for the highest positions. The first and greatest surprise of this sort was afforded by the career of Daniel Manning in the Treasury Department. His selection for that high office was the signal for a general outburst of severe criticism from the whole Republican press, and the idea that he could make even a respectable record as Secretary was deemed almost too generous. He retired only two years later with the confession by his political opponents that his name would go down to history in the short list of really great financiers, like Hamilton, Gallatin, and Chase, among the many men who have been Secretaries of the Treasury.

When Mr. Cleveland became President, James Russell Lowell occupied the most responsible post in the diplomatic service, and Republican organs—which then had only words of praise for him—used to be greatly troubled by thoughts of the discreditable comparisons which would inevitably be made

between the Republican incumbent and any possible Democratic successor. When Edward J. Phelps was appointed in his place, few people outside of New England recognized the name, but it is now admitted by everybody—except, of course, politicians who cultivate the Irish vote—that this previously almost unknown Vermont gentleman is one of the most accomplished representatives whom the nation has ever sent abroad, a man whom Republicans equally with Democrats may be proud of as a product of American institutions.

The Inter-State Commerce Bill intrusted most delicate and far-reaching power over the business of the country to a Commission of five men, three of whom were expected to be, and proved to be, Democrats. If it had been foreseen during the canvass of 1884 that this bill would be passed and this commission appointed, every Republican organ and stump-speaker would have declared that the business interests of the country could not safely turn over the selection of a body of men possessing such vast power to a President who would choose a majority of Democrats. The Commission was appointed more than a year ago, and only the most prejudiced of Republicans would to-day deny that it has done its work so remarkably well that it would be hard to see how it could possibly have been bettered.

When President Cleveland made the tariff the burning issue by his message, last December, and Speaker Carlisle appointed Roger Q. Mills Chairman of the Ways and Means Committee, many earnest advocates of reform wondered whether a mistake had not been made in selecting a man so little known to the country. Mr. Mills comes from Texas, and New England people were not much more familiar with his name than the people of Texas had been with that of Mr. Phelps. He has been in Congress several terms, but he had never come to the front as a leader of his party, and not unnaturally many people distrusted his fitness for the chairmanship of the most responsible committee. But the speech with which he opened the tariff debate three weeks ago showed that this Texas Representative not only had studied his subject deeply, but also possessed a power of stating his case which convinced every reader that here was a man worthy to stand at the front in a great controversy. A similar and hardly less gratifying surprise was afforded on Thursday, when an unknown Representative from West Virginia, William L. Wilson—who, it appears, has been lawyer, college professor, and President of his State University—leaped into prominence by a speech on the Mills bill which showed him "the scholar in politics" at his best.

Republican Presidents and Republican administrations in most of the States had been putting Republicans upon the bench for a quarter of a century, until people generally had come to think only of Republicans in connection with any vacancy in a judgeship. The highest judicial office fell vacant a few weeks ago, and has just been filled by a selection which commands the unreserved commendation of all who know the new Chief Justice. The most partisan Republican organs in his State admit that Mr. Fuller is in every way quite the equal of his predecessor, and gives on the whole better promise of a great career on the bench than did Mr. Waite fourteen years ago. Moreover, leading Republicans readily vouched for the conspicuous fitness of other Democrats—for example, William L. Putnam of Maine, Mr. Phelps of Vermont, Judge Clark of the Pennsylvania Supreme Court, Senator Gray of Delaware, and Judge Scholfield of the Illinois Supreme Court.

It is well to have it demonstrated that the ability of the nation is divided between the parties, and that either possesses enough to serve the country with honor. It probably never occurred to a man like Senator Hoar, but in point of fact his theory involved the failure of popular government. If it were really true, at the end of our first century, that one party monopolized the ability of the nation, democratic institutions had already broken down, and their final collapse was at hand. A nation almost evenly divided between two parties, while one of those parties was incapable of ruling it, could not long endure.

REMEDIES FOR OVERCROWDING.

It is easy to point out the evils and dangers due to the growth of large cities. It is much harder to suggest any practical means of meeting them. Three distinct methods have been proposed. The first may be described under the general name of tenement-house reform. Much good has been done in this way, and we should like to see it carried a great deal further than it has been; but at the same time it cannot be regarded as in any sense a solution of the difficulty. It is only a palliative, and a slight one at best. Improved sanitary arrangements require more space than the poorest people have in the crowded city districts. The effort to give them a little breathing room at one point only creates greater pressure at another. If under the new system thirty people occupy the ground which formerly was inhabited by fifty, what becomes of the other twenty? They seek homes in some adjacent district, and add new fierceness to the struggle for standing-room there. If we give elbow-room to a few persons in a crowd, it simply readjusts the pressure. It does not remove it; on the whole it tends to increase it.

Nor do these improvements generally accomplish the desired result for those who most stand in need of it. It has been the experience in England that model tenements were used not by those for whom they were originally designed, but by persons a grade or two higher in the social scale. Instead of giving the poorest people better accommodations at the same price which they had been paying for worse ones, they have often given people in moderate circumstances the same accommodations to which they were accustomed at a lower price than they had been paying. This may or may not have been an equally desirable result; at any rate it was not the result originally proposed by the promoters of the scheme. As for the evils of crowding, it increased rather than lessened them.

The experience of Mülhausen was described at length in these columns a few months ago. This was a case where the policy of model tenements was pursued systematically. What was the result? Some of them were occupied by workmen of the better class, to whom they formed a source of comfort and economy. Others, which were occupied by the lowest class, soon became as crowded and as vile as the buildings which they were designed to supersede. Different rooms were sublet to different families; and the cottages, as thus perverted from their original design, proved in some respects worse than the old tenements intended for several families and arranged with that end in view. The experience of Mülhausen seems to prove that even the most systematic tenement-house reform treats the symptom without touching the disease.

A similar objection applies to Henry George's proposed remedy, the second of the three which we are considering. George thinks that if more taxes were put upon ground-rent and less upon improvements, the available space would be better utilized, and a great many men who are not followers of George in his extreme theories agree with this proposition when stated in its moderate form. Within limits, it is undoubtedly true. If the population remained the same, the improved utilization of space would do much towards relieving the difficulty. The trouble is that the population would not remain the same. As more room was made, the city would fill up faster. The fact that space was better utilized would make it a more desirable place of business or residence. The advantage of freer space, whether it were great or small, would be neutralized by the influx of increased crowds. George's remedy goes a little deeper than that of the tenement-house reformers, but it by no means reaches the bottom of the difficulty.

What has been the reason for the rapid growth of large cities? Many causes might be named, but the most important one is the great development of means of transportation, and especially of railroads. Before the invention of railroads it would have been impossible even to feed a population like that of London at the present day. Our experience in the recent snow-storm will bring this aspect of the matter forcibly before the minds of New Yorkers. It is to railroad service more than any other one thing that the growth of large cities is due. It is here, if anywhere, that the cause of crowding is to be sought and the remedy to be applied. This is the last of the three remedies to which we referred, and one which seems to offer a better chance of success than either of the others.

The effect of railroads upon cities has been of two kinds. The freight business had the effect of increasing their size, both by centralizing industry in large masses and by increasing the means by which such centres could be supplied with food. It at once widened the area over which a city could distribute its products and that from which it could be supplied with food. The passenger business, on the whole, had an opposite tendency. It enabled people to live at a greater distance from their work; if neces-

sary, to do business in the city and sleep in the country. But of these different tendencies of freight and passenger business the former was much the stronger; and it unfortunately happens that the policy of American railroads has given the fullest play to the centralizing tendencies of the freight business, while it has left undeveloped certain possibilities in the passenger business which might have been used to counteract them.

The low rates given to producers in large cities, as compared with intermediate points, have been a fruitful source of crowding. If a manufacturer was deciding whether to locate his works in the city or in the country, he carefully balanced the advantages of the two. In the city he was in close communication with his customers; in the country he had more room, lower rents, and lower taxes. There was a fair balance between the two. But when the railroads gave preferential rates to the city, they put an unfair weight in the balance. They made it necessary for the manufacturer to locate in the city, irrespective of other conditions. They made the trade centre the centre of production also. A city is almost of necessity a trade centre; it is not thus necessarily a centre of production. The good of city life springs largely from the former character, the evil from the latter. By crowding the factories we crowd the workmen; we deprive them of breathing space, and produce all sorts of dangers to health, morals, and social order. In the end we sometimes hamper trade itself by the intensity of the pressure of productive industry about it.

Something of this is inevitable; the real ground of complaint against the railroads is that they have allowed it to be increased to an unnecessary and artificial extent, by a policy from which the community suffered, while the owner of city real estate was the only one to reap the benefit. So far as the short-haul clause of the Inter-State Commerce Law can check this, it will be a decided public benefit. But even if the factories are in the city, it is possible that workingmen's homes may be in the country. It is to some extent, though not wholly, a question of cost. If fares be made cheap enough, a great many people will be found to take advantage of them. Such, at least, has been the experience in Belgium and Saxony, and to a less extent in Prussia, Austria, and England. The workmen's trains in Massachusetts did not have rates low enough really to test the principle. It is quite possible that a train charging a cent a mile should be less profitable than one charging half-a-cent a mile. If the traffic at half-a-cent a mile is something new which you have created by your policy, it may be made profitable—witness the experience of our roads with commutation rates. If the traffic at one cent a mile is much of it simply transferred from other trains, it is distinctly unprofitable. All depends upon whether the traffic is new or simply transferred. The European roads find that by running workmen's trains at half-a-cent a mile or less they obtain new traffic on a large scale. It is simply the commutation theory, with a weekly instead of a quarterly subscription. Our commutation rates are low enough, but the workman has neither the capital nor the steadiness of employment to make it possible for him to take full advantage of them.

We do not look to legislation to secure this result, but to the self-interest of the railroads. They have developed long-distance traffic until it has become unprofitable. If they are to make money in the future, it must be largely by local traffic. A policy of the kind here suggested brings not merely the direct return from the trains themselves, but a large incidental traffic between the homes in the country and the source of supplies in the city. We cannot help thinking that in this matter our railroad officials will soon see that the public interest is their interest also.

It is one question where people shall sell their goods, another where they shall manufacture them; still another where their workmen shall live. There can be but one answer to the first question. It must be in the city—probably even more so in the future than in the past. But it by no means follows that the second and third questions must be answered in the same way. So far as the present state of things can be traced to the adoption or to the omission of special lines of railroad policy, there is reason to hope for a change, by which factories and homes shall become more scattered even in the face of increasing concentration of trade.

THE RUMANIAN PEASANT REVOLT.

The disturbances in Rumania, which, according to cable reports, have broken out anew, this time near the Russian frontier, were undoubtedly fomented by Russian intrigue, although the wretched economic condition of the peasantry alone would be a sufficient explanation of the rising. In spite of the natural fertility of the soil, the Rumanian peasant, ground down by the exactions of the tenant-farming capitalists, is at best unable to make more than a bare living by his labor. The failure of last year's maize crop and the unusual hardships of the past winter completed the general dissatisfaction, and the seductive promises and inflammatory appeals of Russian emissaries and native demagogues found willing ears.

For the past year itinerant Russian picture-dealers have been impressing the simple villagers with portraits—gratuitously distributed if necessary—of the Czar of Russia, surrounded by the other European monarchs as by satellites, and looking down benignly on two kneeling Rumanian and Bulgarian peasants; and the hope has been freely held out that if the Rumanian Government did not grant the demand for a redistribution of the land, the Russian liberator soon would. In their turn the adherents of the late Premier, Bratiano, and those of the present Premier, Rosetti, accuse each other of deceiving the peasantry by false promises. The Young-Conservatives, whom Rosetti represents, assert that Bratiano, immediately after suppressing the first rising at Urticeni, spread the report that if he resigned and Rosetti became Premier, the new Cabinet would submit to the Chambers a proposal to reduce all the peasant holdings in number. The Old-Conservatives, on the other hand, maintain that even while Bratiano was still in power, the followers of Rosetti poisoned the minds of the villagers by relating to them that the late Prince Cuza had left to every municipality the sum of 5,000 francs, which, however, was surreptitiously withheld by Bratiano. "March into the cities and demand your rights," is said to have been the Old-Conservative advice.

Whatever the cause of the revolt, the effect has been very serious. Originating in the village of Urticeni, in the district of Jalomitza, it soon spread to the neighboring districts of Prahova and Ilvof, and to the villages of Afumaz, Stefanesci, Branesci, and others in the immediate vicinity of the capital, Bucharest. The tenant farmers, local mayors, and village priests bore the brunt of the fury of the mob. Everywhere the cry was for the redistribution of the land and for restitution of the Russian gift money wrongfully withheld. In some places the village officials were asked to promulgate immediately a law supposed to have been enacted, but never executed, reducing the share of the farmers in the yield of the peasant's labor from one-third to one-tenth. The Mayor of Stefanesci, who attempted to argue with the mob, was cruelly murdered, and those of Afumaz and other places and a number of priests were severely wounded. The farmers fled in terror to Bucharest, whence several regiments of cavalry were finally despatched to the centres of the revolt, which about two weeks ago was reported as quelled.

The new Premier, Rosetti, in the meanwhile, when interpellated in the Chambers by the Opposition as to his intentions, declared that for the present he would refrain from announcing a programme, that the country was too agitated to make the dissolution of the Chambers and an appeal to the electors safe. He added that while convinced of the necessity of dissolution, he would not, in compliance with the demands of the Opposition, dissolve the Chambers as a prerequisite to their passing of the ministerial budget. The *Romania Libera*, the organ of the Young-Conservatives, defines the ministerial programme in the usual official phrases as one aiming at "the pacification of the public mind," "the checking of abuses," "the punishment of every law-breaker," etc., etc., and the Minister of Foreign Affairs, Mr. P. Carp, has promised to regulate the monetary standard, to establish fixity of judicial tenure, to modify the conmmunal laws, and to promote the cause of higher education. But while these assurances have been potent enough to secure to the Rosetti Ministry the temporary support of a few National Liberal and Old-Conservative Deputies and Senators, it is evident that nothing short of a thorough agrarian reform will permanently satisfy the peasantry, and prevent the rekindling of the riots whose consequences may affect wider interests than those of Rumania.

THE RIVIERA.

NICE, April 18, 1888.

THE present season on the Riviera has been, on the whole, not a successful one, neither the climate nor the weather having been such as is usually expected. On the 29th of December snow to the depth of five inches occurred, killing many fine plants and orange trees, and for a few days causing much distress and rendering the streets and promenades unendurable. There have also been an unwonted number of cold, raw winds, with frequent abrupt changes of temperature. This applies to the littoral as a whole. The marked lack of visitors has not been wholly due to the fear of a repetition of earthquakes (though the one of last year is still in vivid remembrance), but is in all likelihood due to the universal shrinkage in incomes. The leisure class is diminishing enormously in Europe, particularly among the English—the bulk of the visitors—and these are falling off correspondingly. When one considers the economic condition of the land-holding class among the English people, the "Irish question," with its widespreading injury, the diminution of profits in corporate enterprises, and the very general feeling of insecurity regarding social problems and the peace of Europe, the cause is readily perceived.

Cannes, with its many exclusive villas—here the "hotel boarder" has been nearly driven out by the "cottager"—has shown this as much as the more cosmopolitan Nice, and though it really seems to offer a better health site, more protection from harsh winds, and a more orderly local population, yet it is evident that more villas are unoccupied this season than ever before, and the hotels are mainly given up to visitors of a few days only. The town is beautifully situated, the environs are well wooded, roads are less dusty and white, and there seems to be a greater profusion, if not variety, of vegetation, than in the resorts further to the eastward along the shore. There is no more charming spot on all the coast than that in the vicinity of St. George's Chapel, erected in memory of the Duke of Albany by the Queen, the whole side of the hill being given up to elegant cottages and villas, surrounded by the most lovely parks and gardens, the drives leading to the highest peak, which overlooks the region for miles, and is named "California." Here are situated the villas of the royal family of England.

The usual attractions are held out by all the municipalities, including public music, fêtes, balls, carnivals with confetti and flower battles (very tame this year), and flower fairs—most interesting and beautiful exhibitions of the floral capabilities of this favored region. The Nice carnival requires more than a week's time and prodigious labor, and is a unique performance, yet very ridiculous, and tawdry to the last degree. The city shows but few signs of last year's earthquake, and the city government manage excellently well the repairing of buildings and streets, so that the damage done has been obliterated, and it is hard to realize that such a tremendous shaking-up ever occurred here. For those in search of amusement, social as well as public, such as balls plain, balls masked, and balls mixed, public display, the horse-play of a carnival, wide, dusty streets, and the presence of many thousands of questionable people among its population, Nice has much in its favor. Excepting Monaco, including Monte Carlo, all the other resorts offer in probably greater degree more shelter, purer air, and all the elements of a quiet, healthful sojourn. For a few months San Remo has been signally full of people, the Germans being in possession.

It is well known that many questionable characters of both sexes frequenting Monte Carlo habitually reside in Nice, where the police have them registered to the number of over two thousand. These people are always seen on the trains, in the hotels and cafés, gaming-rooms, and theatres. In the gaming-rooms crowds of visitors are always to be seen during the season. There are now nine large tables constantly in use, three for trente-quarante, at which the minimum wager is one napoleon (about four dollars); and six for roulette, the lowest wager being five francs (one dollar). At the opening of the doors at eleven A. M. daily, Sundays included, the crowd that has been collecting for the previous fifteen minutes rushes in for seats and favorite places at tables, and the last play finishes near 11 P. M. It is an extraordinary spectacle to see gray-haired men and women, pale, dissipated adventurers of both sexes, the anxious and deperate, with here and there the casual self-respecting, yet curious, tourist, all pell-mell rushing over the polished floors in a mad grab for place to sit and gamble on the turn of a card or of the fascinating wheel. These people are all well dressed, and must have their addresses and selves scrutinized before being given a ticket of admission, which is sometimes issued daily. The rooms are lofty and palatial and the decorations superb.

The beautiful theatre is always offering attractive music, drama, and opera; and the weekly classical concerts here given gratis, under the direction of Arthur Steck, by an orchestra of nearly a hundred fine musicians, are probably not surpassed anywhere. On some occasions of operatic performances large prices of admission are charged, but the usual daily afternoon and evening concerts are free to all the Casino visitors. This building stands upon a rock and has no proper system of drainage, and for this reason the air in parts of the building and in the gaming-rooms is at all times foul and oppressive—palpably so to one first entering.

The neighborhood of Monte Carlo is superior to any on the Riviera for pure comfort of living to invalids: rain and harsh winds are less frequent, and the daily range of temperature seems to be not so great or sudden; but there is far less diversity of occupation or amusement. The gardens and park are extremely interesting and instructive, for here one sees, growing in the open air in winter, a surprising number of magnificent specimens of indigenous and exotic plants, while the walks, though limited, are beautiful, containing many charming views. Local writers along the Riviera are prolific in descriptions of the beneficent and healthful qualities of their several favorite resorts, and one reads of tonic, excitant tonic, sedative tonic climates, and the dreaded mistral in varying quantity, in contiguous localities, with more or less bewildering refinement in treating of the influences of the sea, sun, or the various adjacent slopes. The best that can be said is, broadly, that these mountain-protected shores, exposed to sunshine the majority of days, give certain invalids a near retreat during the harsh northern winter, and only a partial outdoor life; but with the defects of lime-dusty roads, sudden temperature changes on the declining of the sun, bad drainage and water supply in parts, and poor meats (compared with our standard). The dryness of the air is also not always desirable in lung and throat disorders. When the mistral is abroad, one must remain indoors by the fire to be comfortable. It is said that there are no warm houses in France or Italy in winter, and to the average American of hot-house habits and tender throat this is above all the greatest annoyance.

The commercial treaty being in suspense, there is a war of tariff rates, almost prohibitory in its effects, between France and Italy, and the ordinary market products and wines (for Italy in great part feeds the Riviera) are trebly taxed now. There is much jealousy and ill-feeling and frequent small difficulties at the frontier, and it is quite possible that the Italians in France may yet go into Coventry along with the Teuton, if matters are not better accommodated in the near future. There is also agitated the project of steam communication between Nice and Algiers, but this is manifestly improbable, as the former has nothing to send in return, on a paying basis, for the food supplies from the latter country. There are now, however, infrequent steamers from Algiers stopping here en route to Genoa.

War preparations continue on both sides, and huge guns are being transported to new works on the mountains, even to their tops, in prominent and commanding positions, while by sea the huge ironclads and torpedo vessels patrol the coast. There is even evidence of an adaptability to war purposes in the masonry work of the railway tunnels, common roads, and embankments. The many garrisons and recently constructed workshops and barracks for troops all bear witness to the prevailing activity. Still, the people are habituated to these things and continue farming their vegetables, orange and olive groves, at a fair profit, catering to the wants of the stranger, whose money is usually cast about freely. With it all, the unreading peasant buries or secretes his savings as he has ever done in the past: one frequently comes upon bright new coins minted a score of years ago.

In old Nice probably half of the population are Italian, but they are fast forgetting their native country and its heroes, and the statue of Garibaldi projected for his native city is in abeyance for lack of funds. The Italian Consulate in its activity resembles one of our county-office buildings with its staff of clerks, waiting-rooms, attendants, shelves full of registers upon all subjects from the coming in to the going out of the world, and its general importance to many of the inhabitants. The consular officer in charge is a man of note in his country, and affixes his signature to documents like a minister of state, using the surname only.

C. A. SIEGFRIED.

FREDERICK THE GREAT AND GERMAN LITERATURE.

BERLIN, April 22, 1888.

A SERIES of excellent articles have been from time to time appearing on the relation of Frederick to German literature. These have now been collected and revised, and were recently published in book form under the title, 'Friedrichs des Grossen Schrift über die Deutsche Litteratur.' The author of this charming brochure is Prof. Bernhard Suphan, keeper of the Goethe archives in Weimar. In Weimar, now, as a century ago, centres to a large extent the literary interest of Germany. The earnest enthusiasm of her Royal Highness the Grand Duchess of Saxe-Weimar, whose property the archives are, has summoned to the task of editing these treasures in monumental form the best talent and learning of Germany. It is about one year since Prof. Suphan was called to the position he now occupies, and of his address on Herder and Goethe, at the May meeting of the Goethe Society, a correspondent of

the *Nation* gave at the time an account. The greatest debt of the literary world to Prof. Suphan, however, is the first critical and satisfactory edition of Herder's works, which is now nearing completion. It is from this graceful pen that we have the five instructive chapters on Frederick's essay, which suggested the present letter. The book is dedicated to Herman Grimm.

The last half of the eighteenth century in Germany must be designated as the era of Frederick the Great and Goethe. For the first time in the literary history of 2,000 years, we have a great literary epoch for which the name of the greatest contemporary ruler is an inadequate description. The names of Augustus, Charlemagne, Elisabeth, Louis XIV., call up each a complete notion of the period in which they lived, and of the production, artistic, literary, political, industrial, and economical, that went on about them. The name of Frederick the Great, however, associates itself only with an age of martial heroism and brilliant victory, of vigorous economic administration, the establishment of Prussian prestige, and the deepening of the national self-respect. His name does not suggest that the years of his famous successes were also the years when German literature was ripening to maturity, and the first fruits had already fallen. Goethe!—and all the productions in the fields of art, poetry, philosophy, and science through a half-century of earnest effort and brilliant achievement, are recalled in association with that name. The sum of the last half of the preceding century amounts to Frederick the Great and Goethe. Lessing, with all his admiration for the Prussian King, denies him every claim to thanks at the hands of German literature, but adds: "I should not be willing to swear that a flatterer may not one day come who will think well of calling the present era of German literature the era of Frederick the Great." This fear has not been realized, but there are reasons why his name should be associated with that of Goethe, even in speaking specifically of the literary epoch—but of this more hereafter.

Frederick's celebrated essay, 'De la Littérature Allemande,' appeared in 1780. It is in the form of a letter, and begins with a rapid sketch of the history of universal literature. Of England's great era we find recognition under the names of Milton and (particularly) of Bacon, but of Shakspere's works only the drastic mention: "les abominables pièces de Schakespear, . . . ces farces ridicules et dignes des sauvages du Canada." For this bungler, however, there is some excuse: "On peut pardonner à Schakespear ces écarts bizarres, car la naissance des arts n'est jamais le point de leur maturité." But what excuse can be found for a 'Götz von Berlichingen,' an "imitation détestable de ces mauvaises pièces angloises, et le Parterre applaudit et demande avec enthousiasme la répétition de ces dégoûtantes platitudes."

For the good work that had begun to appear, Frederick had no understanding. In an effort to give the devil his due, he mentions with praise a poem and poet both long since forgotten, and professes to discover in the work an agreeable cadence, of which he had not believed the German language capable. Of Lessing, Wieland, Klopstock, Herder, there is no word. But upon this circumstance, and upon the oft-quoted passages above, too much weight has been laid. They have an historical interest for the curious, but they do not characterize the essay. It is not polemical, nor was it intended to check the growing influence of the English drama. The historical representatives of German literature were still adherents of the French school. Only the younger generation had broken with the traditions, and of these writers Goethe alone receives so much as mention. The absurd passages which Frederick cites as examples of German bad taste are such as he would not have attributed even to a Shakspere. Nothing could be more ridiculous than the charge which chauvinistic mediocrity brought against him, as later against the author of 'Hermann und Dorothea,' of a lack of patriotism and German sympathy. The real spirit of the essay is one of earnest endeavor towards a better state of things.

It is not the method of his friend Voltaire. Frederick is constructive, and takes hold of his subject with a firm, practical grasp. He seeks the way to improvement, and looks confidently into the future with prophetic visions that have been most brilliantly realized. He lays great weight upon the study of the ancient languages and literature, points out the necessity of good translations in lieu of feeble imitations, and seeks the standard of taste in France. The importance of purifying and perfecting the German language is especially emphasized. In consequence of the numerous and deeply rooted dialects in Germany, the establishment of an Academy, to the decisions of which absolute submission be required, seemed unavoidably demanded. A certain justifiable particularism has rendered an "Academie der Sprache" impossible to this day, but the idea has not been lost sight of, as an address of Prof. Du Bois-Reymond in 1874 shows. To Frederick, the impossibility of a national literature in an imperfect tongue was clear. His suggestions for rendering the language euphonious were less happy (as adding to consonantal endings an *a*: *nehmen-a*, *geben-a*, etc.), but everywhere is the vigorous practical attempt to point out the way, excite discussion, and rouse the talent and learning of the land to earnest efforts in rendering possible and eventually creating a German national literature, worthy of a place among the greatest of the world.

Fourteen years before Frederick wrote these words, a dissertation upon modern German literature had secured for Herder the first prize from the Academie der Wissenschaften in Berlin, and that dissertation had become a kind of rule of faith for the younger generation. Of this dissertation, however, Frederick's essay makes no mention, and it is, therefore, highly interesting to notice, what Prof. Suphan points out, how nevertheless, in almost all essential points, the views and aims of the young Herder in 1766 coincide with those expressed by the King of Prussia in 1780. Though the one seeks his standards of taste in England and the other in France, both are conscious of the feebleness of German literature, both are striving towards a fundamental bettering of its condition, both recognize that to this end the language must first be perfected, both insist upon a study of the classics and demand careful translations, not imitations, both see the day of attainment coming, both think it still afar off, but both are laboring unrestingly in earnest towards the same goal. Frederick prophesies the time "when the German language, polished and perfected, will be taught in the schools of France and the fame of its literature be spread from one end of Europe to the other. . . . The days are not yet come, but they are nearing. I announce them to you; they will appear; I shall not see them; my age forbids me to hope it. I am like Moses. I see the promised land in the distance, but I shall not enter it." He was already across the Jordan and knew it not.

It was natural that the 'De la Littérature Allemande,' coming from the throne upon which the eyes of all Europe rested, should be everywhere read and should everywhere make deep impression. It is interesting to note its effect upon the literary generation which it in silence condemned. Schiller was but twenty-one when it appeared, and could hardly have claimed for his wild republican dramas a hearing at the court of Prussia. Of the works of Goethe, all the greatest were yet to come. Frederick died in 1786. A few days later occurred the event which we, at this distance of time, may regard as a turning point in the history of German literature, the close of the *Sturm und Drang*, the beginning of the classic period. Goethe stole forth from Carlsbad, and the Italian journey was begun. So far as dates can be given to intellectual movements, the importance of Goethe as a power in our modern life may be dated from that time. All that had found its final form at his hands before the Italian journey belongs essentially to an age with which we are no longer in sympathy. Those works which are evidence to us of Goethe's greatness were still crescent—fragmentary MSS. in his pocket, or as yet merely visions without local habitation and a name. That Frederick found little to admire in what had already appeared is, all things considered, no great wonder, for Shakspere was not yet crowned in Germany, and dramas in the Shaksperian manner were something too new and opposed to the traditional taste to find acceptance at sight. But it was natural, too, that the silently implied condemnation of the Prussian King should rouse enmity and opposition even among those who were in agreement with the main principles of his essay. The importance of the royal utterances was very generally recognized, but everywhere were murmurs of injustice, lack of patriotism, Francomania, and the like. Among the princes, even, we hear some private epistolary disapproval.

No one, however, flew into so great a rage as good old Klopstock. As self-elected literary dictator, he sat hugging the conviction that his efforts had brought the German tongue at last to perfection, while Herder, the most polished prose-writer of his time, still saw perfection afar off. From this dream of attainment Frederick's essay was for Klopstock a rude awakener. He had more than once doubted Frederick's claim to immortality, as several discontented odes bear witness, but, after the publication of this essay, he is no longer in doubt, the doors of the temple of fame shall be closed against Frederick for ever. Scarcely less angry was Hamann of Königsberg, the "wise man of the North," who, some years before, had attempted to convert the Prussian King, and supply him with clearer views in general concerning literature and its representatives. But hints of a sojourn in Spandau induced Hamann to retain his article in MS. A letter to Herder gives his wrath vent: "Such Herculean pudenda of ignorance and presumption are the real character of his (Frederick's) greatness. He treats our literature with his foreign goose-quill as the lying prophet Balaam his ass; it has already bent the knee. The miracle will not be wanting: an answer in the divine speech of the gods." A worthy answer did, indeed, come—a candid, vigorous, fair article from the pen of Justus Möser, recognizing the value of the inspiration which a life of great deeds like Frederick's must, of itself, supply to a national literature. Other answers came, too, in which, however, the uninspired bray predominated.

Far more edifying is the spirit in which the royal condemnation was received by the genius of the land, Lessing, and "the three kings" of Weimar. Lessing had completed his life work. Conscious of the influence he had exerted, and

was destined to exert, upon the literature of Germany, he must have felt keenly the cold neglect, but he utters no word. No passage in his last writings, in his letters, betrays the slightest temper. 'De la Littérature Allemande' is not mentioned by Lessing. From Wieland an official retort was expected through his literary organ, *Der Mercur*, but he makes no sign. A brief review of the essay appeared, in a mild, kindly tone, the dignified irony being scarcely noticeable. This review has been by some ascribed to Wieland, by others to Herder. Herder's irritable nature must have been tempted to a wrathful reply; in private he no doubt expressed himself vigorously, as was his wont. During fourteen years he had been in some sort the representative of German linguistic and literary criticism, and from his pen the offended youth of the land now hoped for a crushing response. Prince August of Gotha begs him to remain silent; a letter of Herder's on this subject has been lost, and thus it is that not even in the correspondence, much less in the published works, is there a reference to Frederick which does not speak high-minded admiration and appreciation of his greatness, in dignified, even enthusiastic praise.

Frederick had passed over all in silence, and the great men answer in silence—all but one; one man had been singled out whose work was to serve as a terrible example of "dégoûtantes platitudes" applauded by the parterre. For nearly ten years this man had enjoyed an unexampled fame, almost European. On terms of intimate friendship with the Duke of Weimar, and sitting in his councils, an enthusiastic admirer of the victorious Fritz, and accustomed himself to literary triumph, he must have found this royal sentence "wunderlich" indeed. Goethe was not yet old enough to be able to pass over such condemnation in absolute silence; he had not yet fought his way through to that Olympian repose of soul which characterizes his later years. He hastened at once to prepare an answer. Passages in his diaries and in the correspondence of the time show what he has in hand; that he is heart and soul in the work, that it progresses, and "despite the devil" will be finished. We find him one afternoon at the ducal residence in the room of one of the gay little ladies of the court, with a bottle of champagne by his side, working at his "Litteratur," as he terms it. Other sources show the article to have been in the form of a dialogue: in some inn of a commercial Rhineland city a Frenchman and a German discuss things literary over their wine. The article was completed and went the round of Goethe's friends; we can trace it from hand to hand, but, strangely enough, it has never come to light. The Goethe archives have disappointed expectation. Prof. Suphan still hopes that chance will serve us the same good turn as in the discovery of the old Faust MS. one year ago. The article was never printed, nor does it seem ever to have been Goethe's intention to have it printed; nowhere among his friends a hint that its publication was expected. A few months later a letter from Goethe contains these words: "I have resolved to preserve a conscientious silence about all that concerns myself and my writings;" and in the same letter occurs a passage which has already something of that supreme objectivity and clearness of vision which characterizes the last half of Goethe's life: "That the King should speak unfavorably of my piece does not strike me as at all strange. A great and powerful prince, ruling with an iron sceptre over thousands, cannot but find the work of an undisciplined boy intolerable."

But the relation of Frederick the Great to German literature was of a far more intimate nature than his writings or his direct efforts in its behalf would indicate. Patronage and direct encouragement was not Frederick's affair. It was Voltaire who enjoyed the hospitality of the Prussian court, and what of German literary talent gathered there was obliged to lay aside native barbarism and become French. But Frederick's influence was more effective and far-reaching than patronage and protection: it lay in the inspiration furnished by a great personality at the head of affairs. The sound of vigorous martial preparation in Berlin, armaments and marching troops, was the signal that the new period had come. Rossbach was won, the French power checked, Europe astonished, every pulse was quickened. Through seven years the career of the hero was watched with increasing wonder, enthusiasm, and hope. Of a sudden the man was there who gave energy to a century that had slept. The time had "contents" all at once; the spirit was roused, the imagination kindled, the national consciousness deepened. Every period of great literary production has been one of thrilling activity, in which the strength, greatness, and heroism of the people have found expression. This element of inspiration, national pride, and consciousness of power was furnished Germany by the *life* of Frederick the Great. "He gave German poetry life and substance (*Lebensinhalt*)," says Goethe in his Autobiography. Such a gift from the warrior King, the friend of Voltaire, and the slave of French taste, was, after all, an ample offset to the silent disdain of the 'Littérature Allemande;' and the full recognition of this was Goethe's noblest revenge.

C. H. G.

Correspondence.

PROTECTION AMONG THE FRUIT-GROWERS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: At the State Convention of Fruit-Growers held at this place last week, there was a discussion upon the tariff question which was not without interest. It might be supposed, in such a congregation of representatives of protected interests, that the protectionists had the argument all their own way, but such was by no means the case.

The subject was opened by the President's suggesting that it would be well to take the sense of the Convention in regard to the advisability of sending a petition to Congress asking that the present duties on fruits, nuts, etc., be retained—they being threatened by the Mills bill now before Congress. The first speaker was a grower of English walnuts. He entirely disapproved of any discussion upon the tariff in that place. They had met, he said, to speak of the growth and care of trees and fruits, and any discussion of political matters was out of place. It was impossible, he thought, to take up part of the tariff and discuss it intelligently and not speak of the tariff as a whole. It was not possible for them to separate the question of duties on fruits and nuts from the question of duties on things they did not produce, but which they were forced to buy. They must remember that they were not merely sellers of fruit, but that they were also growers of fruit, using ploughs, harrows, harness, horseshoes, etc.; packers of fruit using boxes, paper-pulp, sugar, and tin; heads of families using hardware, lumber, and clothing; and that it was impossible for them to separate their interests in any one of these capacities from their interests in all the rest. As it was obviously impossible to take up the whole question, he was in favor of passing it over entirely.

A burly grower of French prunes and oranges then took the floor. It was evident that he cared little for logical argument, but he wanted "protection," and he was not afraid to ask for it. In the course of his remarks he said the orange-grower already had something which protected him from an overstocked market and low prices, namely, the "scale-bug." But what protection has the prunes? he asked. There was no scale or any other disease, so far as he knew, to trouble it; therefore it should be "protected."

Another speaker, Mr. Abbot Kinney of Los Angeles, expressed much pleasure at the happy comparison of a protective tariff to the "scale-bug"—an ineradicable pest and blight wherever it appeared. The State of California, he went on to say, was extraordinarily well adapted to the growth of many kinds of fruits, both on account of the intelligence of her people and the peculiarities of her soil and climate; and he for his part, claiming to be a free-born and intelligent American citizen, should be ashamed to admit that he could not compete with the ignorant "foreign paupers" whose mode of culture was antiquated and ill-managed. But if he should find that he could not do so, he would certainly not beg his countrymen to support him in an unprofitable business. He then referred to the statement which had been made by another member, that there are now planted in this State over seven million French prune trees which will come into bearing within the next three and four years, while at the present rate of consumption the product of 2,000,000 trees is more than enough to supply the home market; and he asked the prune-growers what they proposed to do with the surplus, and if they did not think it time for them to be considering not only the domestic demand, but by what means they could best compete in the markets of the world.

The depletion of our forests was then spoken of, and the consequent drying up of our water supply, for the benefit of a few complainers in San Francisco who control the lumber business of the coast, and charge us $30 per M. for undressed lumber, which in the absence of the tariff could be brought from British Columbia for perhaps half that price. Mr. Kinney asked the fruit-growers of California how they could have the face to ask Congress to retain the beggarly duties now levied on foreign fruits, pleading that if the duties are abolished their industry will be ruined, when they are, at the same time, continually telling their Eastern friends and visitors stories of net profits of from $600 to $1,000 per acre.

Another member presented the "infant-industry" argument in a moderate and becoming manner, after which the resolution favoring the petition was easily carried. A resolution was then offered asking a reduction of duty on agricultural tools, lumber, paper-pulp, bagging, nails, etc.; but this was defeated—a proof certainly either of the fruit-growers' modesty or of their love of consistency.—Yours truly,

Frank M. Gallaher.

Santa Barbara, Cal., April 21, 1888.

THE SOUTH AND THE NEGRO.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I think "Ex-Rebel," who writes from Virginia (in your issue of April 26), takes an unnecessarily gloomy view of the supposed preoccupation of the South with the negro. With such a large number of this race in our midst, constituting so large a percentage of

our voting strength, it is obviously necessary that their attitude on questions municipal and national should claim our best attention. So long as they remain in tutelage to the deputies of the Republican party, who batten on their political bondage; so long as they remain, practically, a political unit on all questions, so long must we regard the retention of political power in the hands of those who pay the stake as a question of paramount importance. We hold the blessings of a quiet and orderly government by a tenure which demands solidarity as a *sine qua non*, and we believe these matters would not be indifferent to the good people of New York if the Mikes, Barneys, *et id genus omne*, were always found on the same side without regard to the issue.

This condition of things cannot continue for ever. We have made some advance, and shall yet make more. The Eternal City was not built in a day. When we shall have removed the débris that attends all upheavals, and fixed our foundation by those principles which form the a b c of politics and insure the stability of States and nations, we shall be found taking a most lively and vigorous interest in the questions which an "Ex-Rebel" charges us with ignoring. Even now I find no lack of interest in the minds of our people upon Tariff Reform, Civil Service, and Internal Revenue, though we may be deficient in organizations for promoting the discussion of these questions among our people. There are some of us who take sufficient interest in them to become members of, and pay the assessments of, the Civil-Service-Reform Association and Tariff-Reform Club of New York, specially charged with the propagandism of these issues.

"Ex-Rebel" indicates a unique plan for the regeneration of the South and the revival of her interest in "practical politics." Forsooth, a Republican for our next President! Our experience, in this vicinity, with Republican appointees does not lead us to hope for the "survival of the fittest," and I am sure "Ex-Rebel's" panacea would make more solid, if possible, the solidarity which he now deplores. In my opinion, no more fatal blow could be dealt the South than the election of a Republican President, fashioned upon the model of a Blaine or a Sherman. If we are to divide in the South on the practical questions which "Ex-Rebel" commends to our attention, the disintegration of the black vote must be the first step, and this can only be had by continued Democratic success for some years, with honest and quiet government. "Ex-Rebel" informs us that "the negro does not strike for 'higher wages' or fewer hours," "that he is a stranger to the faith and follies of the Anarchists." If "Ex-Rebel" lives in Virginia, he knows the negro to be imitative to a degree of excess. He, apparently, does not know that they form a most respectable contingent in the order of Knights of Labor, and have engaged in strikes (within the past two years) of such magnitude as to require the presence of the First Virginia Regiment for three days to preserve the peace.

XX-Rebel.

Richmond, Va., May 1, 1888.

DEMOCRACY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I read, of course with great interest, Mr. Lowell's address to the Independents, and accepted meekly my share of the castigation. But when the English papers declare it to be a condemnation of democracy, then I want to take up the glove. The main charge is, that we have only inferior men in public life; that with a plenty of the "raw material of statesmanship," we do not make use of it, but allow ourselves to fall under the dominion of "rings and bosses." The *Spectator* assumes that the people have control of the matter, and are responsible for this state of things if they permit it to continue; and ingeniously, and rather comically, accounts for it by the localization of our affairs, making, as it were, a number of water-tight and intellect-proof compartments which prevent the circulation of great minds.

It is the major premise which I strongly deny. The people do *not* have control of the matter. We live under an elaborate network of organization so arranged as to prevent the people from seeing or judging their public men, or exercising any effective choice as to who they shall be. From Congress down through the States to the smallest cities, the country is governed by committees made up of local members, constantly dissolving and reforming, working secretly, by majority and minority, with all individuality carefully suppressed. We choose presidents, governors, and mayors, put them in positions of great nominal responsibility, then tie their hands and deprive them of all power, and then wonder that we do not get great men—which is about as reasonable as it would be to plant potatoes and then complain of not getting corn. We give all power into the hands of legislatures, the embodiment of anarchy, where it is very easy to lose reputation but impossible to gain it, and then wonder that they are filled with men either ignorant of or insensible to these conditions.

"Bosses" and "rings" are the revolt of nature against an unnatural system, just as a man who overeats, or drinks to excess, will suffer from headache or indigestion. The people want men and leaders, but decorous respectability will allow nothing but conventions and committees and platforms, while the "bosses" recognize the want, offer themselves, and organize and discipline their followers. Irons and Powderly and Arthur can control large bodies of men, can throw large sections of the country into confusion, and their names are in every man's mouth, while the President of the United States cannot take a step towards the reform of the finances, and it is doubtful whether one per cent. of the population could tell the names of the members of his Cabinet.

It may be said that, after all, the people are the final authority, and therefore to blame. In fact, the intelligence and culture of the country are to blame. From Mr. Lowell down, the best minds, instead of inquiring *why* things are wrong, content themselves with demonstrating that they are wrong and ought not to be so. If one-half the energy and work which are spent in discussing the *theory* of the tariff could be devoted to getting the tariff out of the hands of irresponsible committees, governed by private interests and worked by the lobby, and putting it into the hands of a responsible national authority whom the people could see, there would be no trouble about the popular response.

G. B.

Boston, May 5, 1888.

THE SURPLUS AMONG THE MACARIANS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It is interesting to note that the Macarians, as described by Sir Thomas More in his 'Utopia,' provided against the possibility of a surplus. The passage referred to is this:

"To these things I would add, that law among the Macarians, a people that lie not far from Utopia, by which their king, on the day on which he begins his reign, is tied by an oath confirmed by solemn sacrifices never to have at once above £1,000 of gold in his treasures, or so much silver as is equal to that in value [they had evidently a gold standard]. This law, they tell us, was made by an excellent king who had more regard to the riches of his country than to his own wealth; and, therefore, provided against the heaping up of so much treasure as might impoverish the people. He thought that moderate sum might be sufficient for any accident, if either the king had occasion for it against rebels, or the kingdom against the invasion of the enemy; but that it was not enough to encourage a prince to invade other men's rights, a circumstance that was the chief cause of his making the law. *He also thought that it was a good provision for that free circulation of money so necessary for the course of commerce and exchange.*" (More's 'Utopia,' Book I, page 83, Morley's Library.)

H. R.

Kansas City, Mo., April 30, 1888.

HAGGARD AND PIERS PLOWMAN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: No reader of 'She' can forget the Amahagger's unpleasant custom of putting pots on the heads of strangers. Whether this was a mere invention of Mr. Haggard's, or whether he had met with the practice elsewhere, I know not; but something of the same sort seems to have been at one time charged upon the friars. In 'Pierce the Ploughman's Crede,' written about the close of the fourteenth century, Pierce says that whereas our Lord had blessed those that weep, there are

"—— fewe of tho [these] freres for [before] thei ben ner dede
And put all in pur clath [cloth] with pottes on her [their] hedes,
Thanne he waryeth and wepeth [then they curse and weep]."

And again, if the brother proved unserviceable as a beggar—

"But [unless] he maie beggen his bred, his bed is ygreithed [made ready];
Under a pot he schal be put in a pryvie chambre,
That he schal lyven ne last but litell while after."

If the popular hatred of the friars gave credence to a report that they took this method of disposing of a superannuated or unprofitable brother, it is singular that (so far as I can discover) it occurs nowhere else in the immense mass of satire and vituperation of the friars which the Wyclifite movement produced.

The Rev. W. W. Skeat, the editor of the 'Crede,' was so struck with the strangeness of this pot business that he tried, through *Notes and Queries*, to find out if anybody else had heard or read of such a thing; but without success.

Wm. Hand Browne.

Notes.

D. Appleton & Co. have in press 'The Advance-Guard of Western Civilization,' by James R. Gilmore; 'The "Books that Have Helped Me" Papers,' reprinted from the *Forum;* 'Ignorant Essays,' by Richard Dowling; 'Letters from a Débutante in New York Society'; 'The Development of the Intellect—The Mind of the Child'; 'Outlines of Pedagogics,' by Col. F. W. Parker; 'Electricity,' by Prof. Sylvanus Thompson; 'Diamagnetism and Magnecrystallic Action,' by Prof. Tyndall; and the following novels: 'A Nymph of the West,' by Howard Seely; 'A Counsel of Perfection,' by Lucas Malet; 'Eve,' by S. Baring-Gould; and 'The Little Maid of Acadie,' by Marian C. L. Reeves.

Ticknor & Co., Boston, publish this week 'Homestead Highways,' by Herbert M. Sylvester; 'Sketches Abroad,' by J. A. Schweinfurth, with architectural illustrations—a limited edition; 'A Dictionary of Lowland Scotch,' by Charles Mackay; and 'The Pilgrim Republic,' by John A. Goodwin.

Ginn & Heath announce in their "Classics for Children" an adaptation of Franklin's Autobiography, and 'Selections from Ruskin.'

A quarto volume, consisting of twelve poems of 'American Bird Legends,' each illustrated by a chromolithographic reproduction of a water-color bird drawing—the poems by Harry J. Shellman, the illustrations by A. Sidney Higgins—will be published by the latter at 1227 Fulton Street, Brooklyn, N. Y.

Application should be made to Mr. G. May (Whittaker & Co.), 2 White Hart Street, Paternoster Square, London, E. C., for copies of a limited edition of 'Slang, Jargon, and Cant: a Dictionary of Unconventional Phraseology,' compiled and edited by Albert Barrère and Charles G. Leland.

B. Westermann & Co. will have for sale here immediately after its appearance abroad 'Aus dem Leben Kaiser Wilhelms, 1849-1873,' the late Emperor's personal memoirs compiled by his daily companion, Hofrath Schneider, and revised and approved by himself, and laid away for many years. The work will be in three volumes.

M. Octave Feuillet's new romance, 'Un Artiste,' destined for the *Revue des Deux Mondes* during the present year, will be translated into English by Mr. Henry Hager, from advance sheets.

The firm of George R. Lockwood & Son has been dissolved, and reconstituted as Lockwood & Coombes.

Mr. John Treat Irving's 'Indian Sketches' (G. P. Putnam's Sons) is the record of a visit made in 1833 to various tribes beyond our then Western frontier—notably the Otoes and the four tribes of the Pawnees. Mr. Irving made the journey in the company of commissioners sent in behalf of the United States to purchase lands and conclude treaties. He had good opportunities of observation, and he used them well. His book is a vivid and truthful account of what he saw, and, being made up from notes written at the time, or immediately after, it has all the freshness of a narrative of recent personal experience, joined with the permanent interest and value which belong to a faithful reflection of phases of life that have passed away for ever.

Two new volumes have been added to the aids for the study of Shakspere texts. The Variant edition of the "Midsummer Night's Dream" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) is a facsimile reprint of the folio, with the variations in spelling and punctuation in the two quartos of 1600 from the copies in the Barton collection, and with the emendations which the Cambridge, Globe, Clarendon Press, Delius, Rolfe, Hudson, and White editions agree in adopting. As the Barton quartos are more perfect than those followed by the photographic facsimiles, it is an advantage to have this record of them; and altogether the volume offers as nearly complete facilities for the text of this play as could be had without an entire Shakspere library at hand. The introduction is precise and sufficient, and the editor, Henry Johnson, has done his work with fidelity and thoroughness. The first volume of the 'Bankside Shakespeare' (Brentano, agent for the Shakespearean Society of New York) contains the folio and 1602 quarto texts of "The Merry Wives of Windsor," printed side by side on opposite pages. These texts are carefully given. The introduction is by Appleton Morgan. He holds the view that the quarto is a first sketch, and that the folio represents the growth of the play in the actor's hands, and not by Shakspere. The contest in regard to this play has been a much-divided one, and the points it affords for speculation are such as commentators delight in. Mr. Morgan, who takes the most unfavorable view of Shakspere's character, writes in his characteristic amateurish way. His position seems to us untenable, but the argument he makes does not call for discussion. The edition itself is very beautifully printed, but the assistance it affords to scholars is nothing more than the convenience of parallel text.

In a little volume entitled 'A Manual of German Prefixes and Suffixes,' published by Henry Holt & Co., Prof. J. S. Blackwell of the University of Missouri endeavors to furnish "practical aid to students who may wish to gain a nearer sense than even the best dictionaries give of the meaning of German words." The manual discusses the various prefixes and suffixes in alphabetical order, giving an account of their original and derived meanings (without, however, going into etymology), and expounding their synonymic distinctions by means of illustrative examples. Particular attention is given to the synonymy of verbs compounded with prefixes that have similar meanings. The information here offered is not found elsewhere in English, and we should think, therefore, that the manual would prove very serviceable to students who have not yet learned to read German with ease, or who have not at command the resources from which Prof. Blackwell has himself drawn. And this leads us to suggest that the author might very properly have acknowledged somewhat more fully and unequivocally than he has done, the extent of his indebtedness to the labors of other men. He tells us in his preface, to be sure, that he has "borrowed help" from various sources, a list of which is given. Further on, in another connection, we are told that "the larger number of examples given is from classic German sources." But this hardly prepares us adequately for what we find when we open the book, namely, that page after page of matter—statements, qualifications, quotations, and all—is simply translated, with more or less of rearrangement, from Sanders's 'Wörterbuch der deutschen Synonymen.'

'On Deck, or Advice to a Young Corinthian Yachtsman,' by T. Robinson Warren (G. W. Dillingham), talks in an easy-going way of the lamented decline of American shipping, and about the part the yachtsman may some time play in the history of this country's marine. There are a few hints as to the kind of vessel to be selected for pleasure-sailing, and some rudiments of navigation are set forth. To be a Corinthian, a yachtsman must be skipper of his own craft. To a new hand at the sport, advice and instruction in navigation are practically useless, since his sea-going must be confined to mere coasting. Matter much more pertinent to the purpose of this book, therefore, might be substituted for the chapter on navigation. The pleasing rambling anecdotes which are scattered through the book make it capable of interesting both landsman and seaman.

The 'Messages of President Buchanan' is the title of a handsome volume compiled and published by Mr. J. Buchanan Henry (New York, 46 Exchange Place), who has rightly thought the collection would be useful and convenient for reference. It includes all but the perfunctory messages accompanying bills, etc. The work has a pious intent, for an appendix is devoted to letters exculpatory of the last President of "the Union as it is" from his Secretary of War, Joseph Holt (against Mr. Blaine's portraiture of Buchanan in his 'Twenty Years of Congress'), his Attorney-General, J. S. Black, his Postmaster-General, Horatio King, Mr. Geo. Ticknor Curtis, etc.

The widow of the historian John Richard Green has reëdited, on lines indicated by him before his death, his 'Short History of the English People,' and it has been published in a single volume by Harper & Brothers. The changes have been chiefly corrections of mistakes in detail. The plates, apparently made in England, follow the style of typography of the first edition of 1874, with a slightly larger page and smaller letter. The maps (of American make) have been correspondingly altered. The index, too, has been overhauled, but we think not improved. For example, the handy rubric of Battles has been abandoned.

Dodd, Mead & Co. have begun to bring out a Library Edition of the joint works of Walter Besant and James Rice—the first two volumes being 'The Golden Butterfly' (with an etched portrait of Mr. Besant), and 'My Little Girl. Though not in the fore-front of book-making, these have a very presentable appearance.

There is greater contrast between outside and inside in the popular edition of George Meredith's novels, *e. g.*, to name the latest, 'Sandro Belloni' (first called 'Emilia in England'), in the issue of Roberts Bros. The print has a much cheaper look than the cover.

The first number of "Macmillan's Summer Reading Library" is Mr. Marion Crawford's 'Marzio's Crucifix.' The print is open and attractive.

The unauthorized appropriation of Geikie's 'Holy Land' is a showy monument of the piratical era in which we live, pending the passage of the Chace Copyright Bill. The American publisher (John B. Alden) has not atoned for his offence by inserting illustrations, in turn lifted, as he acknowledges, from Ebers's 'Palestine.'

We conclude our list of new editions and reprints with mention of Cary's 'Dialogues of Plato,' started on its rounds afresh in the olive-green company of "Bohn's Select Library" (New York: Scribner & Welford).

The second 'Annual American Catalogue' for 1887 (New York: *Publishers' Weekly*) is again a curiosity in book-making. Whereas the former volume was a "process" reproduction from a scrapbook arrangement of titles, the present one has been composed of electrotype titles made from week to week, and finally rearranged in alphabetical order. The impression is certainly better, but the economy of the change is not manifest. So, the index has been amassed in standing type, but the alphabetizing and editing of this proved costly. The main thing, however, is to have the Catalogue go on, and to have it so well done as it is, and Mr. Bowker deserves thanks for his courage and perseverance.

In mentioning the forthcoming translation of P. Mantegazza's 'Testa,' we should have stated that this work has been done by the *pupils* of Prof. L. D. Ventura, with only his supervision.

'L'Œuvre de A. Thiers' (Paris: Jouvet & Cie.; Boston: Schoenhof) is the latest of the excellent educational collections of extracts from the works of various French authors which M. G. Robertet has prepared for the use of candidates for the higher examinations. The 650 pages of the present volume are made up in great part of carefully selected passages from the 'Histoire de la Révolution française' and the 'Histoire du Consulat et de l'Empire.' These, together with the very concise *résumé historique* with which M. Robertet has connected them, give a general view of these two important historical works, and at the same time present most of the striking events and characteristics of the period at sufficient length to do justice to the historian. In these days

when histories multiply beyond the reading powers of the general public, such a condensation as M. Robertet here gives of Thiers's two great works will be very welcome. A few extracts from some of his other writings are added, most of them taken from the fifteen volumes of his 'Discours parlementaires.' Of special interest among these is the one pronounced in the Chamber of Deputies, July 15, 1870, in opposition to the impending declaration of war against Prussia.

The success of the works of the late Russian poet, S. J. Nadson, has been remarkable. Four editions were sold within a year and a half, and the public were still insatiable. Two more editions have appeared since. One of these, published six months after his death, contains a mass of new material greater than all that was published during his lifetime. Nadson began to write in 1878, and the poems, newly given to the world, go back to 1879, when the writer was seventeen years old. His rapidly won reputation and the approval of competent judges did not turn the youthful poet's head; and his strictness towards himself, and his dislike to take the public too much into the intimacy of his personal feelings, led him to keep more than half of what he wrote unpublished. The really weak poems among those recently published are very few, and do not detract from his success, which is particularly remarkable in Russia.

Those who have followed with interest the discussion of the certificate system in these columns, should turn to the Syracuse *Academy* for May, in which Mr. Bacon retorts upon the higher institutions of learning their condescension to the imperfections of the secondary schools. His remarks are, on the whole, distinctly unfavorable to the use of certificates. The colleges, he says, "stretch down a tender welcoming hand even into the lower grades of our courses, and kindly remove those who are working in confessedly the weakest part of our educational system." If these non-certificated pupils gain admission, then their friends censure the refusal of a certificate. If they break down after acceptance, the principal is censured as if he had recommended them.

Westermann & Co. send us the first instalment of the new edition of Stieler's Hand-Atlas. Austria-Hungary, one sheet of Italy, and one of South America compose the number. The authority of this publication being well established, we need only remind our readers that there are to be thirty parts in all (eighty-nine sheets), and that an alphabetical index is promised, for the first time.

That praiseworthy organization, the Appalachian Mountain Club, whose headquarters are in Boston, is desirous to build a refuge-hut at Madison Spring, in the saddle between Mt. Adams and Mt. Madison, of the White Mountain range. This should be of stone, and equipped with sleeping-bunks, a stove, and the most necessary furniture, including cooking utensils and an axe. It will not only be a place of comfort and safety for tourists, but will afford a base to photographers, scientists, etc. As it will cost from $500 to $750, the Club asks assistance from any source. Subscriptions may be sent to Mr. Frederic D. Allen, 10 Humboldt Street, Cambridge, Mass.

—The first number of the *Journal of American Folk-Lore* (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.; London: Trübner) presents a handsome and substantial appearance. All the editors furnish articles. Mr. W. W. Newell argues plausibly that the Voudoo of Hayti and Louisiana is not an African superstition, but was introduced by the French, and grew out of the ecclesiastical slander and popular misconception of the heretical Waldenses. Dr. Franz Boas treats of certain songs and dances of the Kwakiutl of British Columbia. Prof. T. F. Crane discusses the diffusion of popular tales. The Rev. J. Owen Dorsey has several articles on Indian song and myth and story. Outside of the regular staff, Prof. H. Carrington Bolton gives a sample of his extensive researches concerning the "counting-out rhymes" of children; Dr. D. G. Brinton narrates some Lenâpé conversations; and W. M. Beauchamp furnishes some Onondaga Tales. On the whole, the aborigines receive more attention than the negro. After the regular papers come interesting departments called the "Waste-Basket of Words," "Notes and Queries," and "Folk-Lore Scrapbook." Book reviews and bibliographical notices of periodicals round out the scheme of this quarterly, to which we wish all success.

—The May *Century* opens with a personal explanation, in which Mr. Kennan tells how it came about that the Russian Government allowed him such latitude of investigation in Siberia. The fact that he had already come to conclusions favorable to the Government, and expected to fortify them by this journey, makes his final opinion all the more noteworthy. In this month's paper he writes only a very excellent travel sketch of his ride across the Caucasus. Mr. Arnold's few words upon Milton will be read with the more interest because such criticism from him is at an end. It is too brief an article, and as Milton does not often have the fortune to be worthily spoken of, it is a most welcome assertion of his claim to the highest poetic honor; and, as is usual with Arnold, the statement has light in it as well as force. There are several other notable articles, and Mr. Aldrich furnishes the poetry—four characteristic bits of verse; but the most interesting contribution is a statistical paper upon "The Chances of Being Hit in Battle," by Col. William F. Fox, in which tabulated views are given of the greatest percentage of loss in regiments in the whole war, and also in several separate battles. The returns are so much more complete for the Northern than for the Southern side that the figures are largely confined to the former. It appears that the average loss from killed and mortally wounded was 5 per cent. for the whole army—a higher rate than in the Crimean or Franco-Prussian war. The greatest loss by regiments did not exceed 20 per cent., but several lost more than 10 per cent. In single engagements the proportion of loss to the fighting strength was very heavy, as high as 76 per cent. in one case, and here, too, it is pointed out that the loss of the Light Brigade at Balaklava was only 36.7 per cent., and the heaviest loss in the Franco-Prussian war in any regiment on one field was 49 per cent., while our regimental losses in both armies frequently rose to 60 per cent. in a single battle. The author states that the regiments which lost most by battle suffered least from disease, and he is inclined to ascribe this fact to the moral courage and endurance of the soldiers, who were as brave in camp as against the enemy. The article is full of curious facts and comparisons, and the field is one which has been little worked.

—While Northern people have generally reached the conclusion that the scheme of Federal aid to common schools in the South is wrong, because such aid is not needed, there still remains, and will long continue, occasion for assistance from the North to higher institutions of learning at the South, as there has always been for such help from the East to struggling institutions in the West. One of the most deserving appeals of this sort ever presented is now made by the Atlanta (Ga.) University, which was organized by the American Missionary Association, for the education of the blacks, shortly after the war, and is now in its nineteenth year of successful work. Like the Hampton (Va.) Institute, the Atlanta University places a high value upon industrial training, and its graduates are carrying its good influences through Georgia and the surrounding States. The institution is in special need of outside assistance this year, because it has lost the annual State appropriation of $8,000, through the very proper refusal of the management to accept the money on the new terms fixed by the last Legislature, which would require them to cease teaching their own children and to promise not to teach any other white children with the blacks in future. The University needs $16,000 for this year's current expenses, and it appeals also for an endowment of at least $250,000, which would place it for the first time on a sound and permanent foundation. Prof. Horace Bumstead is now at the North engaged in efforts to raise the money, and funds may be remitted to him in care of Mr. Morris K. Jesup, 52 William Street, New York city. It would be hard to find in the whole country a place where the benevolently disposed can invest funds to such great and lasting advantage.

—All who are interested in the Selden Society, founded in England last year "to encourage the study and advance the knowledge of the history of English law," will be glad to know that the first volume of its publications, issued in respect of the subscription for 1887, has appeared. This volume will soon reach the subscribers through the Smithsonian Institution. We shall recur to it again. At present it is enough to say that it makes a very handsome quarto volume, and that it contains a selection from the earliest Pleas of the Crown, hitherto unpublished. These begin with the year 1201 and end with 1225. The Latin of the rolls is here accompanied by an excellent English translation and by notes, a valuable explanatory introduction, and indices of subjects, persons, and places. In the midst of the period which these cases illustrate, "the great Charter was granted and the ordeal was abolished; the years which follow are critical years in the history of trial by jury." The editor, Mr. Maitland, whose excellent work upon 'Bracton's Note-Book' was lately reviewed in our columns, is already employed upon the second volume, to be issued to subscribers for the year 1888. This will contain selections from the earliest Manorial Rolls extant, accompanied by a translation. These are an extremely interesting class of rolls: "The whole legal life and much of the social life of a mediæval village is recorded in one way or another upon the manor rolls." The Society is anxious to add to its list of subscribers, for upon this depends its power of work. It appeals especially to lawyers, as those who should be interested in promoting the thorough study of their own learning and in securing the publication of these most important documents; but the volumes of the Society will prove interesting to general students, especially historical students, and subscriptions are invited from all. The annual subscription ($5.18) may be sent to Professor J. B. Thayer, Cambridge, Mass., through whom the circulars of the Society can be obtained.

—At a recent meeting of the Archæological Society of Berlin, Dr. Treu reported the results of investigations which he has been making with regard to the arrangement of the figures

in the western pediment of the Zeus temple at Olympia. If the conclusions at which he has arrived are borne out by the facts, the hitherto accepted arrangement of these figures will be almost entirely upset. Starting from the Centaur biting the Lapith in the left half of the pediment, pieces recently proved to belong to this group show that the Centaur has the mastery over the Lapith, who is trying to strangle him, and that the relative height of the two heads as restored is wrong, the Centaur's being really higher than the other. This leads to an exchange of places between this group and the corresponding one in the other half of the pediment, of a Centaur seizing a boy; and such an exchange is justified still further by the fact that a cutting in the plinth of the "biting Centaur" exactly fits the figure next which it stands in the new arrangement. Moreover, Dr. Treu believes that the groups on either side of the Apollo should exchange places, so that the two figures known as "Theseus" and "Peirithoös," who are swinging axes, should occupy positions next Apollo, their action directed away from the centre instead of towards it. While it is true that the height of these two figures would naturally entitle them to these places, it is difficult to imagine the effect of the Apollo in such an arrangement, inasmuch as his action, which is now so impressive in its simplicity, would be considerably weakened were there a partisan at his side directing a heavy blow at the same antagonist. But the account of the report which we have received in the *Philologische Wochenschrift*, is so meagre that it would not be wise to pass judgment upon it, and we await with interest the publication of Dr. Treu's essay. This much ought to be added, however, that both Curtius and Furtwängler, than whom there have been no more careful and thorough students of these sculptures, are reported as accepting Treu's rearrangement.

—According to a writer in a recent number of the *Temps*, private theatricals in all their gradations are now in special favor in Paris. Not only are artists of distinction, frequently the *sociétaires* of the Comédie-Française, seen in private houses, but the most distinguished dramatists themselves assist in putting their works upon the stage there, as they would for a first night at the theatre. M. Alexandre Dumas has been superintending at one house the rehearsals of two of his own plays, one of which is still unacted; at another M. Henri Becque is the stage manager; at still another it is M. Sardou who directs the performances of a *théâtre de société*. To judge from the tone of the brilliant little article, these Academicians and dramatists are in a position no more agreeable than that of those daring persons on this side of the Atlantic who undertake the same ungrateful task. It is not every *impresario* who has Voltaire's superb satisfaction with the performances of his own plays, by his own friends, on his own private stage. He never seems to have found that the beautiful and gracious young women, the brilliant and gallant gentlemen of the little society he gathered at Ferney, lost anything of their grace and charm and courtliness upon the stage; but what modern stage-manager of a society theatre ever had such ideal actors as Voltaire thought he had, or such an ideal imagination for the position, as he who could see in Mme. Denis, his niece, fat, commonplace, old, and homely, a tragic actress capable of surpassing Mlle. Clairon in "Zaïre" and in the "Orphélin du Chine"? Our contemporaries in both hemispheres, on the contrary, seem too often to find the expressive faces and graceful manners of their acquaintances converted into stolid masks and wooden awkwardness upon the stage, while their unconscious incapacity to embody the feelings and actions of the characters they represent makes of private theatricals everywhere, in the words of the writer in the *Temps*, "one of the most tempting and most dangerous of luxuries"; tempting, and, it may be, agreeable for those who undertake the acting, but often exceedingly trying to those who have to witness it.

— Economic science has suffered a severe loss in the death of Prof. F. X. v. Neumann-Spallart on the 19th of April last. There is all the more reason for regret because he was cut off in the fulness of his activity, being only fifty-one years of age. His whole life had been spent at Vienna, where, during his later years, he was at once professor in the University and member of the Aulic Council. He has written books on political economy, on Austrian commercial policy, agriculture, and maritime development. But his most important work, which has been more than once referred to in these columns, was his 'Conspectus of the World's Industry' (*Uebersichten der Weltwirthschaft*), published once every two years. Originally planned as a department of Behm's 'Geographisches Jahrbuch,' it soon grew into an independent work, and has come to be regarded as the best collection of current industrial statistics anywhere published. It excelled in accuracy, in clearness of arrangement, and in choice of matter while its full citation of authorities made t easy for the specialist to verify its statements, or to pursue his inquiries into further detail. The last number appeared almost exactly a year ago. The high reputation of the author is indicated by his position as Vice-President of the International Statistical Institute. It is doubtful whether in the department of general statistics of industry he has left an equal behind him.

—The work of Dr. W. Söderhjelm, 'Petrarca in der deutschen Dichtung,' published at Helsingfors, originally appeared (1886) in the transactions of the Finnish Academy of Sciences. It reviews the influence of Petrarch upon German poetry, but is brought down only to the date of A. W. Schlegel's translation of a selection of the sonnets and canzoni, to the consideration of which much space is given. A comparison of the various issues of these versions—first in the 'Göttinger Musenalmanach' (1790–94), and Becker's 'Taschenbuch für geselliges Vergnügen' (1794–95), and then in the collection, 'Blumensträusse der italienischen, spanischen, und portugiesischen Poesie' (1804)—shows how diligent was Schlegel's use of the file, and how his appreciation of the Petrarchan sonnet-form grew. Dr. Söderhjelm underestimates, it seems to us, the influence exerted upon German style and sentiment by the early translations from Petrarch's Latin works. The versions of Niclas von Wyle, Steinhövel, Spalatin, and Vigilius were too much read in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries—as their many printed editions prove—not to have had their due weight. Steinhövel's rendering of the Boccaccio-Petrarch tale of 'Griseldis'—known in English popular literature as 'Patient Grissel'—was the favorite "chap-book" of its day, and almost the first illustrated German work. This story, as every one is aware, passed into all literatures at a very early date. Mr. V. Promis, Librarian of King Humbert's private library at Turin, has lately issued a few copies, in phototype reproduction, of an Italian paraphrase of it, in 82 *ottave*. The original was printed in the closing years of the fifteenth century, and the copy in the King's collection is most likely unique. It is in folio, and is entitled 'Historia celeberrima di Gualtieri Marchese di Saluzzo, il quale elesse di maritarsi in Griselda contadina.' The exact date and place of printing are unknown.

AUBREY DE VERE'S ESSAYS ON POETRY.

Essays, chiefly on Poetry. By Aubrey de Vere. 2 vols. Macmillan & Co. 1887.

It is rare good fortune to find criticism in which the ideas are more excellent than the manner, and the spirit finer than the ideas; in which it is not the keener sympathy of the poet that speaks, or the sure sense of the trained artist for expression, or any single faculty, but the whole nature of the man; in which the judgment rendered does not proceed from any particular part of his mind—the scholarly or moral or æsthetic element by itself—but is felt to be grounded upon his total convictions These essays of Aubrey de Vere, therefore, are worth more than ordinary attention. He writes principally of Spenser and Wordsworth, and also of Milton, Shelley, and Keats. Taken together, the essays are a fragmentary survey of the course of English poetry, apart from the drama, in its highest ideal and lyrical achievements. He considers mainly the doctrine of this poetry, and his being a Catholic adds a subordinate interest. He is a Christian idealist, and he refuses to regard poetry except in the light of those great ideas which belong to the spirit, and, being nobly and beautifully interpreted, are the substance of the poets who live by their wisdom as well as by charm. The ethical, the philosophical element in a large sense, is to him the engrossing thing; and criticism of this sort, so incited and so aimed, has a reality that does not fall far short of the worth of direct reflection upon the things of the mind, though it deals with them through the medium of literature instead of in life itself.

With Spenser, naturally, he has many affinities. The mediævalism, the sentiment of chivalry, the allegorizing spirit, and not less the Puritan elevation of the first of the Elizabethan poets, exercise a special fascination over a Catholic mind for whom the Ages of Faith, as he likes to call them, have in a peculiar degree the ideality that clothes the past. One no longer looks for original criticism of the father of English verse, who, more than Chaucer, may claim the paternity of great poets in later days; but to remind us of his excellence has become, in the lapse of time and the decline of poetic taste, almost as desirable an office as it once was to unfold its secret. Spenser is a poet who requires no common critic to speak justly of him. His position was a unique one, and by some infelicity of his stars he failed to rise to the greatness which seems to have been possible to him. Aubrey de Vere remarks that the great romantic poem of the Middle Ages, one that should sum them up on the human as Dante did upon the divine side, was never written; and, looking back, it appears to us that Spenser was the choice spirit that missed this destiny. His pure poetic quality, that sensibility to beauty and delight in it as in his element, was perfect to such a degree that Milton and Keats, who possessed it in something of the same measure, seem almost to have derived it from him, whose poems nourished it in them. The sweetness and noble ease of his expression reveal the presence of a marvellous literary faculty. His responsiveness to the historical and legendary elements in the past, his power of abstracting and idealizing them for poetic use, and his profound interest in human life, were great endowments, and he possessed in a

high degree and a pure form that moral reason which is the attribute of genius. But by defects as striking as this gift he made his poem less than we fondly think it might have been. The Elizabethan prolixity, the obscure perception of the nature of form in literary work, the artificiality incident to the allegorizing temperament, account for much of what he lost; but, for all that, his poems are marvels of the creative intellect, and it is this intellect that Aubrey de Vere dwells on. Any one can point out Spenser's loveliness, but the great spirit that brooded over his verse is not so easily realized. His aim was "to strengthen man by his own mind," and it is this effort which the critic analyzes, and by so doing tries to show how well he deserved the epithet "grave" as well as "gentle Spenser." The criticism goes much into detail, and uses the method of profuse citation, but it never loses grasp of the poet as a whole, and succeeds in a difficult task; for Spenser is even more full of anachronisms now than in his own day, and sympathetic understanding of these, and the power to find under them a living man like unto ourselves, are rare. It seems to us that Aubrey de Vere hits the truth about the man, and comes closer to his spiritual nature than any writer whom we remember on this subject.

One does not read far in these two long essays without becoming aware that the author is himself of a contemplative mind, and has perhaps a stronger hold on the abstract than on the concrete, so that he cares very much more for the doctrine than for the dress of the poet, and is more exacting of moral wisdom and spiritual truth than of art for its own sake. This helps him over the poetically dry places in Spenser, and it serves him even better in the case of Wordsworth. We do not regard this so much as a fault as choosing the better of two alternatives; for, if the landscape of Arcady is incomplete for him unless there is some "swan-flight of Platonic ideas" over it, such as he says is always in Spenser's sky, he has an appreciation for beauty as steadfastly as for the higher truths of life, and it is better to suffer with deficiencies in poetic art for the sake of the matter than to be content with art alone. He is a thorough Wordsworthian, and it is not surprising that a writer of his temperament is annoyed by the charge that Wordsworth is destitute of "passion." He has much to say on this point. Wordsworth himself gave as the reason why he did not write love-poems the fear that they would be too passionate. Aubrey de Vere makes what defence he can by pointing out the half-dozen idealizations of woman in the shorter lyrics; but his real apology consists in the counter-assertion that Wordsworth is especially distinguished for "passion." He uses the word, however, with a difference, and means by it the poetic glow, the exaltation of feeling, the lyrical possession, which attends the moment of creation and passes into the verse. Of this sort of passion every form of poetry is as capable as is the amorous: the *sæva indignatio* of satire would come under this head as properly as the moral enthusiasm or the patriotic fervor shown in the "Ode to Duty" or the Sonnets. Wordsworth truly possessed this capability, and it gives to his poems their masculine strength. Whether equal success is to be credited to his critic's glosses upon the more commonplace subjects of Wordsworth's muse, is doubtful to us; it seems rather that he makes the mistake which Coleridge attributed to Wordsworth himself, of giving a value to the idea which it has in his own mind, but which it does not have in the bare words addressed to the reader. When the idea and the expression are not identical, every poet suffers from this cause; in his mind the idea, coming first, dignifies the words, but to the reader the words, coming first, too often mutilate the idea. It is a good result of Aubrey de Vere's Wordsworthianism that it gives him courage to force into the front of his essay the "Orphic Odes," which are among the least known of the poet's work, and contain some of the noblest of his lines. He knew Wordsworth, and he records a piece of youthful irreverence on his part, when, once being in London with him, he knocked at a door, and, no one coming, he remarked:

"Dear God, the very houses seem asleep."

It appears very venturesome to us, but the old poet condescended to smile.

To Milton he seems to us somewhat unjust. The earlier poems receive his warm appreciation, but of the later ones he is hardly so tolerant, and nowhere does he give him his due. We will quote the passage:

"It is not, however, its deficient popularity so much as its subject and its form which proves that Milton's great work is not a national poem, high as it ranks among our national triumphs. Some will affirm that he illustrated in that work his age if not his country. His age, however, gave him an impulse rather than materials. Puritanism became transmuted, as it passed through his capacious and ardent mind, into a faith Hebraic in its austere spirit—a faith that sympathized indeed with the Iconoclastic zeal which distinguished the anti-Catholic and anti-patristic theology of the age, but held little consort with any of the complex definitions at that time insisted on as the symbols of Protestant orthodoxy. Had the Puritan spirit been as genuine a thing as the spirit of liberty which accompanied it; had it been such as their reverence for Milton makes many suppose it to have been, the mood would not so soon have yielded to the licentiousness that followed the Restoration. . . . To him the classic model supplied, not the adornment of his poem, but its structure and form. The soul that wielded that mould was, if not exactly the spirit of Christianity, at least a religious spirit—profound, zealous, and self-reverent—as analogous, perhaps, in its temper to the warlike religion of the Eastern Prophet as to the traditional faith of the Second Dispensation. Such was the mighty fabric which, aloof and in his native land an exile, Milton raised; not perfect, not homogeneous, not in any sense a national work, but the greatest of all those works which prove that a noble poem may be produced with little aid from local sympathies, and none from national traditions."

Some expressions in this passage, and many others scattered through these volumes which we do not quote, indicate where the current of sympathy was broken, by default of which Milton has failed to be understood. Ideal he was, but there is no poet who is more bone and flesh of the English nation in the substance of his genius, and in whom it developed a spirituality more noble; nor are his defects, in his conception of womanhood for example, such as cannot be easily paralleled from the other poets of highest genius in the line from Spenser. But, on the other hand, the critic is more than just to Keats, and towards Shelley he exhibits a respect, a penetration of the elements of his thoughtful temperament, and a comprehension of the remarkable and intimate changes of his incessant growth, that are almost unexampled in authors writing from Aubrey de Vere's standpoint.

We must make room for some original remarks of the writer upon the Pagan element in our modern poetry—by which we do not mean "Neo-paganism." He is very well affected towards Platonism, and recognizes it historically as "the chief secondary cause of the diffusion of Christianity, doing for it more than the favor of Constantine could ever have done." He thus affirms for Greek religion and Greek philosophy "an element of greatness and truth." Our poets, in returning to its life and thought, seem to him to be making a return to the spiritual element which in the revolutionary ages has been obscured and too often lost. He speaks in this as a Catholic, but he is more Christian than Catholic, if we may be permitted to say so; and all religious writers admit and lament the inroad of skepticism and consequent materialism. The turn he gives to these facts is a striking one:

"The arts of the Middle Ages soared above Paganism: the imaginative mind of modern times stands for the most part aloof from it; but it often stands aloof from Christianity also. Secularity is its prevailing character, while even in Paganism there is a spiritual element. We may not, without a risk of insincerity and presumption, indulge in either an exultation or a regret higher than corresponds with our low position. Can we with truth say that the portion of our modern literature which reverts to ancient mythology is less religious than the rest? Is it not, in the case of some authors, the only portion which has any relations, even through type or symbol, with religious ideas? Would Dante, would even Milton, have found more to sympathize with in the average of modern literature than in Homer or in Sophocles, in Wordsworth's 'Laodamia' or Keats's 'Hymn to Pan'? What proportion of our late poetry is Christian either in spirit or in subject—nay, in traditions and associations? Admirable as much of it is, it is not for its spiritual tendencies that it can be commended. Commonly it shares the material character of our age, and smells of the earth; at other times, recoiling from the sordid, it flies into the fantastic. . . . It is our life which is to be blamed; our poetry has been but the reflection of that life."

We quote this not only for its suggestion, but because it sums up and speaks out plainly the protest which is implicit in all this criticism. The æsthetic lover of beauty, the artist who is satisfied with feats of poetic craft, will not find anything to his liking in these volumes. They are presided over by a severe Platonism intellectually, by an exacting and all-including Christianity when the subject touches upon man's life, and they will prove somewhat difficult reading, perhaps, because the thought continually reverts to great ideas, to that doctrine of life which the author seeks for in the poets, and prizes as the substance of their works. But it is good in poetic days like these to be brought back to the more serious muses which inspired the great ideal works of our literature, and to converse with them under the guidance of such a spirit as fills these essays—of which we have noticed but a comparatively small portion—with a sense of the continual presence in great literature of the higher interests of man, his life on earth, and his spiritual relation to the universe. These essays contain the fruits of habitual familiarity with poetry, the convictions of a lifetime with regard to those things which are still important subjects of thought to thoughtful men; and there is, mingled with the style, the sweet persuasiveness of a refined and liberal nature, which is only too well aware that it must plead its cause, and pleads with strength and charm.

THE INSCRIPTIONS OF ASIA MINOR.

The Wolfe Expedition to Asia Minor. By J. R. Sitlington Sterrett, Ph.D. (Papers of the American School of Classical Studies at Athens. Vol. III). 8vo, pp. vii, 448. With two maps. Boston: Damrell & Upham. 1888.

THE solid fruit of the American School of Classical Studies at Athens, founded by the American Institute of Archæology, is beginning to appear, and justifies the policy which calls for a permanent director. One and another director has gone out for a year, to brush up his knowledge of modern Greek, in one or two cases with no interest in archæology, and the

fruit of their work has been very meagre. Apart from Bulletins, two short papers (included in the two volumes of miscellaneous papers published in 1885 and 1888) represent the special studies of these directors. Dr. Sterrett, however, was connected with the School, either as pupil or Secretary, from its beginning until he lately accepted a professorship in Miami University. As the result of his prolonged connection, and still more of his unbounded enthusiasm, we have his publication of the Inscriptions of Assos and Tralleis, in the first volume; this third volume, with 651 inscriptions, mostly hitherto unpublished; and the second volume, also filled with new inscriptions collected in Dr. Sterrett's epigraphical tour in Asia Minor the previous year, and which is announced as in press. This great work, with the very important chorographical work connected with it, which has reconstructed the map of some of the least known regions of Asia Minor, presents us with a mass of original research which, so far as classical topography and epigraphy are concerned, exceeds all that has been given to the learned world by all other American scholars combined. We are not surprised at the enthusiasm with which, in these columns, Mr. Stillman presented the name of this young scholar as the true representative of American scholarship in the American School at Athens and in the East.

The present volume, most creditably produced under the auspices of the Archæological Institute of America, represents explorations made in 1885 in ancient Cilicia, Lycaonia, Isauria, and Pisidia. The chorographic work is represented chiefly by the two new maps by Kiepert. One need only compare these maps with the best previously issued, namely, Kiepert's great map of the Asiatic Provinces of the Ottoman Empire, to see that in many districts the map has been wholly created by Dr. Sterrett, from his original observations and measurements. His object was to visit an unknown region, precisely for the purpose of filling in its map and gathering its inscriptions; and the result is, that this region, from being one of the most unknown, has become among the best known. The volume gives no proper indication of the labor this must have cost. Compelled by the limited funds at his disposal (only a thousand dollars—and never was that sum better spent in the cause of ancient learning) to work economically, he travelled over a dangerous country, with no companion and no retinue except two tried native servants, a groom and a cook, and aided chiefly by his experience aud his knowledge of the Turkish language. He has thus done in good part for these provinces, and for Pisidia and Cappadocia, which will be the subject of his forthcoming volume, what Mr. W. M. Ramsay has so nobly and exhaustively done for Phrygia, and what the late Austrian expedition has been doing for Lycia.

The map of the district covered by this exploration has been enriched by fifteen or twenty ancient cities and towns, which have for the first time been located with certainty. Of these the most interesting, perhaps, is the Lystra of St. Paul's travels. It is on an ancient site called Zoldera, having an acropolis like an Assyrian *tel*, by the modern town of Khatūn Serai, about twenty miles south-southeast of Iconium. Its location is fixed by a Latin inscription on a large quadrangular pedestal at Zoldera, which reads: "Divum Augustum Colonia Julia Felix Gemina Lustra consecravit decreto decurionum." Another of the new discoveries, Artanada, has peculiar geological interest. It is near the small river Gök Su, which runs down a gorge and suddenly sinks under ground to reappear half a mile lower down. Scarcely has the Gök Su disappeared beneath its natural bridge before two other streams burst out from the mountain sides and enter what should have been its bed, and flow along till they fall in cascades into the river after it emerges to the light. The inscription which identifies the town very appropriately calls it "Αρτανάδα τῆς ποταμίας." Other towns identified are Ostra, Lalassis, Lauzados, Neronopolis, Gorgorome, Sedasos, Isaura Nova (an important town mentioned in a lately discovered fragment of Sallust), Anaboura, Minassos, Tymandos, and Plinna. To these may be added from the Appendix, containing a few inscriptions found on the Wolfe expedition to Babylonia, Aracha (modern Erek), and the discovery of Roman roads, both east and west of Palmyra, whose existence had never before been suspected.

Returning to Asia Minor, we have an account of a remarkable monolithic Hittite stele, twenty-three feet high and nine feet in diameter, found by Dr. Sterrett at Fassiller, containing figures in style like those of Euyük and Elflatun Puñar. If we may add a little interpretation and conjecture to the description given, there is figured a king standing between two lions, with his hands clasped over his breast. Directly over the king is his god, who corresponds to the Greek Herakles and the Babylonian Gisdubar. His right hand is held aloft, and grasps what may be a weapon, while under his left arm he holds what can be hardly anything else than a lion. We believe that this is the first time that this god has been found thus depicted on Hittite remains.

Of the additions these inscriptions make to Greek lexicography we need not speak. A large number of them are funerary, but others are larger and of especial interest. Such are Nos. 366-388, which give a long list of persons who came from various Pisidian towns, most of which are not known. Of more interest are the inscriptions which give instructions for the use of those consulting oracles. One long inscription from Anaboura gives the omens corresponding to various throws of the dice. Each throw has its tutelar god as well as its encouragement or warning. Another inscription contains the omens in an acrostic form. The person consulting the oracle was probably required to take at random out of a box a pebble inscribed with one of the letters of the alphabet. If, for example, his pebble was inscribed with *beta*, his oracle was "Thou shalt have the help of Apollo and of Fortune"; but if he happened to pick out *kappa*, or *xi* or *phi*, he had to be content with such answers as these: "The wave of the sea raves and rests," "You can't pick fruit from dry branches," "When you have done anything shabbily, you will begin by and by to blame the gods." These oracles are in verse, and so is No. 438, an interesting essay on Liberty, which tells us:

> "It is not one's ancestors that make a free man,
> For one Zeus is the father of all, and men have one root."

This may indicate what was the drift of the poem of Aratus from which we have Paul's quotation, "For we are all his offspring." After this advanced thesis the verses continue with a eulogy on Epictetus, who, though born of a slave mother, was an eagle among men and godlike in wisdom.

We are pleased to see frequent acknowledgment given for assistance, especially to Mr. Ramsay, who has since gone over a portion of this territory (in the Addenda there is a constant error of one in the references to the numbers of the inscriptions reëxamined by Mr. Ramsay), and to German and American scholars for help and suggestions in difficult points of restoration. Doubtless other corrections will have to be made, as where, on a milestone, No. 650, the numeral "xiii" it would seem should read xvii. But whatever emendations of readings may be made by scholars in their studies, they will recognize Dr. Sterrett as the first American to harvest in the field of epigraphy where Waddington, Ramsay, and others have done such notable work.

RECENT NOVELS.

Four Ghost Stories. By Mrs. Molesworth. Macmillan & Co.

Loyalty George. By Mrs. Parr. (Leisure Hour Series.) Henry Holt & Co.

Brinka: An American Countess. By Mary Clare Spenser. Spenser Publishing Co.

Mrs. Molesworth has written four pleasant little stories of family life, in each of which an attempt is made upon the genus wild ghost to capture a specimen, tame him, and lead him about with a string. The reader is left more interested in the rest of the story than in the ghost. It may, however, in such case be taken as a tribute to the author's tact in accessories that the "yo-heave-oh-ing," as Mr. Lowell has it, attracts more attention than the avowed object of the recitals. Of Mrs. Molesworth's four ghosts, only one appears with anything of warning or tragic portent. Two are irrelevant accidental ghosts, returning, one by force of habit to its earthly haunts, the other to look at a pet cup and saucer fallen into stranger hands; the third projects himself from a living being with the wholly benevolent intention of assuring a woman that he loves her, and of fixing her in that belief until the postal service can more fully explain his wishes. The Society for Psychic Research will find new features herein, and, while encouraging the practical and beneficent in ghosts, will frown (it is to be hoped) on a type of wraith who appears to little girls of twelve. This is an absolute novelty in returning shades, and not an agreeable one. The description of the terror that in each case seizes the ghost-seer is skilfully effected, and is all that saves the book from being cheerful and charming, for a sane and healthful spirit has done everything to make the apparitions' visits as comfortable as possible. The ordinary embellished ghost story is like a skull made into an ornament for a library table; these resemble rather a decorative metal wrought into the shape of a skull.

'Loyalty George' is a story of Devonshire coast life during the days succeeding the French wars, when "Bony" was the name which frightened naughty children into seemly behavior, when stories of the press-gang were memories as well as romance, and smugglers had little trouble to ply their trade. Scores of novel-writers have made the times and places familiar, notably Mrs. Gaskell, whose 'Sylvia's Lovers' will inevitably come to mind as one opens Mrs. Parr's book. But the times and places lend themselves to fiction so readily that one is only glad to meet them again, and 'Loyalty George' is in no sense an imitation. If we have with Mrs. Gaskell climbed these cliffs and looked upon this sea, hurried to the sands to see the fishing boats come in, hunted birds' nests in the rocky walls, pushing a way through gorse and bramble, listened to the sea stories of soldiers and sailors, and passed the time of day with fishwives, it is with a guide of a humor more subtle than even Mrs. Gaskell's that we walk the streets of the twin villages, Ferrers and Fairstoke, and sit at the villagers' tea-tables or listen to Mrs. Coode's private interpretation of Providence. The heroine, with her disreputa-

ble surroundings, is so sweet and loyal a vagabond that it is a pity she fixed her affections on a man who knew how to love better than to trust, and that so she had to be sacrificed to the needs of a tragic consistency. Dunchy, the deaf boatman, with his malodorous past and his wise affection for his little maiden friend, is a character to be put among the realities; so, too, the gentle Wesleyan minister; while Mrs. Coode is not unworthy of the hand that drew Sister Glegg and Sister Pullet.

Mr. Henry James describes one of his characters as a woman not beautiful, but who carried herself as if she were so. 'Brinka, an American Countess,' may be called a book which is neither good, witty, nor learned, but which exhibits itself with a complacent air of being all these, and more. Mr. James's heroine was justified by producing the effect of beauty, but 'Brinka,' less happy, imparts to the reader the last sting of irritation by its assumption of qualities conspicuously absent. The wit is thieves' slang, puns, and a particularly debased type of malapropisms; the learning flaps a noisy wing over every department of human research from botany to occultism; titles and riches which beggar Lothair gild the pages; and beauty, skin-deep, is borrowed from bonbon boxes. The morals of the book are irreproachable. There may be those who will like it.

Elementary Chemistry. By M. M. Pattison Muir, M.A., and Charles Slater, M.A., M.B. Cambridge, England: At the University Press; New York: Macmillan. 1887.

Practical Chemistry. By M. M. Pattison Muir, M.A., and Douglas Carnegie, B.A. Same publishers. 1887.

Meyer's Modern Theories of Chemistry. Translated from the German (5th edition) by P. Phillips Bedson and W. Carleton Williams. New York: Longmans. 1888.

THE senior author of the first two books in the above list has been one of the most outspoken critics of the methods of teaching elementary chemistry, and teachers of this branch of natural science will consequently examine with interest the results of his constructive efforts which are embodied in these two volumes. We may as well say at once that those who hope to find in them a solution of the difficulties which beset the teaching of elementary chemistry, will be disappointed. The two books are intended to be used together —the one to be read in connection with a course of lectures, the other to serve as a guide in the accompanying laboratory work. "Their object is to teach the elements of chemical science."

The 360 closely printed pages of the 'Elementary Chemistry' contain much valuable matter and excellent discussion of chemical theory, and might be read by an advanced student to advantage. But the book is designed for beginners; and looking at it from this point of view, our verdict must be that it presents an unsatisfactory and even impossible scheme. In the first chapter chemical change is discussed and illustrated by the aid of substances many of which are heard of by the beginner for the first time, while the familiar instances of chemical change in every-day experience are ignored. The student is plunged at the outset into a strange world, filled with unknown materials of extraordinary behavior. Further along he finds himself quite out of his depth, bewildered by the array of novel reactions and the conclusions drawn from them, and hardly in a state of mind to agree with the statement (p. 11), "Alchemy was a fascinating dream, but chemistry is a more satisfying reality." There is throughout the book an entire lack of contact with and reference to the chemistry of common life. Not till page 70, after discussion of such subjects as "Conservation of Mass" and "Laws of Chemical Combination," is the chemical study of water and air taken up. In short, the book is a study of chemical theory, and not an elementary chemistry in any ordinary sense of the term.

The same general criticism naturally applies also to the companion volume. This contains over 200 careful descriptions of experiments for the student's laboratory work, among which teachers will find much that is suggestive, though it would appear that in several cases the authors' experiments have led to unique results. In the preface to this volume we find this singular statement (the italics are ours): "The aim of the authors has been to arrange a progressive course of practical chemistry, in which *as the experiments become more difficult the reasoning becomes more close and accurate.*" As if loose and inaccurate reasoning should have any place in a text-book of science, and above all in one for beginners! Unfortunately, we find that the "reasoning" in both volumes is in many cases of a sort which this sentence would lead one to expect. Too often do we find such forms as this: "Assuming that the proofs are conclusive, and assuming that, etc., . . . the results of the present experiment teach, etc." This no student of logical mind will endure; he will be disposed to say, and justly: "Assuming so much, assume all, and give one the results without this laborious pretence of experimental proof." The cuts are rough, and the drawing in bad proportion.

By their translation of Dr. Lothar Meyer's 'Moderne Theorien der Chemie,' Profs. Bedson and Williams have placed American and English chemists under many obligations. In the original this standard work has reached its fifth edition, having been thoroughly revised and greatly enlarged since the appearance of the third edition in 1876. The translation is usually smooth and accurate, though we notice a few inexcusable misinterpretations. One, which must be particularly annoying to the author, is that which occurs at the end of the preface to the first edition, where he is made to say: "The merit of rendering a service to science by means of this book is equally shared by the author and the colleague with whom this subject has been frequently discussed." What he does say is: "Enthalten diese Mittheilungen etwas für die Wissenschaft verwendbares, so ist dieses nicht mehr mein Verdienst als, etc."—*i. e.*, "*If* this work prove of any service to science, etc."

Good Form in England. By an American. D. Appleton & Co.

Manners. Cassell & Co. 1888.

THE author of 'Good Form' seems to have spent so many years abroad that his mother tongue is no longer elastic enough to enable him to express his ideas clearly. Thus, in the short preface are to be found such phrases as *raison d'être*, *entrée*, *en bloc*, *au fait*, and elsewhere such a sentence as: "It is only individually that members of high society can recognize persons *dehors* its limits." And yet, at page 176, we are told that: "Interlarding one's remarks with foreign languages such as French . . . would be thought pedantic to the verge of being put down as a schoolmaster, a social condition of not particularly good form in high society"—so that, in this respect, the author is self-convicted of "bad form." As a handbook of the order of precedence, the book may possibly be useful to members of the American legation, whose education might seem neglected if they knew not that the Master of the Horse goes in to dinner before the Vice-Chamberlain. Ordinary readers will be interested to know that "in England a gentleman must be one by birth. Conduct has nothing to do with it"; that "the Prince of Wales has a nickname well known in society—it is Tummy"; that "the Attorney-General and Solicitor-General are never called General So-and-so"; that "dentists have no social standing at all in England"; that "there is no such entertainment known in England as a ladies' lunch party"; and that an American "must never criticise the *looks* of a person of rank." They will also read with awe that "the fact should be crystallized in every American's brain that a baronet is not a nobleman, neither is he a lord"; and that "within a year or two an effort has been made to introduce the wearing of a high hat with a jacket"; and they will feel immensely relieved by the author's assertion that "this is a fashion that will never take lasting root"! It is rather startling to be told that "advertisements of births are always of son or daughter—never in any other fashion"; on the other hand it is curious to note that "there could be no worse form than for a lady to sign her name Mrs. John Jones or Mrs. Fanny Smith. The signature should be Fanny Smith in both cases." Surely, Mr. Smith should be allowed an appeal from this decision! At page 204 information is given as to the "mode of formally addressing letters to persons of rank"—*e. g.*, to the Princess of Wales: "Commencement, Madam; conclusion, I have the honor to be, madam, your Royal Highness's most obedient, humble servant, H.R.H. the Princess of Wales, K.G.," etc. Presumably the latter part is meant for the address on the envelope, but the Princess of Wales would surely be astonished at being addressed as a Knight of the Garter!

The facts scattered through the book are of so varied a character as to suggest encyclopædic researches, but they are for the most part correct. At page 21, however, it is stated that Edward the Black Prince was the first English duke, created in 1337, and at page 24 it is further stated that the title of Marquis was introduced several years before that of duke, and that the first marquis was Robert de Vere, created in 1386. But the weakness of the book does not result so much from its errors of omission and of commission as from the absurd theory on which it is based, viz., that perfect manners are only to be found among the English nobility and their imitators. An eminent floor-manager has recently stated that New York society consists of about four hundred men and women. And yet there are people who would regret that an intelligent foreigner should derive his only idea of New York society from association with this limited circle. They would fear that he might carry away the impression that New York society is composed of a few individuals rather lacking in what Matthew Arnold calls "the interesting." And so in London it has been rudely said that there are not a dozen members of the House of Lords who are capable of intelligent conversation on any but the most elementary subjects. Americans who know London society know that its charms are not to be enjoyed in the houses of the aristocracy, which are insufferably dull, but that in the less pretentious abodes, where they find "the feast of reason and the flow of soul," they are sure to find also the manners of gentlemen, which are the same the world over, and which are not learned in handbooks such as this.

"The member of New York's most exclusive circles" who has written 'Manners' "from her own experience as a woman of society and fashion," is so deeply impressed with the gravity of the subject that she has induced nine other ladies, who are presumably no less exclusive and equally experienced, to give the book a formal endorsement in writing. By this ingenious arrangement her decisions on the all-important questions at issue carry absolute conviction to the ordinary mind, and make criticism well-nigh impossible. If the book were really devoted to the consideration of *manners*, this solemnity would be worthy of all praise; but, as a matter of fact, it is entirely devoted to *customs*, which are, by comparison, fleeting and transitory things. The midshipman on the Pacific station who wrote home about the manners and customs of the South Sea Islanders, said that as for manners they had none, but their customs were simply abominable—thereby showing that he had fairly grasped the subtle distinction between manners and customs. This book contains a vast number of rules and regulations in regard to awnings, balls, baths, brides, caudles, cards, and many other interesting matters, and, according to the preface, "meets a demand that has long been acknowledged." It is to be hoped that, in regard to these things at least, New York society will in future move more smoothly and make fewer mistakes.

Girard's Will and Girard College Theology. By Richard B. Westbrook, D.D., LL.D. Published by the Author. No. 1707 Oxford St., Philadelphia.

Dr. Westbrook's book, which is respectfully dedicated "to the Mayor, Aldermen, and Citizens of Philadelphia, their successors and assigns in trust," has been written under a strong conviction that the present system of religious instruction in Girard College is a palpable violation of the founder's will, and not well adapted to promote those "purest principles of morality" which were his dearest care. The book is made up of five chapters, and an appendix containing the will of Stephen Girard in good part, and a part of the opinion of the Supreme Court on the will, delivered by Chief Justice Story in 1844. There are portions of the latter from which it is a far cry to the public sentiment of the present time, however it may be with their legality, as where it is assumed that Christianity is a part of the common law of Pennsylvania, and where it is questioned what would be the fate of a devise for the establishment of a school or college "for the propagation of Judaism or Deism or any other form of infidelity." The present action of the College would seem to be perfectly consistent with the decision of Judge Story. But no such action was then on its trial. The question then was, Should the will be broken because of its exclusion of clergymen from the College premises and instruction, and because its exclusive preference for purely moral teaching was implicitly anti-Christian?

In the first chapter we have "The Case Stated"; first, some slight account of Girard's life and will, and then an exhibition of the present methods of the College in the matter of religious instruction. It seems that it has a chapel on its grounds, that the manual used in this chapel is of evangelical theology all compact, bristling with texts and stanzas that affirm the doctrines of the trinity and vicarious sacrifice and their next of kin. It is true that no ordained clergyman is permitted to teach in the College or preach in the chapel, but every Sunday a preacher is furnished by the Young Men's Christian Association, and to make sure that Girard's wish "that the tender minds of the orphans shall be free from the excitement which clashing doctrines and sectarian controversy are apt to produce," great care is taken that all of the preachers shall be of one kind, and that soundly evangelical. It is difficult to see why these preachers should not be even legally, as well as morally, regarded as the "missionaries," if not the "ecclesiastics" or "ministers," excluded by the founder's will. There cannot be the slightest doubt that the income of Girard's money is being used in a way that would have been abhorrent to his soul, and against which he would have fortified himself if he had anticipated a mere formal adherence to his injunctions (if so much as that) while their spirit would be entirely disregarded. Girard was a deist of the school of Helvetius and Voltaire, as is plainly shown by his naming two of his ships after these men. What he wished to keep out of his college was the religious teachings of Protestant and Roman Catholic orthodoxy. His exclusion of "ecclesiastics, missionaries, and ministers of any sect" was merely a means to this end. "For ways that are dark," which he did not anticipate, he failed to provide sufficiently, it would appear.

In his second chapter Dr. Westbrook examines the defence of the directors, which consists in the assertion of their freedom from sectarian teaching, and their claim that Girard did not wish to exclude the common principles of Christianity. The second proposition Dr. Westbrook doubts, and the first he thoroughly disproves. In his third chapter he discusses with much force and earnestness the question, "Are Sectarian Dogmas Essential to Morality?" arriving at a negative conclusion. In his fourth and fifth chapters he sums up the argument and amplifies some special points. It would seem that such a vigorous assault as this must draw out from the officers of the College a more serious defence of their conduct than they have yet made. If it does not, it must appear that they have none to make. In this case, will they go on in direct contravention of the wishes of the man whose bounteous charity has been intrusted to their hands, or will they endeavor to bring their action into conformity with his desires?

The controversy which Dr. Westbrook argues with so much earnestness and evident sincerity is an interesting pendant to the Andover controversy. Such liberals as are well satisfied with the action of the Andover professors have in the Girard business an opportunity to "know how it is themselves," and to judge, with the boot upon the other leg, whether it is perfectly comfortable and satisfactory. Those who, however they may feel about the Andover teaching, believe in the sacredness of trusts till they are legally annulled, will find the same moral defect in the liberal construction there as in the conservative construction of the pietists of Girard College.

Historic Waterways: Six Hundred Miles of Canoeing Down the Rock, Fox, and Wisconsin Rivers. By Reuben Gold Thwaites. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.

Here is a book that, like Topsy, was never "made," but just "grew." The author, living on the head-waters of Rock River, had a passion to see where it ran to. So, putting his wife and some other necessaries on board a thirteen-foot skiff, weighing only ninety-five pounds, he floated down stream to the confluence of the Rock with the Mississippi. But "floated" is too weak a word for a voyage on which Mr. Thwaites forced a passage through one and twenty barriers of barbed wire hedging up his way, and dragged his boat over not a few portages that were still more formidable. Notwithstanding, he laid behind him about forty miles a day during a descent of well-nigh three hundred miles.

The wayside or waterside scenes struck the canoeist as a series of revelations, so he jotted down what met his eyes and ears, and, behold, there came out this book. The work abounds in original observations in a neglected field. Not the least amusing disclosure is where the River and Harbor Improvement money goes to. Mr. Thwaites's range is wide, but for botanical gleanings and nomenclature he betrays a large debt to his wife, the sole sharer of his boat, holding the steering paddle, to whom the volume is fitly dedicated. We are told of water-bugs on lily-pads—of turtles basking on sand-banks — of bitterns and other birds of higher flight—of islands that stud the stream and render the channel sometimes labyrinthine — of bluff-heads, among them one named Eagle's Nest by Margaret Fuller—of limestone palisades which gave the river the name of Rock. But the most curious and frequent "find" along Mr. Thwaites's route was a phenomenon analogous to the dead cities of the Zuyder Zee.

Dead cities in a State only forty years old are indeed a wonder which needs a word of explanation. The genesis of Wisconsin was in this wise: Black Hawk, who had agreed to remain west of the Mississippi, in 1832 crossed it near Rock Island with his warriors. He was pursued, chased up the Rock River from its mouth to its source, and, by a more northern course, back into Iowa. The soldiery in this "Black Hawk war" were largely farmers' boys from older States. Few of them failed to pick out farms along the Rock, which, after the Indians were expelled, they made haste to occupy, each with the girl he had left behind him. Railroads had not yet been tested; canals were in their glory. The first charter for internal improvement in the Territory was to connect the Rock with Lake Michigan. Hamlets sprang up with mushroom rapidity along the river, each and every one, like the holder of a lottery ticket, having, in its own opinion, the fairest prospect of a "boom," when farm lands would sell for city lots. Railroads were a killing frost to all these budding hopes. Seldom was our voyager out of sight of pretentious sign-boards and battlemented fronts to make shanties look two stories high—tombstones, as it were, of great expectations and dead cities.

In keeping with the architectural wrecks are what may be styled the "'longshoremen." These are survivors of the pre-agricultural era, or degeneracies from it, and are nothing if not fishers and hunters. What the vacationist takes as the extreme medicine of his constitution, is their daily food. They hang on the outskirts of civilization, or rather have been shaken off as the dust of its feet. Never have these pariahs been better photographed than by Mr. Thwaites. Their children's heads, rising above one another "like a step-ladder," did not augur the survival of the fittest.

Our author's Rock River experiences were repeated, with manifold variations, in the self-same boat, from end to end of the Wisconsin and Fox Rivers. His rowing in all was little short of six hundred miles, aided slightly by an awning which he sometimes spread as a sail.

Mr. Thwaites is the new Secretary of the Wisconsin State Historical Society. It was fitting that, on the threshold of his service, he should traverse pioneer routes in a pioneer

boat. This he has done more thoroughly than any living man who is likely to record his observations. His travels will aid his documentary research, as Parkman's roughing it in a similar style so essentially aided him. The title 'Historic Waterways' is expressive. The book is not without historical notices running back on Wisconsin ground through all generations up to within four years of the founding of Boston. "Waterways" is a self-explaining compound, which, with "Wisconsin," forms a euphonious alliteration. Yet the only definition of this compound, in both Worcester and Webster, is: "A piece of timber serving to connect the sides of a vessel to the deck, and through which the scuppers are carried." "Widespread" is a significant substantive—in contradistinction to narrows—but unknown to Worcester and to Webster, as are "swish," "carry" as a noun, and several others of Mr. Thwaites's vocables, which *Bardolph* would yet pronounce "words of exceeding good command." There is something racy in his reproduction of the patois of the lurkers along the rivers—its very form and pressure. But now and then his own diction is not immaculate. His title-page motto is a good keynote from Thoreau. One still better is this of Pascal, who said everything in words which no man can mend: "Les rivières sont les chemins qui marchent, et qui portent où l'on veut aller." Our canoeist cannot lack followers on the waterways—once highways but now byways—which he discovered in his outing, and has described in his book.

Picturesque San Diego, with Historical and Descriptive Notes. By Douglas Gunn. San Diego, Cal. Illustrated with seventy-two photogravures.

"EARLY in March, 1887, the author and Mr. Herve Friend, one of the ablest photographic artists in the country, took the field, and together they covered over 1,500 miles of travel, securing views of the most characteristic features of the 'back country' of San Diego. It is believed that no work of so expensive a character, illustrative of a section, has hitherto been published." After this the fashion must be widely followed. Not to speak of a picturesque New York or Philadelphia, let the reader, a native of any country town, figure to himself an edition of seventy-two of the most picturesque scenes of his own boyhood. And what neighborhood could not produce them? In fact, we are of opinion that our Eastern neighborhoods would not suffer by comparison with the one here presented. Whether illustrating New York city, the Hudson, New Jersey, the Delaware, Lehigh, or Schuylkill Valley, the Susquehannah, West Branch, or the Juniata, we could, in seventy-two scenes, produce even more to gladden the eye than San Diego. The difference is in the different floras of the two countries. It must be remembered that the two gentlemen to whom we are indebted for this pleasure "took the field early in March, 1887. The season in which we were compelled to make our artistic tour was perhaps the most unfavorable possible. There had been no rain or snow in the mountains of any consequence for several months; the trees in the orchards had not yet come to foliage and blossom. But there the country is, just as we found it, faithfully reproduced with the unerring accuracy of the photograph"; skilfully supplemented, it should be added, by the art of photogravure. In looking at these pictures, we must never forget that "the mountain-tops in the north may glisten in their robes of snow, the atmosphere may glow with fever-heat in the Colorado desert on the east, yet the resident of San Diego, dwelling but eighty miles from mountain-top or desert depression—300 feet below the level of the sea—enjoys the same delightful temperature, never rising above 80° or falling below 40°, with scarcely a perceptible difference between winter and summer, wears the same clothing, and sleeps under the same covering the year round."

The illustrations in this book will show more plainly than any descriptive writing can do that there is, to quote again our authors, a real "back country behind the city of San Diego; and while it was our aim, in obtaining these views, to secure the picturesque features of our scenery, it was also our purpose to show that there really is *water* in this so-called 'dry' country—that there is not only water, but an abundance of it." In execution of this special design we have a series of views like the Linda Park, the Pond at Agua Tibia, Elsinore Lake, San Bernardo River, North San Diego River, Cuyamaca Lake (146 feet), Falls East Branch of San Diego River, Santa Isabel Creek, Falls of Pauma Creek, and the Sweet Water Dam, which are certainly enough to freshen the dreams of any wanderer in the desert.

San Diego has an excellent harbor—the best between San Francisco, 480 miles northwest of it, and Callao, say 4,000 miles southeast. This harbor is 500 miles nearer the south Pacific ports of Australia and New Zealand than San Francisco or any other harbor of our coast, and is 350 miles nearer New York than San Francisco is. The question of a "back country" was, therefore, superfluous; even without a back country, a city would have been built on the spot. But the question of a back country has been wholly solved. Not merely is a grain-producing district provided; not merely has a great cattle range been established in the "cow counties" of California for half a century, with San Diego as its entrepôt; but the same soil has been found to produce almost all those staples which our country otherwise lacks. "The principal productions of the country at present (1886) are, in the order named, wheat, wool, and honey." The olive, the fig, the date, the banana, the cocoanut, and, probably, the bread fruit, are well established; the vine, the great staple of history, and the orange and lemon, the modern staples, already contribute to the world's stock. The sugar cane is established, and is probably, in part, reserved for portions of what we now call the Colorado Desert.

On the educational and social facilities of San Diego, its hotels, its labor rates, its rapid growth in population and in commerce, we cannot dwell here. The book must be referred to by the curious.

Woffington: A Tribute to the Actress and to the Woman. By Augustin Daly. J. W. Bouton. 1888.

No name in the history of the stage recalls a more accomplished artist or a more fascinating woman than that of Mistress Margaret Woffington; and yet she has waited until now, a century and a quarter after her death, for an adequate record of her career in the theatre, and for a considerate account of her character in private life. Mr. Fitzgerald Molloy's biography is one of the most shameless pieces of bookmaking ever thrust before a long-suffering public; and the chief tribute to her memory has been the romance-drama, the 'Peg Woffington' of Charles Reade, and the "Masks and Faces" of Charles Reade and Tom Taylor—a very clever work, but no more true to life than the real David Garrick was like the hero of T. W. Robertson's adaptation from the French.

Mr. Daly's memoir is most sumptuous. It is perhaps the most richly adorned volume ever devoted to the memory of a player, not excepting M. Arsène Houssaye's large and elaborately illustrated book about Molière. The form is royal quarto, and the well-proportioned page measures a little more than ten by fifteen inches. The type is bold and the book is printed on laid paper. The illustrations are abundant, and they are of all kinds, woodcuts, artotypes, and photogravures. There are sixteen in all, eleven being portraits of Mrs. Woffington. The chief of them is the frontispiece, a rich photogravure of the actress as *Sir Harry Wildair*, from a picture by Hogarth. We are not without some slight doubt as to this attribution, but there can be no dispute as to the value of the painting. Among the other likenesses, those which best suggest her beauty, her grace, and her charm are the anonymous portrait in the Jones collection at South Kensington (of which Mr. Daly gives us a woodcut printed on India paper), the delightful portraits by Eccard and Van Bleeck (here reproduced from fine impressions of the old engravings), and three portraits in character (also reproduced from the old engravings). Among the other illustrations the foremost is an admirable photogravure of a portrait of Mrs. Cibber by Thomas Hudson, hitherto unengraved and now belonging to Mr. Daly. There are also a woodcut of Woffington's monument in Teddington Church, an autotype of the church itself, a view of the almshouses which it is supposed that she erected at Teddington, and a facsimile of her autograph. To enhance this richness of illustration, there is another attraction for the collector—the edition is limited to 150 copies, plus a few more on large paper.

But it must not be supposed that the merit of the book lies rather in its decoration than in its literary quality. Such is not the case. Mr. Daly's biography is admirably written, in a style which has a color and a flavor of its own; and it is founded on the most careful and loving research. Now and again it may be possible to dispute an inference of the author's—he seems, for example, to be inclined, as is the custom of biographers, to overpraise Mrs. Woffington's virtues, which were many, and to gloss over her vices, which were far fewer; but it would be impossible to deny that Mr. Daly has taken the utmost pains to secure accuracy and exactness. Every historian of the stage, every contemporary writer of memoirs, every biography of her time, has been searched for facts and illustrations; and although it might be said that Mr. Daly sums up in favor of Mrs. Woffington, yet he has honestly set down all the testimony against her, so that the reader may, if he will, act as his own court of appeals and reverse the author's decision, on the ground that it is not supported by the evidence. We doubt, however, if any reader will care to do this; it is only a harsh moralist who must treat the kindly Peg with other than lenity. Every anecdote, every epigram, every copy of verses which may shed light on the career of the actress or the character of the woman, will be found here industriously collected and admirably arranged. In short, this sketch of Margaret Woffington by Mr. Daly is one of the very best of theatrical biographies. There is, as we suggested before, a pleasant personal quality about the writing; the reader finds many turns of sly, playful humor, and many touches derived from the author's own experience as a manager.

It remains only to be said that the author is

abundant in references to his authorities, that he has provided an ample index, and that he has drawn up a list of Woffington's parts—a supplement without which no histrionic biography is complete, and which serves in this case to show the range and versatility of the actress.

Letters of David Ricardo to Thomas Robert Malthus, 1810–1823. Edited by James Bonar. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan & Co. 1887.

Mr. Bonar's scholarship was well established by his recent book 'Malthus and his Work,' and this publication will at least not diminish his credit. What he has added to these letters is not much in quantity, but it represents a great deal of labor. The preface contains the substance of an essay upon Ricardo as an economist, although it is in too concentrated a form to be more than a suggestion of the main lines of criticism taken by modern thought. We are furnished also with an outline of the subjects of the letters, which is very carefully done, and is of great assistance to the reader. There is, besides, a full index, as well as a chronicle of the principal events occurring during the period covered by the letters, to say nothing of an abundance of judicious footnotes and some "connective tissue." In short, the editor has done all that an editor could do. Had he attempted more, he would have been obliged to compose an elaborate treatise upon the early history of the science of political economy—a task for which we incline to think he is well equipped, and to which we cheerfully invite him, but in the execution of which these letters would have played only a subordinate part.

As to the letters themselves, they are of interest only to economists, and to them chiefly as an intellectual exercise. The corresponding letters of Malthus have not been preserved, and the reader is in much the same position as if he were listening to a man using the telephone—he can imagine answers to the questions he hears and supply questions to the answers he hears, but he cannot be sure that he is doing justice to the absent interlocutor. Moreover, the positions of Ricardo are but imperfectly defined, for they must have been often stated by Malthus, and only explained or defended in reply to strictures the precise nature of which we do not know. We must add to these difficulties the circumstance that the letters relate almost exclusively to the most abstruse questions in political economy. Some of these questions Ricardo himself was the first to raise, and the steps by which he reached the solutions that are associated with his name may be here laboriously traced. Others, as those relating to value and the measure of value, are discussed with great sagacity, but without positive result; although we may say that later economists have not been able to carry the matter much further. In general, the attitude of the writer strikingly resembles that of Darwin as shown in his recently published letters. There is the same disinterested devotion to the truth, combined with an almost pathetic desire that the correspondent may be convinced by the argument in support of a certain view of the truth. There is, too, the same slight but gracious infusion of the personal element, as in the constant invitations to Malthus to visit him, and the same obliviousness to all that is going on in the world outside of science. This is perhaps more remarkable in the case of Ricardo, as he was a stock broker, and therefore necessarily attentive to the course of events. It may be added that he was so successful in reducing his economic theories to practice as to leave the—for those days—enormous fortune of £700,000.

The subjects of price, currency, rents, and profits, with which these letters are chiefly occupied, are not those which at present engage the attention of economists. The subject of wages, nowadays so prominent, is not very broadly treated, and the argument, from our point of view, is largely vitiated by Ricardo's neglect to consider the extreme differences in the quality of labor and laborers. It, however, deserves attention, and is perhaps not so antiquated as is commonly supposed. It is refreshing to leave the present atmosphere of economic discussion, which is, to say the least, injuriously affected by the introduction of political and moral considerations, and to enter one where sentiment is not intruded, and where questions of definition and of pure logic are calmly examined by the dry light of science. The spirit in which Ricardo conducted his investigations is well shown in the following extract from one of these letters:

"Nothing is to me so little important as the fall and rise of commodities in money. The great inquiries on which to fix our attention are the rise or fall of corn, labor, and commodities in real value—that is to say, the increase or diminution of the quantity of labor necessary to raise corn and to manufacture commodities. It may be curious to develop the effects of an alteration of real value on money price; but mankind are only really interested in making labor productive, in the enjoyment of abundance, and in a good distribution of the produce obtained by capital and industry."

It is hardly necessary to say that these letters will afford no material to that class of writers which is addicted to painting Ricardo in as black colors as Malthus. Both were men of unusual enlightenment and benevolence, and the passage just quoted describes the ends which they both had in view. The correspondence between them was abruptly terminated by the death of Ricardo at the early age of fifty-one years. Whoever reads it attentively will concur in Malthus's own judgment: "Our interchange of opinions was so unreserved, and the object after which we were both inquiring was so entirely the truth and nothing else, that I cannot but think we sooner or later must have agreed."

Reginald Pole, Cardinal Archbishop of Canterbury. An Historical Sketch, with an Introductory Prologue and Practical Epilogue. By Frederick George Lee, D.D. With an etched portrait of Cardinal Pole. London: John C. Nimmo; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1888. 8vo, pp. 312.

Dr. Lee's life of Cardinal Pole is not written from an historical point of view, but is a plea for "Corporate Reunion," that ecclesiastical policy which, as he says, was once happily carried out by the subject of this biography. A prologue and an epilogue of considerable length are devoted to urging this policy, but the policy is nowhere definitely described. The nearest approach to a definition that we find is where it is suggested that when this corporate reunion between "the Church of England and the Church universal" has taken place, there may well be four archbishoprics of Canterbury, York, Westminster, and Caerleon (p. xix). This is intelligible, and, so far as it goes, fair; but this was not Cardinal Pole's idea of corporate reunion. That was one of those compromises which consist in the unconditional surrender of one party to the other; and we suspect that, at the present day, when it came to the point, those would be the only terms upon which the "Church universal" would consent to unite with any national church. Another question to which our author offers no answer is, what is to be done with those persons—probably a majority of the people of Great Britian—who belong to neither of the two united churches. Cardinal Pole's reunion had a very summary and effective way of dealing with these elements of society; are we to understand that the new union is to adopt the same method? If not, we cannot see that the corporate reunion of two fractional bodies could accomplish much in the way of restoring ecclesiastical unity.

The book is written with earnestness, and in a humane spirit, with no attempt to justify the barbarities which were committed under Cardinal Pole's administration, although, as is insisted, not by his fault. "Nothing could have been more disastrous," Dr. Lee says, than the course of these events; but as no blame can attach either to the King, the Queen, the Legate, the Lord Chancellor, or the Bishop of London, the safe course is taken of referring the "evil to the age itself in which such things were done." The age and the *system* of enforced uniformity in belief. However it may be with Philip, we may well believe that both Mary and her cousin, Reginald Pole, were, as is well shown in this work, at heart humane, and were only led to persecution by this pernicious principle, upon which their corporate reunion was based.

The Life and Times of John Wilkes, M.P., Lord-Mayor of London and Chamberlain. By Percy Fitzgerald, M.A., F.S.A. 2 vols. Scribner & Welford.

This book might have been more appropriately entitled 'The Life of Wilkes,' for it is defective in giving us no comprehensive view of his times. His name marks an episode in constitutional history with which he was connected as an occasion, not as a cause, and Aristotle's dictum that the occasion of a revolution may be of a very trifling character, is entirely applicable to him. Wedderburn seems to have judged shrewdly when he said at the time of the Middlesex election: "Wilkes, I dare say, is vain enough to imagine he has raised all this tumult, but, in my opinion, he is as innocent of it as the staff that carries the flag with his name upon it." He was a man singularly deficient in virtue, nor do we know that he was possessed of any amiable traits except his affection for his daughter, his buoyant disposition, and his powers of conversation. He was totally devoid of principle both in public and in private matters, and his habits were of the most abandoned character. With a little more brutality he would have been a match for Barry Lyndon. He was false to his friends, without gratitude to those who assisted him, unblushingly venal, and in every way so contemptible that it is a distinct reproach to English liberty that his name should have been associated with its advancement. It might justly be said that a people who could find no more respectable champion than Wilkes in their struggle against arbitrary government were unworthy of success, and it is beyond question that this success was principally due to the egregious blunders of those in power. His letters prove conclusively that from the beginning to the end of his agitation for "liberty" he had only one end in view, to force the Government to give him a place or bribe him to keep silent. Knowing this, it is difficult not to look upon the whole episode as farcical, and Mr. Fitzgerald's manner of telling his story encourages this tendency. He wastes time over the uninteresting and insignificant details of Wilkes's life, and as he gives no satis-

factory account of the constitutional questions of that epoch, his book has not much value.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Agassiz, A. Three Cruises of the U. S. Geodetic Survey Steamer *Blake* in the Gulf of Mexico, in the Caribbean Sea, and along the Atlantic Coast of the United States, from 1887 to 1880. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $8.

Alden, W. L. A New Robinson Crusoe. Illustrated. Harper & Bros.

Annual American Catalogue. 1887. Office of *Publishers' Weekly*. $3.50.

Balg, G. H. A Comparative Glossary of the Gothic Language, with Especial Reference to English and German. Parts 1, 2. B. Westermann.

Barine, A. Essais et Fantaisies. Paris: Hachette & Cie.

Besant-Rice. My Little Girl. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.

Besant-Rice. The Golden Butterfly. Library ed. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.

Bigelow, J. France and the Confederate Navy, 1862–1868. An International Episode. Harper & Bros.

Brugmann, K. Elements of the Comparative Grammar of the Indo-Germanic Languages. Vol. I. Introduction and Phonology. Westermann & Co. $5.

Crawford, F. M. Marzio's Crucifix. Macmillan & Co. 50 cents.

Dialogues of Plato: Containing the Apology of Socrates, Crito, Phædo, Protagoras. Scribner & Welford.

Donnelly, J. The Great Cryptogram: Francis Bacon's Cipher in the so-called Shakespeare Plays. R. S. Peal & Co.

Encyclopædia Britannica. Ninth Edition. Vol. XXIII. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

Geikie, Rev. C. The Holy Land and the Bible. 2 vols. J. B. Alden.

Green, J. R. A Short History of the English People. With Maps and Tables. New edition, thoroughly revised. Harper & Bros.

Harrington, K. P. Helps to the Intelligent Study of College Preparatory Latin. Boston: Ginn & Co.

Henderson, D. M. Poems, Scottish and American. Baltimore: Cushings & Baily. $1.

Henry, J. B. The Messages of President Buchanan, and Sundry Letters from Members of his Cabinet. New York.

Hillebrand, W. Flora of the Hawaiian Islands: A Description of their Phanerogams and Vascular Cryptogams. B. Westermann & Co.

Hyde, Mary F. Practical Lessons in the Use of English. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.

Johns Hopkins University Studies in Historical and Political Science. Vol. VI. History of Coöperation in the United States. Baltimore: N. Murray.

Julian the Emperor: Containing Gregory Nazianzen's Two Invectives and Libanius's Monody. Scribner & Welford.

King, Grace. Monsieur Motte. A. C. Armstrong & Son.

Levy, M. Some Thoughts on Life's Battle. From Judaism to Christianity. Louisville: John P. Morton & Co. 30 cents.

Lucian's Dialogues. With Notes and Memoir by Howard Williams. Scribner & Welford.

McGuffey's Alternate Fifth Reader. Van Antwerp, Bragg & Co.

Meredith, G. Sandra Belloni. (Emilia in England.) Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.50.

O'Reilly, J. B. Ethics of Boxing and Manly Sport. Boston: Ticknor & Co. $1.50.

Osborne, D. The Spell of Ashtaroth. Chas. Scribner's Sons. $1.00.

Perey, Lucien. Histoire d'une grande dame au XVIIIe siècle. T. II. La Comtesse Hélène Potocka. Paris: Calmann Lévy; Boston: Schoenhof.

Popper, J. Exploration of Tierra del Fuego: A Lecture. B. Westermann & Co.

Ristori, Adelaide. Studies and Memoirs: An Autobiography. Boston: Roberts Bros.

Roe, E. P. An Original Belle. Dodd, Mead & Co. 25 cents.

Roe, E. P. Found Yet Lost. Dodd, Mead & Co. 25 cents.

Roker, A. B. Ask her, Man! Ask her! G. W. Dillingham.

Rose, H. From West to East. Scribner & Welford.

Rosenthal, R. S. The Meisterschaft System. Part I. Boston: Meisterschaft Publishing Co. 50 cents.

Sa'mond, Rev. C. A. Princetoniana. Charles and A. A. Hodge: With Class and Table Talk of Hodge the Younger. Scribner & Welford.

Sawyer, Dr. H. C. Nerve Waste. San Francisco: The Bancroft Co. 50 cents.

Scott, Sir W. The Lay of the Last Minstrel. Boston: Ginn & Co.

Shakspere. A Midsommer Night's Dreame. (First Folio, 1623. Reprint.) Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.

Shorthouse, J. A Teacher of the Violin, and Other Tales. Macmillan & Co. $1.

Smith, G. B. William I. and the German Empire. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $3.

Smith, M. W. Elements of English: A Preparation for the Study of English Literature. Van Antwerp, Bragg & Co.

Speer, E. Removal of Causes from the State to the Federal Courts. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

Strong, Rev. A. H. Philosophy and Religion. A. C. Armstrong & Son. $3.50.

Tanner, Dr. T. H. Memoranda on Poisons. 6th Am. ed. Philadelphia: P. Blakiston, Son & Co. 75 cents.

The Vacation Journal: a Diary of Outings from May until November. New ed. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $1.25.

Tolstoi, L. L'Ecole de Yasnaïa Poliana. Paris: A. Savine; Boston: Schoenhof.

Tolstoi, L. Les Grands problèmes de l'histoire: Pouvoir et Liberté. Paris: Westhausser; Boston: Schoenhof.

Tolstoi, L. Physiologie de la Guerre. Napoléon et la campagne de Russie. Paris: Westhausser; Boston: Schoenhof.

Tourneux, Maurice. Histoire de Beaumarchais par Gudin de la Brenellerie. Mémoires inédits. Paris: Plon & Nourrit; Boston: Schoenhof.

Underwood, Prof. L. M. Our Native Ferns and their Allies. 3d ed. Henry Holt & Co.

Walworth, Rev. C. A. Andiatorocté: Poems. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.

Ward, D. J. H. How Religion Arises: A Psychological Study. Boston: Geo. H. Ellis.

Ward, Mrs. Humphry. Robert Elsmere. In 3 vols. 3d ed. London: Smith, Elder & Co.

Warren, T. R. On Deck: or, Advice to a Young Corinthian Yachtsman. G. W. Dillingham.

Yonge, Charlotte M. Hannah More. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.

Zola, E. The Flower Girls of Marseilles. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Brothers. 75 cents.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 17, 1888.

The Week.

THE size of the majority by which the Copyright Bill has passed the Senate, warrants the belief that it will not encounter any serious difficulty in getting through the House. It is not, as has been often remarked, by any means the kind of bill which some of the earliest and most active friends of international copyright would like to see, but it has the immense and overwhelming merit of being an acknowledgment of the right of foreigners to the enjoyment of literary property on American soil. No matter how imperfect may be the protection which the law will give this species of property, the admission by our Government that it exists and ought to have some kind of protection, is still a very great gain. The gain, in fact, in this matter, as in all matters, must be measured rather by the difficulty which has been experienced in securing it than by the positive advantages it bestows. Anything which has cost a century of struggle is a considerable thing. To many people in this country it is very difficult to conceive of anything as property which the law does not recognize and protect as property. How often in the course of this discussion have we had to contend with the delusion that because a book can be stolen with impunity it may, therefore, be stolen without wrong. The present bill, therefore, inadequate as some may consider it, will have a very powerful educating influence. It will familiarize the country with the notion that a man may have a moral right to a thing, even if he have no legal right; and when this has been accomplished, the work of making the legal right fully commensurate with the moral right may safely be left to time and discussion.

The Chinese issue appears to be practically removed from our politics by the ratification in the Senate of the treaty establishing more rigorous rules against the admission of Mongolians to the United States. The vote in the Senate was all but unanimous, and the measure seems to be as sweeping as even the Pacific Coast could ask. The elimination of the Chinese issue is bad for Mr. Blaine, who has always outdone every other Republican candidate for the Presidency in demagogism on this question, while a settlement of the controversy satisfactory to the Pacific Coast is another illustration of "Cleveland's luck."

President Cleveland began vetoing improper private pension bills a few weeks ago, and now he is applying his negative to public-building bills which will not stand scrutiny. The first to encounter this fate is a measure proposing to appropriate $100,000 for the construction of a building at Allentown, Penn. The President shows that there is no necessity for such a building for any purpose connected with the public business, and that its erection would result in increased expense to the Government, since the annual rent now paid is only $1,300, while 3 per cent. interest upon the amount asked would be $3,000 a year, to which must be added the pay of a superintendent of construction while it is building, and the compensation of janitors and other expenses of its maintenance after it is done. Mr. Cleveland concludes with these excellent remarks on the general subject: "The plan now pursued for the erection of public buildings is in my opinion very objectionable. They are often built where they are not needed, of dimensions and at a cost entirely disproportionate to any public use to which they can be applied, and, as a consequence, they frequently serve more to demonstrate the activity and pertinacity of those who represent localities desiring this kind of decoration at public expense, than to meet any necessity of the Government."

One of the best features about the Presidential canvass which is just opening is the apparent assurance that it will be prosecuted without the disturbance to business which has characterized so many previous campaigns. The *Dry Goods Chronicle*, an intelligent trade paper, says that "all the conditions promise a fair year's trade"; that "business in all channels seems to be conducted on a very conservative basis;" and that there seems "no disturbing element likely to prevent a cheerful and prosperous business for the remainder of the year." The *Chronicle* attributes this in part to the fact that the more intelligent the people become the less they are influenced by politics, or the less a Presidential year is felt to be an off one; and it says that the chicanery and trickery of politicians, their hidden ways and dark means of exciting or disturbing the business interests of the country, are now pretty well understood, and are no longer very potent for ill. This is undoubtedly true as far as it goes, but there is another consideration which enters into the case this year. For the first time since the war there will be a campaign in which the "scare" argument plays no part—the argument, that is, that the country might be ruined if there were a change of administration. This argument has been very potent in the past, and has exerted a baleful influence upon business in a Presidential year, since many presumably intelligent men feared that the success of the Democrats might cause a financial convulsion. But the Democrats succeeded four years ago, and with business more prosperous now than it was then, it is doubtful if anybody will have the impudence to present the "scare" argument; and if anybody should be foolish enough to do so, it will produce no effect upon business men.

It is not worth while to consider seriously the reasons which Gov. Hill put forward in defence of his veto of the High-License Bill. There is not an intelligent observer in the State who will claim for a moment that those reasons had any influence whatever in deciding the Governor's action. Everybody knew that he would simply weigh in his mind the question of whether he could gain more political advantage for himself by vetoing than by signing the bill. As he had small hope of gaining the confidence of the more orderly and respectable portions of the voters by anything he might do, he simply came to the conclusion that he would defy them, and risk all his political chances upon the brewing and other liquor interests of the State, hoping through that powerful influence to force his renomination upon the Democratic Convention, and trust to the strength of the President and the excitement of a Presidential election to carry him into office for another term. Meantime, he has received his first official notification from his party that they do not care for further service from him. It is useless for his friends to pretend that he was not a candidate for delegate-at-large to the National Convention, for it is notorious that he was. He was very anxious to go there at the head of the delegation in order to give the impression that while the Democratic party of New York State was for Cleveland for President, it was none the less a Hill party, and gave its allegiance to Cleveland through the graceful acquiescence of David Bennett Hill. It was an attempt to link the names of Cleveland and Hill together in the hope that they would remain united in the fall campaign in this State. The emphatic refusal of the party to accept the plan is pretty conclusive evidence that the Governor's chances for a renomination are no longer worth consideration.

The Ballot-Reform Bill passed the Senate on Thursday by the handsome vote of 20 to 8, and its fate now depends upon the Governor. There are very direct rumors that he said several days before that he would veto it if it ever reached him, but we shall hesitate to believe, until he does veto it, that his eagerness to capture the support of the worst elements in politics can carry him so far. The bill is not and never was a partisan measure. It was conceived and framed by men of all political faiths, including Democrats, Republicans, Independents, and Labor Reformers. The Democrats among them probably outnumbered the representatives of all other parties taken together, but they, like those other representatives, devoted themselves to the task in hand, not as partisans, but as public-spirited citizens. The bill which they framed has no other object than to make elections honest by taking the control of them out of the hands of political heelers and strikers. If the Governor sees fit to veto it, his action will be only another sign that he thinks the support of the dishonest, disreputable, and tricky element of the Democratic party

more powerful than the honest and respectable elements. There is not a newspaper in the Democratic party of this city or State, which has any standing outside of gambling dens and liquor-saloons, that has not commended this bill and urged its passage. They ought to warn the Governor now that he will not merely injure himself but his party by coming out as the champion of dishonest elections, in addition to his record as champion of unrestricted rum-selling and political jobbery.

The situation in which the State prisons have been left by the failure of the Legislature to appropriate money for the employment and maintenance of the inmates is simply barbarous. As all the earnings of the prisons are paid into the State Treasury, and cannot be got out without an appropriation, the grotesque spectacle is presented of 3,500 convicts working at productive employments and earning money for the State which cannot be employed even to pay for their own bread, the State simultaneously refusing to supply any other funds for that purpose. It follows that unless the Governor calls an extra session, the prison doors must be opened when the present supplies run out, so that the convicts can get something to eat. If those members of the Legislature, including young Mr. Hamilton, who voted against the appropriation, could be shut up in their places for a while, the change would be an appropriate one. As for Mr. Yates of Schenectady, the proper place for him is a county insane asylum. That the Governor will have to call an extra session is evident. Fortunately, no subject can be acted on in extra session except that which he recommends for consideration.

Prof. H. C. Adams contributes an article to *America* (the new Chicago weekly), on the surplus question, holding that wise statesmanship requires that both the internal revenue and the tariff systems be preserved as the permanent framework of our fiscal policy. The reason advanced for this plan is that we ought always to be ready for an emergency, and never again be caught napping as we were when the civil war broke out. We ought to have revenue machinery in actual use and practical operation which is capable of yielding large sums by merely increasing the rates of taxation. It has been shown by experiment that the tariff is insufficient for great emergencies. It has been equally shown that the building up of an internal-revenue system *de novo* is a slow process. This system did not get into the best working order until the war was nearly ended. It did not produce its best results until the year 1866. It is now demonstrably clear that if the internal-revenue system had been in existence before the war, and if the spirit had possessed our rulers to "work it for all it was worth," the whole cost of the war might have been defrayed without incurring a dollar of debt. These are cogent and overwhelming reasons for *not* adopting the Randall-Kelley programme of abolishing the internal-revenue system. Prof. Adams closes his article with a temperate argument in favor of the repeal of duties on all articles "which, by a liberal interpretation, can be classed as raw material," together with a corresponding reduction on manufactured goods into which these raw materials enter. In fact, Prof. Adams seems to agree in principle with the President's message and with the Mills bill in the main, although the latter does continue the tax on some raw materials of an important character.

The New Orleans *Times-Democrat* asks, in view of the Adams-Martin tragedy at Jackson, whether "it is not time to call a halt" "in the matter of fighting with deadly weapons in the public streets" at the South? We think it is. There is no other community as highly civilized as the Southern States, which now treats the world to the spectacle of combats with knives and firearms in the public highway between respectable men, filling responsible positions in society. This last affair was made horribly grotesque by the fact that one of the combatants was an old man of seventy, the other a youngster of twenty-five. But "calling a halt" every now and then when a more than usually atrocious affray has taken place, will not mend matters. The Southern press has done this many a time already without much effect. The cure must begin much further back. Southern boys must be taught from their cradles the sacredness of human life, the shame of carrying deadly weapons in a free State in the nineteenth century, and the folly as well as barbarism of avenging libels and slanders by public murder. If in this last affair Adams, the old man, had prosecuted criminally or sued civilly the young journalistic "squirt" who, after the manner of his kind, was calling him names and making charges against him, he would not only have applied the only effective balm to his wounded honor, but have given the whole State a lesson in civilization which it apparently greatly needs.

The retirement of President Barnard of Columbia College from the active work of an educator, although plainly presaged by the clock of time, has come upon the community at last as an unwelcome surprise. We leave to his brethren in the noble profession in which he has been so long eminent, the duty of recounting in proper terms and at the proper time the particular services that he has rendered to the upbuilding of a university in New York worthy of the city and of the illustrious men who have preceded him, and of those who have graduated from its walls. During his long service, both here and elsewhere, President Barnard has set the example of citizenship before his pupils and his faculty as the end and aim of teaching and the fruition of college life, discharging the duties of the citizen that came to his hand with a sense of modest responsibility, and in all cases with marked advantage to the community. Thoroughly trained in the arts and sciences which make for human progress, and wholly devoid of self-seeking, he has neither withheld any service that he could render beyond the sphere of his profession nor sought any distinction outside of it. He has been preëminently the man teaching as distinguished from the mere teacher, and he has impressed the trait of citizenship upon all who have come within the range of his influence. Although advancing years have compelled him to deliver the laboring oar to younger hands, it is gratifying to know that his intellect remains unclouded, and gives the hope of still further service to the commonwealth. In common with all his fellow-citizens we join in wishing him the reward he has richly earned of a serene retirement, graced with the memories and friendships of a long life in which no time has been wasted or ill-spent.

The Pope's rescript on the Irish question is being speedily explained away. It is confessedly not an *ex-cathedra* utterance, because it is not addressed to the whole world, but only to the Irish, and he is not infallible except when he speaks *ex cathedra*. On other occasions he may make mistakes like anybody else. Moreover, in the present case, he does not speak himself at all; he simply adopts an opinion drafted by one "Congregation," or committee of prelates, who, it is admitted, may have been incorrectly informed about the facts. Then the Irish bishops have still to sit upon the rescript, or, in other words, to interpret it to the Irish people, and, judging from Archbishop Walsh's recent letter in one of the Dublin papers, they are not likely to interpret it in a way that will bear hard on the tenants. It is directed almost wholly against the plan of campaign and boycotting, and it will probably now be said that if the Pope had had the whole situation put fully and accurately before him, he would not have taken such a dark view of the matter. In short, it is apparently not likely to exert much, if any, influence on Irish matters. Parnell gets out of expressing an opinion on it by saying that it would be hardly delicate for a Protestant to do so.

Nothing is more striking in Mr. Gladstone's career than the fidelity with which the Nonconformists, or, in other words, the bone and sinew of the English middle class, have stuck to him in good and evil fortune during the last twenty years. The address from 3,700 ministers of various denominations, which he received on Wednesday week, approving his course in the Home Rule question, is a kind of testimonial which no other public man in England has ever received, and is almost the one sign which never fails of the way the tide would run if a general election were now held. No minister who has the Nonconformists at his back remains long out of power in England. It was their lukewarmness over the education question and some other matters which drove the Liberals from power in 1874, but then it was the Nonconformists' horror of Disraeli's wars, of his sneers over the Bulgarian atrocities, of Salisbury's falsehood and tergiversation, which brought

them back with such a magnificent rush in 1880. That the policy of the Government in Ireland is profoundly distasteful to the great body of English dissenters, there is hardly a doubt, for they have taken every possible means of showing it, and it is their full knowledge of this fact which makes the talk of dissolution so odious to Unionists.

One, and perhaps the chief, reason why the alarm raised by Lord Wolseley and others in England does not produce much impression, and is pooh-poohed by the Ministers, is that it is a periodical alarm. It comes with almost the regularity of commercial panics, and is generally coincident with the promise or the close of some great disturbance on the European continent. The Duke of Wellington made one terrible alarm —probably the greatest there has been since Napoleon had his camp and flotilla at Boulogne—in 1851, after the French *Coup d'État*. There was another very serious one after the Franco-German war, when the 'Battle of Dorking' was written, depicting the horrors of a German march on London, after the defeat of the regular troops and the flight of the volunteers. There would have been one after the war of the rebellion in this country, if the United States had been nearer to England, because many of the highest military authorities, to say nothing of the politicians in England, held that it was perfectly certain that the Federal Government would not dare to disband the army; that it would have to be maintained, and work found for it; and the work, it was held, would probably be the invasion of Canada. If England had not been so far off, it would have been the invasion of England. The probable cause of the present outbreak is the rise of Boulanger in France, who, the alarmists maintain, will, as soon as he gets into power, attack England. It is almost as useless to argue with them as it was to argue with the people here who were fixed in their belief that "the Democrats" would pay the rebel debt and destroy the Government if they secured the Presidency. The ordinary principles of human nature count for nothing in these discussions.

It would probably be unfair to suppose that Lord Wolseley and the other military men who are managing "the scare" are at all insincere in their belief about the danger. No man spends his life under arms, and constantly preparing himself for war, without coming to believe that somebody is going to attack him before long, and without getting into a state of greater or less eagerness for fighting. This is one of the most familiar characteristics of the military mind. In addition to this, however, in England professional soldiers are constantly mortified by the smallness of their force as compared with the great Continental armies, and with the humble and henpecked position in which the army is kept by the civil power. On the Continent, for instance, a civilian minister of war would be looked on as a monstrosity and a great humiliation for the army. They have one in France at this moment, for the first time, we believe, since the Revolution, and it is exciting ineffable disgust among the troops, and supplying Boulanger with some of his capital. But in England nothing else is ever thought of, and he holds the purse-strings, and when the soldiers clamor for more men and horses and guns, he calmly tells them they cannot have them. The only way they can make any head against him is by getting up every now and then an "invasion panic." It will not do to get it up often, because the public would refuse to go into one scare while the remembrance of the last one was very vivid. But, every twenty years or so, there is a generation on the scene which does not recall the fact that during the last panic the enemy never appeared, and its help may generally be counted on to raise the dust of war. One commander of volunteers in London is reported to be so excited at present that he has refused all leaves of absence to officers, and ordered the trumpeters to practise their "calls" daily. It may be that he even sleeps in his clothes.

One of the now somewhat frequent club cases has just come before the English courts. A member of the Randolph Churchill Conservative Club received a notice from the Club Secretary, requesting him to appear before the Committee on a certain day to refute the charge of being "an offending member," and warning him that if he failed to do so, he would be expelled. He answered that he would appear when he was informed what the charge was, and who made it, but not sooner; whereupon the Committee expelled him. Nothing daunted, he went to the club-house as usual and ordered refreshments, but the Steward was directed not to serve him. He then applied for an injunction to restrain them, and they finally rescinded their resolution, and the Committee was condemned to pay the costs of the proceedings. The Court was very severe on the Committee. Mr. Justice Kay said:

> "It was quite true that the Court did not interfere with the internal matters of a society like a club; but there was a broad exception to that rule—namely, that when those matters were so conducted as to be contrary to every man's notion of what was just, then the Court would interfere, especially in the case of the expulsion of a member."

Considering how many of these club troubles have come before the courts, and how particular the courts are in exacting absolute correctness of procedure in club trials, it is extraordinary with what looseness committees every now and then pursue "offending members." As Judge Kay remarked in this case, expulsion from a club "is not a small matter. It is a stigma on a man's character and position, and one from the effects of which but few men would recover. It was a most serious matter and might be social ruin to a man." The explanation of the carelessness of committees is probably to be found in the fact that in the earlier days of clubs, when clubs were smaller and fewer than they are now, "offending members" never thought of offering any resistance. Tried or untried, if the Committee told them to go, they went, and hid their diminished heads. But nowadays club men, like everybody else, think a great deal about their "rights," and defend them to the last extremity.

Both Chambers of the Brazilian Parliament, whose session began on May 3, have promptly united in a measure for abolishing slavery without delay; and though particulars are still wanting, the event means that the present year will witness the extinction of human bondage on the whole American continent. Five years ago the leading abolitionists of Brazil could see no hope of such a speedy consummation; and as lately as 1885 the Cotegipe Cabinet came into power as the consequence of a pro-slavery reaction, with a heavy majority in the lower house. This majority remained firm throughout the last session, but it was well known that a change was being silently wrought in it, and the Conservative schism was fully developed when the anti-slavery wing got the upper hand and brought in a new Administration under the lead of Senhor João Alfredo, with Senhor Prado as his right-hand man. The result is a dishing of the Liberals, whose patriotism, however (like that of the corresponding British party), is superior to jealousy. Meanwhile, in confirmation of the action of the Brazilian bishops, who issued pastorals recommending emancipation as the fittest way of celebrating his jubilee, the Pope has issued an encyclical which does him honor; and the perhaps dying hours of Dom Pedro in Italy are reported to be cheered by the news of the act of Parliament removing the curse and disgrace of the great Catholic empire.

The American people are too busy to give proper thought to what is going on in Brazil, yet emancipation there is undeniably a glorious product of our war for freedom which ended in 1865. Within two years from that date the first abolition measure was adopted, to be followed by the law of 1871, which made freemen of all the future offspring of slaves, and provided an emancipation fund for annual ransoming. But this gradual process was a senseless sacrifice of the higher interests and good name of the country to a class, and proved intolerable, as must needs be, considering the anomaly of the State's maintaining two opposite principles at the same time—sanctioning all the barbarity of slavery while setting a stigma upon it and buying it off. A new era now opens from which we must expect at once only negatively good results, for the mass of ignorance and degradation in the colored race is enormous. The difference otherwise between the situation in Brazil and that of the South in reconstruction days is, that color is no bar to public preferment in the empire. Industrial friction may occur, but the race question, properly speaking, is eliminated. For this, doubtless, the fusing power of Catholicism is to be thanked, though it is almost the only service which the Church has rendered to emancipation.

"POLITICAL PRUDERY."

THE Washington *Post*, which is a strong supporter and admirer of President Cleveland's Administration, says truly:

"The Tariff Bill now pending in the House of Representatives might just as properly be called the Cleveland bill as the Mills bill. It is the response of the Democratic House, through the majority of the Ways and Means Committee, to the urgent demand of the Democratic President for a Democratic reduction of redundant revenues and needless taxation. It is therefore the Democratic party's bill, and no man calling himself a Democrat has a right to work for its defeat or decline to support it."

It then goes on to propose, as a deduction from this, that the President should cast aside what it calls "political prudery," and use his patronage to whip members of Congress into support of the bill. In other words, he is to inform those members of Congress who fail to support it, or support it hesitatingly, that unless they change their ways they "need expect no more favors from him," as "Fatty" Walsh said to the lawyer who refused to submit to his extortions. The slang way of expressing this idea is that the Democratic party "least of all things can afford to have the Democratic Administration feeding at the public crib men who work in the vineyard of the enemy." The proposal, translated into plain English, simply means that the President should offer to put places in the public service at the disposal of Congressmen in exchange for votes in favor of the Mills Tariff Bill, and should refuse such places to Congressmen who decline to vote for the bill.

Of the solemn pledges given by the President not to use his patronage in this way—pledges which are all summed up in his famous saying, "Public office is a public trust"—we shall not now speak. We will even go so far as to admit, for the sake of the present argument, that there is nothing wrong in using the public offices as "spoils," and dividing them at the advent of each new Administration among the "workers" who have contributed to the victory, or even using them as a means of packing conventions and thus securing particular nominations or renominations. We shall confine ourselves to pointing out that the offer of patronage to members of Congress, in order to secure votes for a particular measure, is simply a form of bribery, which, if it differs at all from the offer of hard cash—which was Sir Robert Walpole's plan — differs for the worse, inasmuch as the cash might be the briber's own to do what he pleased with, while the offices cannot be his own under any conceivable circumstances. If a private individual, interested in a bill before Congress because it embodied his views on a great public question, were to go to a member of either house, and offer him the control or disposal of a salaried place, as an inducement to vote for the bill, he would expose himself to conviction, fine, and imprisonment under section 5450 of the United States Revised Statutes, which reads as follows:

Sec. 5450. Every person who promises, offers, gives, or causes or procures to be promised, offered, or given, any money or *other thing of value*, or makes or tenders any contract, undertaking, obligation, gratuity, or security for the payment of money, or for the delivery or conveyance of *anything of value*, to any member of either house of Congress, either before or after such member has been qualified or has taken his seat, with *intent to influence his vote or decision on any question, matter, cause, or proceeding* which may be at any time pending in either house of Congress, or before any committee thereof, shall be fined not more than three times the amount of money or value of the thing so offered, promised, given, made, or tendered, or caused, or procured to be so offered, promised, given, made, or tendered, and shall be, moreover, imprisoned not more than three years.

How would such an offer from the President differ from such an offer by a private citizen? In no way whatever. It would be an indictable offence in either case. How comes it, then, that respectable men, editors, politicians, lawyers, calmly propose such things to the President? How is it that one constantly hears the failure or refusal of the President to use his patronage in this criminal way to promote or to defeat legislation treated as a sign of weakness or incompetency? The reason is simply that the public perception of the guilt and danger of the arrangement has been blunted by long usage. The spoils system has, in fact, not simply deepened the corruption of the baser sort, but has perverted the understanding of many of the best men. They declaim freely against bribery practised by the Ameses and Sharps and Tweeds, but in the very next breath urge the Federal Executive to practise precisely the same wholesale debauchery of the Legislature, by offering salaries in the public service to members to induce them to suppress their private judgment and violate their oaths, and seek only to please him by their votes.

We are interested as much as any one can be in seeing President Cleveland's views on the tariff embodied in legislation. We think the tariff, as it stands at present, a crying evil. But one of the very worst things about it is the power it gives Congressmen to bestow enormous pecuniary favors on individuals by raising duties, and to threaten individuals with heavy loss by lowering duties. No country in the world has yet produced legislators with virtue enough to withstand the temptations created by such a state of things as this. It corrupts the heart and perverts the judgment of everybody who comes in contact with it, and must continue to do so as long as human nature is what it is to-day. But bad as this source of corruption is, we do not care to see it dried up by deepening another and a worse one—for an Executive practising habitual, public, and acknowledged bribery on legislators is a worse one. No Government can stand such a system for any great length of time. Every régime which has long relied on it has gone down, sometimes in flame and blood. England tried it in the eighteenth century, and was only saved by the shock of the American war. France is trying it to-day again, in spite of the memories of the old monarchy, under which the King kept an open market for the sale of the public offices; and we shall very likely see the Third Republic perish under it.

President Cleveland undoubtedly owed his election to the fact that he was believed to be a man who would try to arrest our progress on this downward road in this country. In other words, he was elected not as a tariff reformer, but as a civil-service reformer. His enemies tried to prevent his election by maintaining that he would alter the tariff; his friends retorted that he had no power to do anything of the sort. He is not the man to say now, or permit any one to say for him, that what his friends meant was that he could not legitimately alter the tariff, but that he was at full liberty to alter it illegitimately as much as he pleased. His message on the tariff was a manly appeal to the intelligence of free and honest men in and out of Congress. As such it has produced an extraordinary effect upon the popular mind. We see no sign whatever that its influence is diminishing. On the contrary, we believe the popular respect both for the sincerity and perspicacity of its author grows daily. But that respect would not long survive the general belief that he had enforced his arguments with cash or its equivalent, and had relieved us of a portion of our burden of taxation by offering to the world one of the most woful and disheartening examples of tergiversation to be found in political history.

THE LESSON OF THE PACIFIC RAILROAD REPORTS.

IN all the early work of the Massachusetts Railroad Commission, Mr. C. F. Adams was guided by the idea that the permanent interests of the investors in the long run closely agreed with those of the public at large. By protecting those permanent interests of the property from temporary abuse or mismanagement, the interests of the community were protected also. The success of the Commission furnished the best proof of the soundness of this idea.

As President of the Union, Pacific, Mr. Adams represents the same principle, and urges it upon the attention of Congress no less vigorously than he did upon the Massachusetts authorities fifteen years ago. In his arguments concerning the adjustment of the debt of the railroads to the Government, his strongest point is made in connection with this idea. The Union Pacific, he says, is now owned by investors, and managed for their interests. As long as this is so, the Government has the assurance that the property will be kept in good condition, and will furnish all possible security for the claims against it. If, however, the Government, by a short-sighted policy, should throw the road into the hands of speculators whose interest it is not to preserve it, but to make all they can out of it for the time being, more will be lost in a few years than can be recovered in a lifetime. It is because Mr. Adams is working for the permanent interests of the property-holders, and not for mere annual returns, that the United States has a fair prospect of adjusting its relations with the Union Pacific in a satisfactory manner.

The real state of the case is most strongly brought out when we read the report of the Central Pacific, which has just been issued,

and contrast it with that of the Union Pacific. Mr. Crocker's arguments are no less vigorous than those of Mr. Adams, and are equally conclusive in their way. But they deal with the whole matter from a different standpoint. While Mr. Adams is asking, "What course will best secure the permanent interests of the investors?" Mr. Crocker's question simply is, "What are the specific rights of the parties in the case to-day?" The latter question is much easier to answer than the former; but Mr. Crocker's method of answering it sacrifices the interests of the Government to-day, and those of the stockholders for years hence. It is this which constitutes one of the chief difficulties in dealing with the case of the Central Pacific. The road is in the hands of men who have transferred a large part of their holdings to a rival line. The conditions are such that they are still interested in the temporary returns from the Central Pacific, but have by no means a corresponding interest in its permanent value. Thus situated, they can afford to ask the Government, "What are you going to do about it?" They can disregard the wants of the Government because they consider the temporary rather than the permanent wants of the railroad. Mr. Adams pursues the opposite course, and in so doing he is bound to help the Government rather than to thwart it. It may prove impossible to collect the whole value of the debt in any case. The Union Pacific Road was long managed for temporary interests instead of permanent ones, and its permanent power was somewhat weakened. But the tendency of the present management undoubtedly is to give the Government a chance of collecting more than it would be likely to get under any other system.

This conflict of interests is made unnaturally sharp in the case of the Pacific railroads by the peculiar conditions of the subsidy bonds. The interest charges are all the time accumulating, but the Government cannot foreclose till 1897. Up to that time the officers of the companies can, within certain limits, do what they please with their earnings; after that the Government claims will have so accumulated that, unless some funding arrangement is made, they will completely swamp the stock, and render it alike powerless and valueless. With a short-sighted policy on both sides, the Government might insist on its full claims and technical rights, but meantime the management could pocket a large part of what was valuable before those claims or rights could be enforced, and leave the property so depleted as to be of little value.

What is clearly seen in this case really happens in a large number of other cases where it is not so obvious. If a railroad manager is so situated that his object is simply to have a large current income at his disposal, he can often best secure this by high rates for local traffic, by postponing repairs which must sooner or later become necessary, or by borrowing money to pay for current expenses and charging the whole to capital account. In any of these events the permanent interests of the property will suffer; but if his connection with it is only temporary, he cares comparatively little for that. If, on the other hand, he is considering the future as well as the present, he will build up the local business of his railroad, even by rates which may seem to involve a slight loss for the moment; he will make such repairs as are necessary to keep the road in first-class condition, and will have no inducement to charge them to an account to which they do not belong. By such a course the public interest is protected, by any other it is sacrificed.

The case of the Pacific railroads has its widest importance as furnishing one more illustration of the ways in which the interests of the investor coincide with those of the public. As a mere matter of financial outlook, the efforts of Mr. Adams for the security of the property-holders promise better for the Government than any of the schemes of those who look at the matter from a purely political standpoint. If this is true in questions of finance, there is every reason to suppose that the same thing will be true in the broader questions of rates and facilities. The advocates of State railroad management fail to see that, under any system of government which we are likely to have, the aims of the authorities are pretty certain to be short-sighted. To make as good a showing as possible when in power, and to leave matters in uncomfortable shape for one's successor on going out of power—such is the combination of principles which confronts a national administration. Even if there were little or no corruption in State railroad management, there would be an almost irresistible temptation to doctor the accounts in such a way as to give the existing administration as much as possible of the disposable receipts, and saddle the expenses upon its successor—to give lower rates or to build new lines, not so much with regard to the wants of trade as to political capital. We do not need to go further into this aspect of the subject. It is enough to contrast the effects of management for the future, as represented by the Union Pacific, with that of management for the present only, as exemplified on so many other roads; and then to ask which of these methods is likely to be encouraged by a further infusion of politics into railroad administration.

THE SENATE AND THE TREATY.

The report of the Senate Committee on the Fisheries Treaty takes three positions which are new to the history and policy of the country, and which accordingly ought to arrest the attention of every thoughtful citizen. The first is, that the President had no right to appoint plenipotentiaries to negotiate a treaty while Congress was in session, without first asking the advice and consent of the Senate and communicating the names of the negotiators to that body. It is not insisted in express terms that such proceeding on the part of the Executive is unconstitutional, but that it is unwise and fraught with grave dangers. "It is not difficult to see," says the report, "that, in evil times, when the President of the United States may be under the influence of foreign and adverse interests, such a course of procedure might result in great disaster to the interests and even the safety of our Government and people." The minority of the Committee enumerate 423 appointments of negotiators to frame treaties and conventions with foreign governments without the concurrence and advice of the Senate or the express authority of Congress, as against thirty-five appointed with such advice and consent. A considerable number of the former class of appointments were made while the Senate was in session, but it does not appear that the President's right to make appointments in this way was ever before called in question. Perhaps it never happened before that such appointments were made "in evil times," or by a President who was "under the influence of foreign and adverse interests."

The second novelty discovered by the Committee is that the fishery dispute is not a fit subject for negotiation at all. This conclusion, the gravity of which cannot be overestimated, is stated in these words: "In view of the plain history of these transactions, and of the matters hereinbefore stated, *it does not seem to the Committee that the existing matters of difficulty are subjects for treaty negotiation.*" The matters hereinbefore stated are principally negotiations extending over a period of more than a century. It is easy to say, if the Committee are so minded, that these negotiations have at last got in such shape that no further negotiation is necessary, but to say that the fishery question is not a fit *subject* for treaty negotiation is simply to affirm that we are superior to the rules that govern civilized nations. We may be so convinced of the uselessness of further negotiation that we may elect to take the consequences, or, as the Committee say in another place, "decline at whatever cost to enter into new engagements with the British Government." We may do so under a conviction that justice cannot be secured by further negotiations, but the Committee go much further when they say that the existing matters of difficulty are not even the subjects of negotiation. Such a position puts the United States distinctly outside the pale of civilized nations, since civilization now, and ever since the predatory period, has recognized the equal rights of nations to their opinions of their own case in all matters of difficulty whatsoever. The peace of the world rests squarely on the recognition of such equal rights, and the mutual acknowledgment that the claims on one side are as good as those on the other *prima facie* and without exception. If the Senate Committee's position is to be taken by the United States, it follows that arbitration should also be rejected, because arbitration requires preliminary treaty negotiation.

In fact, the third position taken by the Committee excludes arbitration as well as treaty. It simply affirms the duty of the President to put in force the Retaliation Act of March 3, 1887. This act requires the President to make up his mind, upon any state of facts that may arise, whether American fishing vessels have been

unjustly treated in British-American ports, and if he thinks that they have been so treated, it authorizes him "in his discretion" to issue a proclamation closing our ports to British-American vessels, or to prohibit the importation of fish from Canada, or both. The fishermen indicated to the President a year ago that the prohibition of Canadian fish was what they wanted under the Retaliation Act. Since the whole fishery dispute arises from the duty on cod and mackerel, and would never have existed otherwise, we may infer that the Senate Committee would be satisfied if the President would search his own heart and find just sufficient evidence of Canadian injustice to give a monopoly of the fish market to the Gloucester smack owners, but not enough to bar out Canadian lumber vessels. They see no danger in the exercise of such a power, while alarmed at the negotiation of a treaty open to rejection by the Senate.

TREASURY METHODS.

MR. FAIRCHILD has acted very wisely in appointing a committee of Treasury officials to inquire into the methods now in vogue in his Department, and to suggest means whereby they may be simplified. The select Committee of the Senate, known as the "Cockrell Committee," have paved the way for this new Committee, by publishing the result of their investigations, showing in detail all the processes of the intricate machinery at work in the various bureaus and divisions of the Treasury. Instead of preparing himself to resist the changes which are likely to be proposed by the Senate Committee, Mr. Fairchild, it seems, purposes to anticipate them, and, as he has selected for his Committee young men who are not wedded to any existing customs, it is also manifest that he wishes as complete a revolution in the system of public accounting as may safely be made. Mr. Fairchild's chief desire, it is said, is to be relieved himself of unnecessary or unimportant work. Few people understand how arduous are the manual labors even of the head of the Treasury Department. He and one of his assistants are kept engaged during a great portion of each day in issuing warrants, either for the setting apart of moneys into the various funds provided by law, or for the payment of money into the Treasury, or for its disbursement. Under a plan instituted by Hamilton, and upon which he ided himself, the Treasurer can neither ay out nor receive into the Treasury any money, unless he has an order from the Secretary commanding it, which order must be countersigned by the Comptroller and recorded by the Register.

The public business has so greatly increased since Hamilton's day as to make it impossible for the Secretary to inquire into the merits of any case, when these warrants, which are prepared by subordinates, are presented to him for his signature; and the work, therefore, is, and for many years has been, purely mechanical. Money is paid out of the Treasury in two ways. It is either *advanced* to a disbursing officer upon a requisition, drawn by him or by his superior officer, approved by the various officials who have to do with his accounts, or it is paid upon a *settlement* of the accounting officers, who certify the amount to be due to the person in question, and request the necessary warrant to issue. In the first case the Secretary draws the warrant without question, relying upon the safeguards and checks which are indicated upon the requisition. In the second case he merely carries out *pro formâ* the recommendation of the Auditor or Comptroller, who alone knows, and who alone can know, of the propriety of the payment.

Now, the point which it is desired to make here is, that in all cases the responsibility of the payment does not rest with the Secretary, and that his time is too precious to be consumed in carrying out in a mechanical way the virtual orders of those who are acquainted with the true condition of affairs, and who are punished for any carelessness or fraud in presenting it to him. Hamilton regarded the Comptroller and himself jointly liable for an improper payment. In this day a Secretary could not be considered responsible at all, as it is out of the question for him to stop to inquire concerning anything but the presence of certain signatures and initials on the paper before him.

In view of what has just been mentioned, the plan suggested by Mr. Washington, at one time Assistant Secretary of the Treasury, is worthy of Mr. Fairchild's attention. He advocated the disbursement of money by the Treasurer upon a warrant issued by the head of the department under whose control the fund in question might come. In other words, he insisted that as the Secretary of the Treasury could seldom, if ever, properly resist the requests of other heads of departments for the issuance of warrants, and as they, not he, were actually, and indeed should be, held responsible for the propriety of payments which they had requested to be made, these requests should be directed by them immediately, and not mediately, to the Treasurer.

This would be a great and judicious lessening of the labors of the Secretary of the Treasury, and there is no reason to think that any laws of prudence would be violated by thus omitting the supposed safeguards of the Secretary's signature, the Comptroller's counter-signature, and the Register's certificate of registry. The Treasurer would be required to pay money upon the order direct to him of the head of any department, but it could be agreed that this order should be certified by the proper auditor and comptroller who might handle the account upon which it is drawn. Concerning moneys paid upon settlements, it is plain that the Comptroller who certifies the balance, should be allowed to draw his warrant on the Treasurer direct, instead of requesting the Secretary, who never saw the account or any of its vouchers, to join with him in this order.

THE PRESBYTERIAN CENTENNIAL.

A DEEPER significance than was perhaps intended may be seen in the choice by the Presbyterians of the United States of the one hundredth General Assembly of their Church as the occasion for their most conspicuous centennial celebration. Of course, the Philadelphia Assembly of a century ago was far from marking the introduction of Presbyterian belief or the Presbyterian polity into this country. Presbyterian beginnings here can be traced much more than a hundred years back of that gathering. Very early in the history of the Carolinas and Virginia, as also of New York and parts of New England, emigrants from Scotland, the north of Ireland, and from Holland, brought in Presbyterian elements to be slowly disentangled from the religious complexity of the times. It is not, then, the establishment of either Presbyterian doctrines or presbyterially governed churches that the Presbyterians of the nation glorify and commemorate this month at Philadelphia. It is, rather, the rounding out of their ecclesiastical system in this country—the last step which had to be taken to make their polity symmetrical and complete, the perfection of their church machinery—which is the great thing behind this Presbyterian centennial. The salient fact is that a hundred years ago Presbyterianism became essentially the machine it is to-day—always speaking of the polity—for a firm ecclesiastical rule under a representative form of government and with parity of the clergy.

That this description of what took place a century ago is correct is witnessed by the fact that the consolidating and centralizing movement which issued in the General Assembly was opposed, and, for a time, almost rebelled against, by some who dreaded ecclesiastical tyranny. They had enjoyed the freedom and independence of separate synods, and were not anxious to submit themselves to what might turn out to be, under the guise of a national system, a scheme for ecclesiastical domination. That their fears have proved to be, in some respects, well founded, the subsequent history of the Presbyterian Church amply shows. The most important matter all along has been the control of the church courts. Everything else has been subordinated to this by those bent on moulding the Presbyterian Church—as well it might be; for what was the use of arguing about creed and subscription, about temperance or slavery, when possession of the ecclesiastical machine could end all argument? We do not mean to say that there has been no zeal on pure questions of doctrine or morals, but simply that there has been no such zeal as there would have been had not the short and easy way of voting down opponents who could not be reasoned down, been made so ready of application in the Presbyterian system. When a minority has been too strong to be extinguished, the result has been a schism, so that each party might have its own smoothly running machine—as was the case in the division into the New-School and Old-School branches a half-century ago.

Indeed, when we state that the most distinctive thing about Presbyterianism of to-day is its compact polity and vigorous ecclesiastical control, we are not alone saying

that it has pursued its normal development since the General Assembly of 1788, but are simply accepting the words of its most ardent living admirers and exponents. How often have we been told, as, for example, recently by the Chicago *Interior*, that the Presbyterian Church is not afraid of liberalism, because it has shotted guns, in the shape of its form of government, ready to train upon the first liberal who dares to show his head. This is undoubtedly correct, and the only way the situation can be changed is by the gradual enlargement of the younger and liberal element, which is doing a good deal of thinking, though it does keep wonderfully still about it, until the ecclesiastical management falls into its hands. It is a curious thing to find it recently charged that fear of such a consummation is a powerful motive back of the movement for union with the Southern Church. The hope is, so a prominent Presbyterian alleges, to swamp and discourage the Northern liberals by taking in the ultra-conservatives of the South. However that may be, it is already clear that the proposed union is not yet to take place.

It is worth noting that this rigid system of church control, which is so highly characteristic of Presbyterianism, is directed more against opinion—at any rate the expression of opinion—than practice, and, moreover, presses with any weight only upon the clergy and officers of the Church. It is true that a great show of careful oversight of the morals of the laity is kept up. The records of the assemblies are lumbered up with long and solemn deliverances on all moot questions of morals; but there is little pretence, any longer, of enforcing them. Thus, for example, scarce an assembly for the past ten years has failed to condemn the Sunday newspaper, and warn Presbyterians against having anything to do with it; yet Presbyterians openly buy, read, advertise in, own, publish, and edit Sunday newspapers, and the idea of resorting to church discipline, in such cases, appears never to have been thought of. Much the same fate has befallen the strong Presbyterian laws against theatre-going and dancing. In the country they are sometimes enforced; in the city—well, there are obvious difficulties in the city.

It needs but a slight study of Presbyterianism to reveal its marked adaptation to institutions like our own. In a striking way, it parallels our public system of local home rule, under the direction of higher representative bodies. The recent change in the Presbyterian organic law by which the synods are now made practically conterminous with the different States, makes the likeness between Presbyterian government by Session, Presbytery, Synod, and General Assembly still more close to our civil government through town, county, State, and nation. This ready fitting of the Presbyterian system to the forms of our republican institutions has undoubtedly been one of the sources of its power. When we add its traditional and valuable conservatism, its eminent respectability, and the honor it has put upon education, we see abundant reason for its past success, and ample promise of a still more prosperous future. The honorable part played by Presbyterians in our colonial and Revolutionary history will be fully set forth, and with proper mention, in the addresses at Philadelphia. We are not disposed to insist upon the distinction which might fairly be made between the citizen and the Presbyterian, as regards those records of worthy public services with which the Presbyterian name has been connected, and we confidently anticipate many more great benefits wrought for the republic by the able and upright men who will continue to lend the honor of their names to the most republican of our church polities.

THE TAXATION OF HEAVY VEHICLES.

Among the innovations proposed in the interesting budget which Mr. Goschen has just laid before the British Parliament, is a tax upon carriages. The proposal is that all vehicles weighing over two hundredweight shall pay a wheel tax—five shillings for two-wheeled carts, and ten shillings for those having four wheels—and that vehicles weighing more than half a ton shall pay an additional sum of one pound. There is a certain plausibility in the suggestion that as roads are made for carriages, carriages ought to pay for making and repairing roads, a plausibility that led Adam Smith to advocate strongly the system of turnpikes and tolls. In this view, the charge for the maintenance of roads is properly an expense connected with the business of transportation, and should be paid by those engaged in such business, just as much as the cost of horses and harnesses and stabling should be paid by them. But, from a number of causes, turnpikes have become comparatively rare in modern times, and the collection of revenue at toll-gates will eventually, no doubt, disappear altogether.

The chief of these causes is probably the feeling of the "solidarity" of the interests of the community, which is strengthened by the general acceptance of the economic principle of the tendency of profits to equality. Under the influence of free competition, persons engaged in transportation must be content with the average rate of profit, and it is quite impossible for them to retain for themselves the advantages of any reduction of taxes. Whatever relief of this kind they may experience, they are compelled to share with their customers, and the general public is benefited more in this way than it is injured by assuming the burdens which have been removed from the industry of a particular class. So far, therefore, as roads are used for the transportation of commodities, they are a benefit to every one who consumes anything that is transported over them, and, paradoxical as it may sound, teamsters are in the long run no more interested in good roads than other people. As every one is a consumer of commodities, the maintenance of roads is beyond most other ends properly secured by general taxation.

Since the whole community is thus chargeable with this expense, the question seems to become one simply of economical collection, and there are grave objections to a multiplicity of taxation. In general, the more numerous the taxes, the greater the expense to the community of collecting them and the annoyance to the individual of paying them. Special bureaus must be created and special officers appointed. This is particularly the case where the attempt is made to tax personal property, for as this cannot, like real estate, be easily subjected to lien, it is necessary to enforce such taxation by a system of fines and penalties—remedies which no statesman will resort to if he can obtain his revenue at less expense without them.

The transportation of persons is, under existing circumstances, a somewhat different matter. So far as carriages are used for pleasure, a tax upon them would be a sumptuary tax, and, although vexatious, perhaps as defensible as most taxes of that character. So far as the transportation of persons is a business, it would stand upon the same footing as the transportation of goods, were it not for the unfortunate creation of unregulated monopolies from which we are now suffering. The difficulty of competition enables many horse-car lines to make more than the average rate of profit; and since they cannot be directly controlled, there is much reason in amercing them indirectly by making them pay a license fee upon every car. But unless it be desirable to discourage people from riding where their business or pleasure calls them, such taxes are only exceptionally defensible.

For these reasons the "wheel-tax," or tax upon all vehicles irrespective of their character, must be regarded as a reactionary measure; but the tax upon heavy wagons has some features peculiar to itself. Such wagons are very destructive to roads, and the damage which they cause increases at a much more rapid rate than their weight. Now, it is perfectly true that roads are made for general traffic, and that the whole community is interested in the cheap transportation of heavy goods as well as light. It is also true that smooth and hard roads are constructed with the result, if not with the intention, of encouraging heavy traffic. But there is a tendency upon the part of cartmen to abuse these advantages and to load their trucks to the utmost limit. There is no particular reason why immense drays, weighing a ton or a ton and a half, should be constructed for the carriage of a number of packages of goods when it is quite possible to divide the load and relieve both the streets and the horses. At all events, the public is more interested in the preservation of its roads than in the encouragement of this method of transportation, and it is justified in imposing a special charge upon those who engage in it. The end might be accomplished by limiting the weight of vehicles but for the fact that vast masses of stone and iron must necessarily be transported through our streets. The interest of the public in such operations, however, is so remote, and the injury to the streets so direct, that a special tax might very properly be imposed upon them.

Under our present system, the improvement of a street pavement acts as a premium

on its destruction. Fifth Avenue might be taken for a street of warehouses and breweries, to judge from the procession of gigantic trucks passing through it, and such moving masses are almost as dangerous to carriages and foot passengers as locomotives. It is probably impossible to close the avenue to such teams; it would be invidious and perhaps unjust to do so. But their number can be largely decreased by imposing a special tax upon them, and it is quite practicable to require a special license to go upon certain streets. While it might not be worth while to introduce a system of licensing carts, yet, as the system already exists, it may very well be made productive of some revenue instead of being, as at present, productive only of vexation.

MICHAEL HEILPRIN.

How great is the loss sustained by American scholarship through the death of Mr. Michael Heilprin on Thursday last, the general public, owing to the man's invincible modesty, cannot know. To this journal and its readers it may fairly be pronounced irreparable, so largely has he contributed during the past twenty years to whatever reputation the *Nation* may have acquired for literary accuracy or breadth of information. His history was extremely interesting and eventful. He was by birth a Polish Jew, the son of a learned and philosophic father, and the descendant of a long line of Jewish scholars. He never went either to school or to college. His extraordinary attainments as a linguist, and especially as a Hebraist, were the result of home study. His family emigrated to Hungary when he was twenty years old, in 1843, in order to escape from Russian oppression, and he at once plunged, with his accustomed ardor, into the study of the language and history and institutions of his adopted country, and shared in the patriotic fever which culminated in the insurrection of 1848. He opened a bookstore in the town of Miskolcz, where he attracted the attention of the local aristocracy, and wrote revolutionary poems which brought him into relations with the Hungarian chiefs, so that when the war broke out, he was at the head of the literary bureau of the Department of the Interior, and enjoyed the acquaintance and esteem of Kossuth.

When the Revolutionary Government was overthrown, he made his escape to Paris, but, finding it difficult to make a living there, went back to Hungary when the vigilance of the Austrian authorities had somewhat relaxed, and opened a school; but the Austrian régime he could not endure, and he resolved to seek his fortune in England or the United States. He went to England in 1856, having thoroughly mastered the language, and there joined Kossuth, who gave him a letter to Mr. Seward; and the advice of William Henry Channing, then in Liverpool, decided him to come to this country. He settled at first in Philadelphia, where for two years he supported himself somewhat precariously by teaching. He removed to New York to become connected with the 'New American Cyclopædia,' which had then reached its third volume. The revision of historical, geographical, and biographical articles was intrusted to him from the start, but he also contributed to the work a large number of original articles in these branches, the most important of which is the one on "Hebrews." This connection lasted until 1863, but was renewed in 1871, when a second edition engaged him till 1876.

Of his truly herculean labors on the successive editions of the Cyclopædia, we can convey but a faint idea. So far as his direct contributions were concerned, they tended to round out the symmetry of the scheme, bringing into their proper place countries and men and incidents hidden from the Western world by unfamiliar tongues. In point of justness and authenticity, they were not outranked by any compiled by the staff of the Cyclopædia. But the greatest service which he rendered was in verifying what seemed doubtful, and in giving consistency to the whole, as if the production of one man. It is safe to say that no other similar work of collaboration published in the English language has ever had this merit in so high a degree—in which, for example, there was a uniform spelling of proper names, a uniform date for the same event, however often mentioned, a uniform system of transcribing words (especially proper names) from foreign languages not using the Roman alphabet. To be ever on the alert for the errors of writers over whom he had no control, to remember what had gone before, to guard against mistakes of pure accident on his own part—to know where to turn for the latest authority, to compare and decide between the authorities themselves, always at odds with one another—to find *time* for all this—was a standing miracle to those who had glimpses behind the scenes.

In 1879 Mr. Heilprin published the first volume of his 'Historical Poetry of the Ancient Hebrews'; the second appeared in the following year; the third he has left behind him unfinished, in manuscript. He was in part prevented from completing it by the weight of the tasks which he assumed in connection with the migration of persecuted Russian Jews to this country. He was especially active in bringing about for them the establishment of agricultural colonies in Oregon, Dakota, Kansas, and New Jersey. These efforts were only partially successful, mainly owing to insufficient financial support.

Mr. Heilprin's connection with the *Nation* began at the very beginning, in 1865. From that time on, quite to his death, its readers had the benefit of his extensive command of all the leading tongues of modern Europe, besides the Latin and Greek classics, the Hebrew, and other Oriental speech. Of the eighteen which he could have enumerated, he acquired the most in early life, but he had taken up the study of Rumanian shortly before his last illness. If he was not equally at home in all, each served him as a tool whenever needed. His use of the English, if not always idiomatic, was scrupulously grammatical, and he was a careful critic of English style. But remarkable as all this was, the most striking of his natural gifts was his power to arrange events in their chronological order, and to carry in his mind, ready for instant production, name, place, date, and circumstance, together with an incredible amount of statistical information. If, however, to remember accurately what he learned, and so much of what he learned, was admirable, the wonder of it was increased by the difficulty of acquiring. For years by far the larger part of his reading was done for him by others. Those who know the difference in time between reading for one's self and being read to, will appreciate the hindrance which weak eyes opposed to the effort to keep up with the literature and the news of the day.

The moral side of this great talent lay first in the singular modesty of its possessor. There was not an atom of intellectual pride or arrogance about him, not a particle of jealousy or envy, nothing but thankfulness for suggestions of improvement in expression or corrections of slips of the memory or of the pen. He never showed the least sensitiveness on account of editorial revision of his contributions to the *Nation*. His love of accuracy partly had its roots in a disciplined mind, but partly it had also a moral significance. He wished to be absolutely just, and the qualifications and allowances he made were the chief drawback to the fluency and effectiveness of his English writings. As he wrote anonymously for the *Nation*, there was the secondary but weighty motive not to let its reputation suffer by any careless or too sweeping statement.

Broader-minded than Kossuth, he never took any pains to conceal his abhorrence of American slavery; and we recall a most elaborate article in the *Tribune*, in 1860, controverting a prominent Jewish rabbi of this city who attempted to prove from the Bible the righteousness of slavery. He shared in the excitement of the civil war, and when it was over and new issues arose, he gave his sympathy without stint to the cause of reform. Upon domestic topics, however, he seldom or never wrote, but he was always eager in expressions of his gratification at being a contributor on other subjects to a journal of whose general aims in home politics he cordially approved, and in whose success he always displayed the keenest interest, and to which he rendered services such as only those who profited by them, as we did, can appreciate. His modesty was so great that he was embarrassed by the faintest meed of praise, and in paying even this feeble tribute to his memory we feel as if we were bestowing on him a fame from which, if living, he would have shrunk.

BRANDES AND HIS DETRACTORS.

WASHINGTON, May 7, 1888.

THE notice taken in No. 1091 of the *Nation* of Dr. Puls's charge of plagiarism against Dr. Georg Brandes prompts me to throw some light on the matter. Dr. Brandes, who has only just entered his forty-seventh year (having been born at Copenhagen February 4, 1842), is the author of some twenty volumes of literary and philosophical criticism, which have earned for him the reputation of being the foremost critic, not only of Denmark, but of the whole Scandinavian North. That this considerable position has been obtained, not by barefaced fraud, but only after serious study and commensurate labor, seems reasonable to a candid mind, and it is well known in Copenhagen that Brandes has not unfrequently pushed his remarkable power of application to such an extent as to threaten serious impairment of his nervous system. His first book was printed in Copenhagen twenty-five years ago, but it was not until 1872 that his literary work was made familiar to German readers through translation. Since that year, however, there have been published in Germany ten distinct works from his pen, together with revised and rewritten editions of three of them, besides numerous contributions to the leading periodicals and to the important daily journals of Germany and Austria. This author, it will be observed, therefore, emerged from the "comparative obscurity of the Danish language" into the searching light of German criticism no less than *sixteen* years ago, and yet it has only now been discovered that he is a "literary plagiarist of the worst sort." It is not credible that Dr. Brandes's various works

could have been widely read and favorably commented upon in Germany during a long term of years, if this allegation had any foundation in truth. But this denunciation is not based upon an examination of his entire German work, nor even upon a critical scrutiny of the very considerable portion of it which deals with German literary history, although the title given to his article by Dr. Puls would demand this, but simply upon a comparison of two translations (one by the author himself) of a single work. The history of these two translations may help to exonerate the author from the charge preferred, and prove an interesting illustration of a certain aspect of the right of literary property.

On November 3, 1871, Dr. Brandes began a series of lectures at the University of Copenhagen, which were published in Denmark under the title: "Hovedströmninger i det 19de Aarhundredes Literatur" (Main Streams in the Literature of the Nineteenth Century). They have since become widely known through translations into various languages. The first volume was issued in 1872, and the second, third, and fourth volumes followed at intervals of one year. They were all translated into German by Dr. Adolf Strodtmann, under an arrangement with the author, and published by F. Duncker of Berlin, the first volume in 1872, the second, under the sub-title: 'Die romantische Schule in Deutschland' (The Romantic School in Germany), in 1873, the third volume in 1874, and the fourth in 1876. During the ten years following the publication of the first volume, Dr. Brandes had, between 1872 and 1876, made annual visits to Berlin of some months' duration each year, while from the autumn of 1877 to the spring of 1883 inclusive, that city was his permanent place of residence. One result was that he acquired a competent and fluent knowledge of the German language. The intervening years had also wrought considerable changes in his views and opinions. Even in 1877 he had issued, in Danish, a new edition of volume i of his work, rewritten and materially altered. When, therefore, he was urged to have the four volumes translated by Strodtmann (who had died meanwhile) reissued, because they were out of print, he objected to any further circulation of that early translation, and made arrangements with Veit & Co. of Leipzig for a new edition of the entire work, to be prepared by himself. Of this the first volume appeared in 1882, while volume v, which had been originally published in Copenhagen that year, appeared in Germany for the first time in 1883, and the second volume, 'Die romantische Schule in Deutschland,' was issued in December, 1886, the general title of the series having been slightly altered to read, "Die Litteratur des 19. Jahrhunderts in ihren Hauptströmungen" (The Literature of the Nineteenth Century in its Chief Currents).

In the meantime a Leipzig bookseller, H. Barsdorf, under pretence of having bought from Brandes's former, bankrupt publisher, Duncker, the right to Strodtmann's translation, reprinted the first four volumes of the work in spite of the author's protest; and, without a vestige of authorization from Brandes, he also published the fifth volume in a translation purporting to have been made by a certain W. Rudow, which latter outrage the author was helpless to prevent, there being no literary-property convention between Germany and Denmark. The publisher then reduced the price of the entire set of five books to considerably less than the price of the three volumes which had been printed of Brandes's own translation, hoping in this way, apparently, to undersell the authorized edition. Veit & Co. thereupon made public the fact that the Strodtmann translation no longer presented the author's convictions, and that it was his desire that the German-reading public should become acquainted with the views which he now entertained, through his own revision of his early work; whereupon Barsdorf (more shrewd than scrupulous) retaliated by bringing suit against Brandes's publishers for an injunction as regards the second volume of the author's edition, upon the ground that it was a partial reproduction, and therefore an infringement, of Dr. Strodtmann's translation, published, it will be remembered, fourteen years previously. This question was submitted to a *Literarischer Sachverständigen-Verein*, or Commission of Literary Experts, appointed by the court, under authority of the copyright law of Germany. This Commission rendered a *Gutachten* (opinion) on March 7, 1887, which the plaintiff hastened to print, with a lengthy introduction of his own, and to distribute gratis throughout Germany and Denmark.

Want of space will not allow a thorough analysis of this document, which should be classed as a curiosity in the literature of literary property. The method of procedure adopted by the Commission seems to have been a purely mechanical one. Instead of judging Brandes's work from a literary standpoint, the two books are compared for the purpose of tabulating and counting the words and phrases similar in form or meaning; no regard being had to the context, nor any attempt made to discover how the resemblances noted might be explained. By a comparison of the number of pages, the number of lines to the page, and the number of syllables to the line, it is computed that his book contains about one-third more matter. But this crude way of mathematically determining the amount of original material fails to take into account the omission of parts of the old work, supplied by new text. It is admitted, however, that the excess (which consists of new matter scattered throughout the book) amounts to 135 pages—that is to say, an addition of more than half as many pages as the Strodtmann volume contained. But the Commission declare that these "do not at all come into question"; a remarkable statement, when the very question before them was whether Brandes's book was an original work or a copy of another, and when, moreover, it was known to them that his desire to incorporate this new material was one reason for the publication of the new edition. The Commission decide that some 255 pages of the author's book are *more or less* consonant with Strodtmann's translation, and refer to a "Beilage" where the pages of both books are compared and the proportion of like or unlike parts is pointed out. An examination of this appendix shows that no allowance has been made for the numerous citations from other authors, which the nature of the work (a literary history) demanded. These, if correctly made, would of necessity be alike in both works, and ought, for that reason, to have been excluded from the table. But in cases of incorrect citations by Strodtmann, where Brandes has, after troublesome verification, *corrected* the cited passages, he is scrupulously credited with original labor to the extent of the *number of words* actually altered, and they are carefully counted and deducted from the pages said to have been copied! The conclusion as to the amount of matter copied is qualified also by the admission that the generally similar portions contain "actual or apparent deviations," which are more particularly specified as consisting, (1) of transpositions of sentences or paragraphs, and (2) of alterations of words or phrases. The possible purposes of the transpositions are not inquired into by the Commission, who seem to have had no idea that they could be in any way concerned with the originality of treatment; while the verbal alterations are dealt with in a second "Beilage," which is to the following effect:

"Within that portion of Brandes's work which in Appendix A is noted as being wholly or almost wholly similar to the Strodtmann translation, are found, however, certain deviations. These are partly only the exchange of one word for another, an alien word replaced by one thoroughly German, or one less pregnant by one more forcible; transpositions in behalf of an improvement in the style, or corrections of misprints; or, partly, such as serve to supplement, illustrate, or correct Strodtmann's text, and are, therefore, not merely formal, but of an essential nature. They consist mostly of only one, two, or three words, occasionally of an entire line, sometimes of two or three lines. The essential alterations can, therefore, at the highest, be estimated at but 12 pages, while those merely verbal amount perhaps to 3 pages, or both together to 15 pages; so that the 255 pages of identical text is reduced to 240."

In other words, the careful and laborious correction of errors, both of translation and of citation; the thoughtful weighing of words and phrases in order to improve the expression, the word-for-word, line-for-line examination of the original—which resulted, according to a deposition filed in the court by the defendants, in no less than 770 deviations from Strodtmann's text—are not looked upon and weighed as evidence of such literary labor as would characterize Brandes's translation as an original work, but are adjudged, *after an arithmetical calculation*, to reduce the amount of similarity between the two editions, and, in consequence, the author's alleged plagiarism of the translation of *his own work*, exactly five per cent. A commission of literary experts indeed!

When this document appeared, Dr. Brandes was absent on a visit to Russia; but upon his return to Denmark he printed a reply, dated June 22, 1887, and addressed to his publisher. He explains that when he wrote the original work, he was engaged in active warfare with an intellectual tendency prevailing in Denmark, and that his book was a participation in that strife. "It was a polemical work. I attacked the dead German Romanticists in order to strike, through them, the living Danish Romanticists. I depicted them in order to combat them; and every line was calculated for Denmark and Danish conditions." In the new work, which was intended for a wider field, the relation between Danish and German Romanticism, dwelt upon before, is subordinated, and relegated to an appendix, this being one of the transpositions considered by the Commission as having no import. But the chief difference between the two editions is, that the æsthetical point of view has become changed since the first appeared, in 1873.

"At that time," Brandes says, "I valued in literature, above everything, the intellectual tendency. My conception of freedom and progress was still doctrinaire. My own position of strife rendered impartiality difficult, so that my judgment of the Romanticists was determined by their religious or political attitude, comparatively little being said concerning their talent. This is now entirely changed. By additions, omissions, alterations without end, very often of small extent, but of weighty import, a wholly different poetical, and a new historical, interpretation is presented. The criticism of men like Görres, Novalis, or Brentano is entirely changed. Injustices are removed; fresh studies have placed the historical characters in a new light; every judgment passed is examined anew, and amended wherever it no longer holds good."

Brandes gives several pages of interesting examples, which demonstrate that alterations

which the Procrustean Commission of Experts estimated as so many words or lines altered, really prove serious modification of his contemplation of life and poetry. Furthermore, there is a great difference in the method of presentation in the two editions. "In 1871," he continues, "my whole bias was metaphysical. I looked out over the personalities; they were, for me, only the organs of ideas. . . . Only for the *currents* in the world of thought had I any interest. The individualities were carried along by the flood; they were only the mouthpieces of the ideas." Therefore, in the first volume of his work there was not a single biography; and such as were included in the old edition of the second volume

"are short and incomplete, and—what is most significant—are throughout tacked on at the end as less weighty supplements to the descriptions of the works. First the works are examined; then, when the whole intellectual life of the person is characterized, follows a short biography of the individual in whom all that was depicted had its root. . . . The book does not contain a single portrait. I had not confidence in my skill to paint one. Only long after did I learn that in this direction I possessed a certain strength, and as I no longer nourished an Hegelian contempt for the individual, and no longer believed that the abstract world-spirit produced the works, I began to study the historical personages and to show that their productions resulted from their lives."

It is owing to this that the work is reconstructed, not only by interpolations and transpositions, but by a "series of delicate touches," the effect of which Brandes summarizes in the following words: "The object of the work, which was primarily agitative, became entirely scientific: it *was* Danish, it *is* universal. The conception of poetry and art is radically changed, and, finally, the interpretation of the connection between ideas and personalities has been reversed; to which changes the altered composition responds."

As regards such similarity as may exist in the texts of the two translations, Dr. Brandes justly claims that, owing to the close relationship between Danish and German, it was in many cases impossible to represent the original otherwise than by such literal translation as would be identical. The following passage will demonstrate this at a glance, and it is only one among numerous examples which might be chosen:

"I gamle Dage betragtede man Jeg'et, Sjælen, Personligheden som et Væsen, hvis Egenskaber var dets saakaldte Ævner og Kræfter. Ordet: Ævne og Kraft betyder jo imidlertid kun, at jeg har Muligheden til visse Begivenheder, at se, at læse o. s. v. Mit sande Væsen bestaar ikke af Mulighederne, men af disse Begivenheder selv, af mine virkelige Tilstande."

"In alten Tagen betrachtete man das Ich, die Seele, die Persönlichkeit als ein Wesen dessen Eigenschaften seine sogenannten Fähigkeiten und Kräfte waren. Das Wort: 'Fähigkeit' und 'Kraft' bedeutet aber ja nur, dass die Möglichkeit für gewisse Ereignisse, des Sehens, Lesens u. s. w. in mir vorhanden ist. Mein wahres Wesen besteht nicht aus den Möglichkeiten, sondern aus diesen Ereignissen selbst, aus meinen wirklichen Zustanden."

The two objects which the author had in view were: (1) to reconstruct the Danish work, and (2) to reproduce the result in the best German possible. Working, therefore, with the former translation before him, if it seemed impossible to improve upon the expression used therein (and Strodtmann was a writer of considerable talent), he had either to allow it to remain, or deliberately choose a less suitable rendering. And it should not be forgotten that the construction was originally Brandes's own. As he, with much justice, remarks: "It is not I who have followed the translator, but he who has followed me." And any one at all familiar with Brandes's work, and cognizant of his pride in maintaining the original and brilliant style which has earned him his reputation as a writer, will easily believe his statement, that he has not accepted a single line of Strodtmann's translation until thoughtful consideration has demonstrated its fitness. When Strodtmann wrote: "Aber Capri! Es liegt gleichsam eine rythmische Musik in den Konturen des zackigen Felsens," he failed to convey in German the impression produced by the Danish original, which he nevertheless had closely followed. Brandes produced the desired effect by: "Aber Capri! Wie ein rythmisches Lied steigen und senken sich des Felsens Konturen"—an alteration in the words for which the Commission would give him little or no consideration, but which was evidently the result of careful deliberation. In conclusion, Brandes indignantly exclaims: "Let alone that the laws have a *lacuna* here, every man who has his heart in the right place will concede that it is a serious wrong done to an author when, against his will, his books continue to be published in a form which he no longer recognizes. The books bear *my* name, are sold upon *my* name, and teach things which *I* do not desire to teach. Is it not a shame and an injustice?"

LOCAL GOVERNMENT AND THE BUDGET.

LONDON, April 30, 1888.

THE House of Commons has been mainly occupied since Easter with the Local Government Bill and the Budget. The second reading of the former bill was debated for six nights, a longer time than was expected after the cordial acceptance of its principle expressed by the Opposition leaders when the bill was introduced. The rank and file, however, demanded a full opportunity for criticism, and a discussion long enough to inform the country on a measure of a complicated character, far-reaching in its effects, and yet not calculated without explanation to attract popular attention. The broad complaint of the critics of the bill is, that in spite of the establishment of county councils, elected for the most part on the principle of representation, the most crying evils of the existing system will remain unredressed, and the positive advantages to be aimed at in any reform will not be attained. The surviving historical divisions are the county and the parish. Round these associations cluster and sentiment clings. An Englishman is proud of his county, and thinks of his parish as his home. But between and among these are statutory areas of recent birth: the union, an aggregate of parishes, often regardless of the county boundary, and now the unit of poor-law administration; the highway district; the school-board district; the local board or sanitary district, not universal, but scattered over the county and defined without reference to the parish, the union, or the county. Hence there is a chaos of overlapping areas, multiplied petty authorities, different franchises, and separate rates. That is the great evil. The aim of the local-government reformer has always been to have one franchise and one rate, and not more than two areas of administration, the larger being an aggregate of the smaller.

But, it is said, this bill does not remove any one of these concurrent authorities, with their independent areas, franchises to officials, registration, and rates, but only adds another. It does nothing to simplify the system. It does little to place the business of local government in the hands of representative bodies popularly elected, because it leaves the bulk of it, such as poor-law administration, in the old hands. While it establishes new bodies with a large area of jurisdiction, too large for the laborer to take a share in the business, it does nothing to revive the public life of the parish. Again, fault is found with the tenderness which the justices, the present county authorities, are dealt with. The justices are appointed by the Lord Chancellor on the recommendation of the Lord Lieutenant of the county. They have a very wide and important criminal jurisdiction, which it would be beyond the scope of the bill to interfere with. But their most important function of local government is the management and control of the police. This, instead of being transferred to the new county councils, is only to be shared by them. Then, the constitution of the new councils is objected to. Three-fourths of the members are to be elected, and they select the remainder, in the same way as the aldermen in the municipal councils, an alteration introduced into the Municipal Corporations Act of 1835 in the House of Lords on the motion of Lord Lyndhurst. The effect of this is to enable a bare majority, if the council is divided into two parties, to transform themselves into an overwhelming majority, by nominating all the selected members. Still further, the licensing clauses are extremely unpalatable to the majority of the Liberal party, inasmuch as they are said for the first time to give statutory recognition to a vested right in the holders of annual licenses, entitling them to compensation if the licenses are not renewed.

Here is a large bundle of objections, each full of importance, and the number might be increased. It is not wonderful that meetings of the Liberal party were held to press for a full opportunity for discussion. Two meetings were held in the House of Commons and the National Liberal Club. They were fastened upon as signs of mutiny in the Gladstonian ranks. In truth, they deserve to be mentioned for a different and an opposite reason. They must have reminded old members of old times. It was the first occasion during either the present or the last Parliament that a subject of great moment not relating to Ireland had engaged the attention of the whole party. The Irish members were not present, and the painful kind of unanimity which the Irish policy of the Government produces on the opposite benches did not prevail. There was that identity of sentiment and difference of opinion (though the differences were not great) which are said to produce harmony in conversation—and I do not think that if a supporter of the Government had been present, he would have derived much encouragement from the proceedings.

While, however, the discussion on the second reading has been eminently useful and instructive to the country, it is no less certain that Mr. Gladstone did well in taking the first opportunity of giving an ungrudging approval to the principle of the bill. It is a radical bill with all its shortcomings. It does, indeed, fall very far short of the complete reconstruction of local government which it is sometimes represented to accomplish. But the establishment of a county council with a popular basis of election introduces a principle which must result in complete and radical reform. The importance of the new elective bodies will steadily increase, and they will inevitably draw all the administrative business to themselves.

On the bearing of the Local-Government Bill upon Irish politics I shall have a word to say presently. The other business which has chiefly occupied the House has been the Budget

Bill, which is this year a measure of much more than usual importance. Finding himself in possession of a handsome surplus, Mr. Goschen has rightly embraced the opportunity of effecting a long-projected reform. Local rates admittedly fall too exclusively on real property. As a palliation to this inequality, grants in aid of certain local rates have been made from the Imperial Treasury, a system which led to extravagance and was universally condemned. The budget proposes to hand over to the local authorities a large slice of imperial taxation falling on personal property. The relief is devised on so liberal a plan as to silence the opposition to the encroachment by the county councils on the administration of the justices, while the acquiescence of the general taxpayers in the whole scheme is conciliated by the remission of a penny on the income tax. To make all this possible, some fancy taxes are laid on, such as the wheel tax and the tax on bottled wines, which are unpopular, but of which I shall not here say more. The most serious grounds of criticism are these:

First, the main source of relief is the Probate Duty, one-half of which is to be handed over to the counties. The standard of distribution is to be the amount of indoor pauperism in each locality. This proposal, it is said, rests on no principle. It does not substitute a county budget, with its local responsibility and inducements to economy, for the present subventions in aid of rates, but continues the evil principle in perhaps an aggravated form.

The second grave objection to the Budget was the subject of Mr. Gladstone's attack on Monday. The death duties payable by land and personalty are very unequal. Speaking roughly, they are three per cent. on the total value of the personalty, as against one per cent. on the life interest in real property. The equalization of these duties was the main feature of Mr. Childers's budget, on which Mr. Gladstone's Government was turned out in 1885. In a budget which professes to redress the inequalities of local taxation between the two descriptions of property, it was natural to look for a settlement of the imperial taxation also, and Mr. Goschen does profess to have made the two equal—partly because half of the probate duty is to be paid to the counties, leaving only one and a half per cent. instead of three—an argument difficult of digestion by the owners of personalty—and partly by raising the succession duty on land by one-half per cent. In an elaborate argument to show that the burdens were now equal, Mr. Goschen in his budget speech took no notice of the fact (and it was a strange omission) that the duties are only levied on the life interest in land, and the instalments are spread over several years. Even the financial authorities in the press which support the Government, are unable to defend his contention that the burden is now equal, and that there is no longer any injustice to redress. The unfairness of the incidence of the tax has never been pointed out with greater force than by Mr. Goschen in a book published in 1871. To a Liberal financier, no principle can be much more sacred than equality of taxation; and if Mr. Goschen is constrained to abandon it now, it is one proof among many that even so moderate a type of Liberal as he was cannot join a Tory ministry without sacrifice of a serious kind.

The discussion on the English Local-Government Bill was opportunely followed last Wednesday by a debate on an Irish County-Government Bill introduced by the Irish Nationalist party. The Government adhered to the position which they have recently avowed, that in the present state of Ireland the reform of local government must be indefinitely postponed—in other words, that the Irish people must kiss the rod and abjure the claim for a measure of self-government before any improvement in local government is conceded. This is consistent with the programme which Lord Salisbury announced more than two years ago, when he prescribed twenty years of resolute government as the cure for the distemper of Ireland. It is not consistent with the expectations held out by the Government on their accession to office, still less with the pledges and professions at the last election of—I think I may say—the great bulk of the Liberal Unionists, as well as of many Conservative candidates. It was a common theme of election placards that the Unionists were the true Home-Rulers. That, however, is not the instructive point of the present situation. The dissentient Liberals have so often been placed upon the horns of a dilemma, as they were by Mr. Gladstone in the debate on the death duties, that habit has made the position tolerable if not comfortable. Former professions are easily forgotten by politicians, and they take the chance of their being forgotten by constituents before the next election.

It is true that no single circumstance has occurred, such as an increase in crime, which can give any color to a change of policy. The course of events has been such as must have been clearly foreseen. Yet any development of local institutions in Ireland would, in every local centre, place in a clearer light than ever the national character of the demand for self-government, and would strengthen the organization for obtaining it. Therefore the Government dare not meddle with the subject. Now, the reform of county administration in England will compel more attention than ever to the predicament of Ireland. There those local institutions which, even in an unregenerate shape, are cherished in England as the nursery of political liberty, hardly exist, and their place is supplied by the centralized system of the Castle, which Liberal Unionist leaders have denounced in such powerful and scathing language. The Liberals believe that the contrast will be too much for the stomach of the British nation. If the present system of governing Ireland is proved to mean the denial of all free institutions, they will reject it.

It is a noteworthy fact that this view is already taken by two groups of the supporters of the Government in Parliament. The small knot of members, not all returned by Irish constituencies, who specially represent the views of the Ulster Liberals, regard the reform of local government as a primary and essential object; and some of the most prominent, respectable, and high-principled of the English Unionists have declared not less loudly that reform cannot be, as the Government say, indefinitely postponed. The sagacity of Lord Randolph Churchill has made him the powerful advocate of the same opinion. I do not mean to say that anything has occurred to shake the offensive and defensive alliance of which antagonism to Mr. Gladstone is the bond and principle. But remonstrances, based on strong conviction, in several independent quarters of the Government camp against the indefinite postponement of reform will prove to be a potent dissolvent of the policy of the alliance, if not of the alliance itself. When reform is taken in hand, though it may begin from below and not from above, daylight will be seen, and a settlement of the great question will be brought nearer.

C. D.

SOME THOUGHTS ON FRENCH AFFAIRS.

London, April 30, 1888.

Nothing is further from my intention than to trouble you with anecdotes (probably apocryphal) about Gen. Boulanger's character or career, or with speculations (likely to turn out unsound) about the success or failure of his schemes. My wish is to bring before the attention of your readers one or two reflections on the state of things in France which are obvious enough in themselves, but which, because they possess rather a permanent than an immediate interest, appear to escape the notice of the able editors and energetic correspondents who guide the opinion of England, and, I suppose, to a certain extent, of America.

One fact about Gen. Boulanger's position is hardly disputed, and is of primary importance. His influence arises not from the notoriety of his talents (for no one really knows the extent of his capacity even as a military commander), nor from any striking service which he has rendered the country (for even his admirers do not ascribe to him services greater than have been rendered to France by other meritorious officers), but from his being the representative of popular dissatisfaction with parliamentary government, or, to borrow an expression from Swiss politics, "representative democracy." The General's popularity means, then, the unpopularity of government by the Chambers. The General's triumph does not necessarily mean the nominal overthrow of the republic; still less does it involve reaction against what Frenchmen consider democratic institutions; but it does mean the subversion of Parliamentary authority—it means the destruction by the French people of representative government as understood in England and America. That this is so can be denied neither by Boulanger's adherents nor by his opponents. It is worth while to reflect for a few minutes on all that this fact involves. It suggests at least three important considerations.

First. The triumph of Boulanger will be the severest blow to the credit of free government which has been dealt to it for years. The third French Republic has certainly not had a brilliant career; it has failed to produce statesmen of marked talent or high character; under Republican administration French finances have, it is said, been thoroughly ill-administered, and the reputation of French public men has been greatly tarnished. At this moment the man who is reputed to be the most capable of Republican statesmen cannot lead the Republicans, because he lacks the weight of character necessary for a leading statesman. Yet when everything is said against the republic which can be urged by the most severe of candid judges, fairness compels the admission that Republicanism has given France more of the substance of self-government than France has obtained under any constitution which has existed since 1789. The nation has for seventeen years been "mistress in her own house." Freedom of speech, freedom of the press, freedom of meeting, and the other fundamental rights of freemen have been for the first time in French history a reality. Boulanger's triumph, if it takes place, will show that the mass of Frenchmen value self-government far less than good administration and national prestige; his present popularity is sufficient to prove that thousands of French citizens are prepared to put liberty in peril on the chance of obtaining either improved administration or national glory.

It were in some respects a great relief to all persons who value the success of popular government to believe that the main cause of the

support given to the General is the hope that he will recover Alsace. To rush into a desperate struggle with Germany in order to restore to France Frenchmen who are German subjects against their will, would be, if a folly, yet a kind of generous madness. But any one who has read French papers with care will with difficulty believe that popular desire for "revenge" contributes more than a very subordinate element to the General's influence with the masses. The wish to get rid of government by an assembly is, one may venture to assert with some confidence, the motive which enlists voters in favor of Boulangist candidates. If this be admitted, it follows that the victory of Boulanger will be a blow to the cause of popular government throughout the world.

In England we are accustomed to think that we are unaffected by foreign opinion. In one sense this is true. Englishmen are ill-informed about foreign politics, and do not pay much attention to the speculations of Continental writers. But English beliefs on political matters are greatly affected by the course of events in foreign countries. Whoever is old enough to look back to the state of sentiment prevalent in Great Britain from say 1856 to 1864, will recognize the fact that the course of events in other lands told strongly in favor of Conservatism in England. The revolutionary fiasco in 1848, the predominance of Southern influence throughout the United States, the apparent success of the Confederacy, and the expected dissolution of the Union, created a condition of feeling which would surprise the Conservatives of to-day. My own firm belief is, that had the Confederacy finally established its independence, the whole modern constitutional history of England would have been altered, through the indirect effect of the conviction produced thereby that the greatest experiment in democratic government which the world had witnessed had ended in failure. Nor can I for a moment doubt that the breakdown of Republicanism in France would retard the progress of popular government throughout Europe.

Secondly. The fall of the republic, if the republic be destined to fall, will be in the main due to the cause which, above all others, has in France been fatal to the stability of free institutions. This is, to put the matter shortly, the inability of defeated parties to acquiesce in the expressed will of the nation. To put the same thing in another shape, all parties in France have been, and are, revolutionary parties. In the early stages of the Great Revolution, the Court played into the hands of the Democrats; the King, and, still more, the Queen, intrigued with Jacobins in order to discredit La Fayette; and the same disastrous game has been played in one form or another ever since, by politicians who might call themselves Conservatives, but were, in truth, reactionaries or conspirators. At the present moment France is menaced with a return to despotism. It might have been expected by any man unacquainted with French history that all good citizens would, whatever their political preferences, rally round the republic in order to resist a movement which threatens to destroy the liberties of the country. What really has taken place is, that the party of every pretender is more than half disposed to aid Gen. Boulanger, under the hope that the general confusion produced by the overthrow of the republic may at last turn out for the benefit of some particular claimant, be he a Bonaparte or a Bourbon, to whose success a given faction is devoted. On this matter English opinion is densely stupid. Moderate men ask why the Orleanist Princes should be banished from France. The reply is, that no government can tolerate the presence of pretenders. Great is the power of forgetfulness, and Englishmen have so entirely forgotten their own history that they cannot understand why the French republic acts towards the Princes of the House of Orleans just as the constitutional monarchy of England acted during the last century towards the Stuarts.

Thirdly. The dislike or indifference with which large classes of Frenchmen regard the rule of the Assembly is merely the most striking example of a sentiment which, however much we may condemn it, is becoming prevalent in various countries of Europe, perhaps in almost all of them. The word "Parliamentarianism" is an awkward term enough in itself, and represents a feeling which has hitherto commanded little sympathy among Englishmen. The term, however, is coming into vogue, and its meaning is well understood in Switzerland, in France, in Prussia: it is the word by which Imperialists, Loyalists, or Democrats designate the weak side of government by an elected Assembly, or, in other words, by a Parliament. There was a time when, to all Englishmen, and to all men in every country who longed for freedom from oppression, Parliamentary government seemed to be the name for an ideal constitution which, wherever it existed, insured to those who enjoyed it all the blessings of freedom and of good administration. To-day it is far otherwise. In every country there are thinkers and politicians to whom Parliamentarianism means the rule of an Assembly torn by factions, whose strife is fatal to the existence of good administration, and sacrifices (as is alleged) to the interest of party the welfare, it may be the existence, of the country. What is the basis of these complaints, how far they may or may not be justifiable, how, if at all, they can be met, are questions with which, to-day, I do not concern myself. My object is not to support or attack any particular theory, but to point to an undoubted fact, namely, that the weakness of the French republic is a sign of the dislike which is spreading, even in Democratic countries, to that direct rule of an Assembly which is denounced as Parliamentarianism.

AN OBSERVER.

Correspondence.

THE AGE OF FREDERICK THE GREAT IN GERMAN LITERATURE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your correspondent "C. H. G." (in your issue of May 10) is mistaken in saying that Lessing's fear has not been realized, that the literary age in which he lived might one day be called the age of Frederick the Great.

Chapter xi of Scherer's 'Geschichte der Deutschen Litteratur' has the title, "Das Zeitalter Friedrichs des Grossen." In the notes at page 755 Scherer quotes Lessing's saying, and adds:

"But this warning does not frighten me at all. In the first place, 'Age of Frederick the Great' is a convenient name for the period from 1740 to 1786. And then there really exists a connection between Frederick's sentiments and policy and German enlightenment, between Frederick's deeds and German literature. Kant's and Goethe's testimony is well known, although such testimony is hardly necessary where the facts speak so plainly. I do not believe a word of the widespread fiction, that the growth of literature among the Germans has been quite other than with other nations: with us, also, high literary development depends upon high political development."

Scherer and those who follow him in this are not "flatterers," as Lessing would have it. They see and declare the truth which Lessing failed to see.

ARTHUR H. PALMER.

ADELBERT COLLEGE, CLEVELAND, O., May 12, 1888.

NEWNHAM AND CAMBRIDGE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A discussion in regard to the admission of English women to certain examinations and the university degree at Cambridge recently appeared in the *Nation*. In this connection, the following extract from a letter lately received from a Cambridge lady may be of interest:

"In your letter, you ask me to explain why women are not allowed to take the General and Special Examinations. The fact is that a great many rich young men come up to college and do not work hard. They are allowed to take the ordinary General and Special Examinations, which are very easy. They spend a great deal of time in boating, cricket, and games. It has been the custom to allow this state of things to go on, and though many members of the University have tried to put an end to it, as yet they have not succeeded.

"We at Newnham and our friends do not wish our students to take these unsatisfactory examinations, and therefore our students only go in for honors, viz., Triposes. Those who do not wish to go in for honors take the Higher Local Examination, which is much better and more varied than that for the Ordinary Degree. If a better Ordinary Degree were instituted, we should not object to their taking it.

"Many petitions have been sent up this summer asking for degrees for women. It is a very difficult question, for the undergraduates are under very strict rule in their colleges, and there are men proctors to see after them at night, etc. These rules could not be applied to women. Moreover, I do not think we are prepared for a mixed university. What may happen in twenty or fifty years no one can say, but we are not ready for a sudden change yet. It is much better when things come on gradually. The University authorities have been most kind and friendly to us. We seem to have won the regards of many of the best men. Only the other day a very distinguished man in the University, Mr. Coutts Trotter, who was Vice-Master of Trinity College, died and left us 2,450 books from his very valuable library. He had been from the beginning of the College one of our chief friends and advisers. He was our Vice-Chairman, and he was always at our meetings and ready to help us. His loss is indeed a great one, and his place can hardly be filled. He also left us £1,500 in money and many valuable physical instruments. It is indeed very touching to receive such gifts, which recall to us so strongly the giver.

"We feel we have won a place in the University. I would rather wait awhile till the members of the University feel they can do more for us—I mean the University in general, all parties and divisions. Such is my feeling, and I hope and trust all will end well. At present our students have certificates from the Vice-Chancellor, but they are not members of the University, and cannot vote or join in the business of the University. They have passed exactly the same examinations as the men. If the authorities find they can grant the B.A. degree without giving the vote to women in University matters, it might perhaps answer. At present, in a certain sense, we belong to the University, and there is a very good feeling towards the Women's Colleges, both among the authorities and the undergraduates."

Very respectfully, A. H.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., March 17, 1888.

Notes.

CASSELL & Co. are about to issue a new and revised edition of the novels of Mrs. Elizabeth Stoddard, beginning next month with 'Two Men,' to which Mr. E. C. Stedman will furnish a preface.

A fifth edition of Col. H. B. Carrington's 'Battles of the American Revolution,' revised, and with fresh notes, is promised this month by A. S. Barnes & Co.

Lee & Shepard, Boston, announce 'Noble Deeds of Our Fathers, as Told by Soldiers of the Revolution, Gathered around the Old Bell of Independence.'

Prof. Hosmer's 'Sir Harry Vane' is in the press of Houghton, Mifflin & Co., for publication in the fall.

Cupples & Hurd issue directly 'Social Life and Literature Fifty Years Ago'; 'Iona, a Lay of Ancient Greece,' by Payne Erskine; 'The Autobiography of Solomon Maimon,' by Prof. J. Clarke Murray; 'Miss Frances Merley,' a novel by John Elliott Curran; and 'Wit, Wisdom, and Pathos,' from the prose of Heine.

'Trees and Tree-Planting,' by Gen. James S. Brisbin; 'A Guide to the Conduct of Meetings,' by George T. Fish; and 'A Strange Manuscript Found in a Copper Cylinder,' a novel "written many years before the appearance of Mr. Rider Haggard's," are among the current announcements of Harper & Bros.

Anson D. F. Randolph & Co. will publish early next month 'Stubble or Wheat?' an anti-pessimistic story, by S. Bayard Dod.

Macaulay's 'Lays of Ancient Rome' is the latest addition to the pretty "Knickerbocker Nuggets" series of the Messrs. Putnam.

Pessimistic observers of American politics may be recommended to read the preface to the fourth revised edition of Simon Sterne's 'Constitutional History and Political Development of the United States' (Putnams). This work was originally published in 1881, and Mr. Sterne sees progress all along the line, except in the legal-tender decision of the Supreme Court and the labor aberration fostered by Henry George's speculations. The several steps in advance which he enumerates are afterwards dwelt upon in the addenda, where, also, corrections are grouped together. The book is a particularly useful one for the Presidential year. The short section of afterthought on the woman-suffrage question will, we think, seem somewhat superficial to those who watch most closely the drift of public opinion, of which the latest sign is the close division over the proposed equality of the two sexes as delegates to the Methodist General Conference in this city.

'The Ethics of Marriage,' by H. S. Pomeroy, M.D. (Funk & Wagnalls), is a work in good faith on a delicate subject of the utmost importance. The treatment is in unobjectionable taste, and if it still leaves much to be said, and from a different point of view, it is certain to win respect for the author among the thoughtful.

We have, from time to time, noticed the monographs upon coöperation published by the American Economic Association. These have now been collected, with some additions, and are published in a handsome volume under the auspices of the Johns Hopkins University. A tolerably complete summary of the history of coöperative enterprises in the different sections of the country is thus presented, furnishing probably the best mass of statistics available to the student. It is to be observed that the term coöperation is very loosely used, and includes almost every form of joint-stock association—even those employing laborers who have no interest in the stock or share in the profits. If its connotation were narrowed, there would be a saving of space and the matter would be more instructive.

Among the papers of the American Historical Association is one published several years since, but of present interest in connection with the attempt to divert the Federal revenues to the support of State schools. It is entitled 'History and Management of Land Grants for Education in the Northwest Territory,' by George W. Knight (Putnams). If we regard the State as an entity apart from its subjects, nothing could be more shameful than this record. The State of Illinois, for example, has succeeded in disposing of about a million and a half acres of land, for which she has to show a fund of $4,000,000. By an accident some 8,000 acres of land were retained, which are now worth two and a half million dollars. If the lands had been let on long leases instead of being sold, they would now be of fabulous value. But there is much to be said in favor of sustaining schools by taxation, and it is by no means improbable that the apparent loss to the State was more than offset by the gain to individuals. As Mr. Wright suggests, the State is ill qualified for the functions of a landlord. The paper (vol. i, No. 3) is a very thorough piece of work, and is interesting as well as instructive.

The thirteenth volume of the *Century* (November, 1887–April, 1888) comes bound to our table, and, refreshing our memory of its contents from month to month, we turn over the six remarkable papers by Mr. George Kennan on Russian tyranny and political punishment; Mr. Stillman's estimate of Ruskin, Mr. Lowell's of Landor, and Mr. James's of Robert Louis Stevenson; the war papers, with the thrilling story of the Libby tunnel; the Lincoln biography, with its revelations of Seward's ambition to relegate the President to the condition of a British constitutional monarch, and to make himself premier; the English cathedral articles, and many more. Mr. Stockton's "The Dusantes," Mr. Eggleston's "The Graysons," and Mr. Cable's "Au Large" lead the fiction. Nothing is on the whole so striking among the illustrations as the composite photographic portraits presented by Prof. J. T. Stoddard. They—both male and female—must be allowed to be powerful arguments in favor of the higher education.

From the Century Co. we have also the second volume of the sumptuous 'Battles and Leaders of the Civil War,' which embraces some of the most picturesque and momentous events of the great struggle—the capture of New Orleans, Ball's Bluff and the Peninsula Campaign, Stonewall Jackson in the Shenandoah Valley, Pope's defeat and Lee's invasion of Maryland, Iuka and Corinth. Among the illustrations that possess a curious interest is one from a photograph of Gen. O. O. Howard taken just before the battle in which he lost an arm, and showing both members intact; and another of the rude mess of the Orleans princes and suite, likewise from a photograph. Belonging to the class of imaginative illustrations (happily not many in this monumental work) that might have been dispensed with, is the frontispiece "The Despatch Bearer," in which the galloping horse was drawn by the generation that knew not Muybridge.

The *Library Journal* for March-April tells of the present and perhaps permanent abandonment of its purpose to give a list of the private libraries of the country containing one thousand volumes and upwards—of which it estimates there are 100,000. Many returns were made freely, but in some cases even legal objections were interposed. "Several frankly stated that they preferred not to make any public statement of the size of their libraries lest the local assessors should promptly rate up their taxes." Others objected to being made the target of circulars from dealers. "From all over the country we hear of special collections in private hands often better and more full than those in the great libraries, particularly, for instance, in the department of Local History."

According to Mr. Foster's tenth annual report, the Providence Public Library now numbers 37,767 volumes, and ranks eighth in size among those of New England. Some curious tables of circulation for the decade, and for eight years, are given. In the latter period, among "works other than fiction used 125 times and over," Longfellow's poetry stands third on the list (346 times), Lowell's thirty-first (159 times), Scott's thirty-eighth (145 times). "Kenilworth" led all the works of fiction, juvenile included (625 times).

The sale and exchange of public documents effected through the medium of the Interior Department appears, from the annual report of Mr. John G. Ames, Superintendent of Documents, to be proceeding very satisfactorily; yet, for want of power to make requisition on other departments, the Secretary of the Interior is practically shut up to his own. No fewer than 11,953 duplicate copies of the *Congressional Globe* and *Record* have been received from libraries, among which some backwardness in availing themselves of this privilege is remarked by the Superintendent. He recommends as a check on overprinting for distribution by Congressmen an increase in the number of lawful depositories. Complaint is made of the frequent duplicating of titles of the same public document, and of the binding together in unwieldy volumes unconnected documents sufficient each to make a volume in itself.

A memorial portrait of the late Prof. John Norton Pomeroy, the former Dean of the Law Faculty of the University of the City of New York, has been presented to that institution. A pamphlet has been issued containing the address delivered on the occasion by Mr. Chauncey B. Ripley, with biographical and bibliographical data concerning Prof. Pomeroy furnished by his family.

Mr. Charles G. Leland will thankfully receive any contribution towards his forthcoming 'Dictionary of American Colloquial Expressions,' newspaper peculiarities, current jokes on popular topics, fragments of songs used proverbially, etc. Any such matter should be sent to the address 2 White Hart Street, Paternoster Square, London, E. C.

For any one in the habit of seeing several of the daily Paris papers, and of the lighter and more gossiping *revues*, the *Gazette Anecdotique* might not perhaps contain much that was new; but even in that case it would be found that there were few events desirable to remember or refer back to, in the political, literary, or artistic life of the moment, which were not preserved in the pages of this little periodical in a condensed and easily accessible form. Even the vagaries of *not' brav' général* and his followers are recorded under the proper dates, with quite as much detail as they deserve, side by side with the rise and fall of the successive ministries, and the production of the successive new plays which are the bubbles in this sparkling foam of Parisian journalism.

Brentanos have received the first fascicule of Albert Wolff's '*Figaro*—Salon, 1888,' of which four more are to come. The text thus far is cursory, and avowedly not based on a study of the canvases. The illustrations are of large size and excellent quality, in various "processes" which, a few years ago, would have been beyond the reach of such a publication, and in which Paris still takes the lead.

The second volume of the 'Société de Paris,' by the anonymous Count Paul Vasili, has been issued from the press of the *Nouvelle Revue* (Boston: Schoenhof). Its special title is 'Le Monde politique.' The first volume, 'Le Grand Monde,' appeared last spring.

Plon & Nourrit have just published 'Mabil-

lon et la société de l'abbaye de Saint-Germain-des-Prés à la fin du xviie siècle,' by Prince Emmanuel de Broglie, son of the present Duc de Broglie.

—The spring meeting of the American Oriental Society was held in the library of the American Academy in Boston on Wednesday, May 2, Dr. Andrew P. Peabody in the chair. Among the papers read was one by Prof. Richard Gottheil of Columbia College, on "A Syriac Geographical Chart of the Thirteenth Century," found in an old MS. of the 'Lamp of the Holy Things,' by Gregorious Bar Ebhrāyā, who lived in the second half of the thirteenth century. The chart comprises the whole world as far as it was known to this Eastern ecclesiastic, and is an interesting addition to the history of cartography. Bar Ebhrāyā, following the Arabic geographical writers, divides the whole earth into seven parallels or "climates," but he goes beyond the Arabic charts which we find, for instance, in Kazwini, and attempts to delineate roughly the forms of the different countries. We can see here the effect of contact with Greek learning. Mr. James R. Jewett of Harvard University spoke upon the School of Biblical Archæology which it is proposed to erect at Beirut in Syria, and to found and manage upon the same principles as the Classical School at Athens. Orientalists, archæologists, and theologians are there to become practically acquainted with Palestine and the neighboring countries, to study the habits and languages of the present inhabitants, and, when the opportunity offers, to make archæological and antiquarian researches. Prof. David G. Lyon of Harvard treated of "The Trustworthiness of Assyrian Statements, Figures, and Dates." During the year 1887 two editions were brought out of a tablet dated 499 B. C., containing a synchronous history of Babylon, Assyria, and Elam, down to the year 668. This tablet is likely to shake our faith in the accounts which the Assyrian kings have handed down to us. From his own inscriptions we had been led to believe that during the first years of his reign (about 720 B. C.) the great Sargon II. had defeated Humbanigash of Elam at Dūrīlu. The Babylonian chronicle, however, says distinctly that the Elamite carried off the victory, and not Sargon (Tiele, 'Babylonisch-Assyrische Geschichte,' p. 614). In the same manner Sennacherib, in his account of his bloody conflict with Babylon and her allies at Hallulu, not far from the present town of Bagdad (692-1 B. C.) ascribes the victory to his own arms. Our tablet, however, gives the victory to the Elamites. The accounts have been written by different peoples, and it is possible that misrepresentations have been made by both sides. The Society adjourned to meet in the fall either at New Haven or at Philadelphia.

—The Wisconsin Historical Society has just issued the tenth volume of its collections, closing with a fifty-page index of the whole series, which includes about five thousand pages. This last issue shows much elaborate research regarding early exploration and settlement. These are matters of local interest, but one paper is sure to be read everywhere, namely, a monograph of seventy-six pages by the Secretary emeritus, on 'Autograph Collections of the Signers of the Declaration of Independence and of the Constitution.' From this document we learn that only twenty-two sets of autographs of the Declaration signers have been made, and that it is scarcely possible for another to be made. The first of these sets was completed by Dr. Sprague of Albany, and that about 1835, after twenty years' labor. The thought of making it struck him, in 1815, when a nephew of Washington, who had inherited his uncle's papers, allowed Dr. Sprague to take away any originals he pleased in exchange for copies. He thus obtained at once twenty-nine separate signatures. The twenty-two sets represent the labors, individual and coöperative, the exchanges, and the lucky accidents, of half a century. Seven of them are now to be found in the State of New York, five in Pennsylvania, three in Massachusetts, two in Georgia, and one each in Connecticut, Rhode Island, Wisconsin, Maryland, and England. All the twenty-two sets save one are more than signatures. They include many autograph letters with signatures of the signers, and the value of the sets is measured by the number of these letters. Classified according to this standard, the set of Dr. Emmet of New York stands highest, having fifty-four letters—that is, letters from all the signers but Morton and Gwinnett. It shows the only Lynch letter that is known to exist. It even contains an autograph document signed by Morton, and the name of Gwinnett affixed to a document. One of the sets has only twenty-five letters, and only six can boast fifty or more. One of these six is in the State Historical Society at Madison, Wisconsin. The set there is the only one anywhere west of the Alleghanies, and the only one owned by any Historical Society, except that of Pennsylvania. Accordingly, it was naturally in the publications of the Wisconsin Society that the niche was found which the signatory monograph was best fitted to fill. Besides the fifty autograph-signed letters, there are in Madison documents signed by four of the signers whose letters are lacking, and an autograph document signed by a fifth. Of Lynch there is only an inlaid cut signature. He is the only one of the fifty-six from whom Madison cannot show something more.

—The monographer to whom Wisconsin really owes its set standing among the foremost six, treats his theme with an affectionate minuteness. He has not much to say of his own endeavors, still baffled, still renewed, for a quarter of a century. But he expatiates on Dr. Emmet, the only man who has accumulated three sets, at an outlay of $25,000, as well as time and pains that would have brought him more than that. He describes one set as having perished at the burning of Columbia. The following anecdote is one of the best illustrations that "our indiscretion sometimes serves us well, when our deep plots do pall": Mr. Tefft, the earliest American autograph collector, calling on a friend and not finding him, walked on his lawn. Picking up a paper that was blown into his path, he saw on it the only signatory autograph which his set then lacked, and sadly lacked—the name Button Gwinnett, the rarest name, save Lynch, of all the immortals. House-cleaning had just taken place there, and this paper was a waif from old documents swept out of a garret. Mr. Durrie's paper also describes thirty-one incomplete sets of Declaration autographs. Several of his pages speak of autographs of signers of the Constitution of the United States. Among the sixteen sets of these thirty-nine names which have been completed as complements to the Declaration series, Madison has one—that is, an original autograph signed letter from each and all of the thirty-nine.

—Mr. Alfred Ainger has at last, after long delay, sent forth in two volumes his collection of 'The Letters of Charles Lamb—Newly Arranged, with Additions' (A. C. Armstrong & Son), thus substantially and satisfactorily completing his admirable edition of Lamb's works. Now that we have these two volumes of correspondence, we do not hesitate to say that Mr. Ainger has given us not only by far the best edition of Lamb, but one of the very best editions yet issued of any of our later classics. He has great sympathy with Lamb, a keen understanding of his character, and a high relish of his humor; he has also excellent taste, untiring industry, a wide knowledge of the period, and ample charity for the shortcomings of his predecessors. The present collection contains all of Lamb's letters hitherto published (except a few trifling and empty notelets) and several series of letters hitherto unpublished, some of which are of great importance and interest. The arrangement is chronological—although at times the dating is tentative. From the year Lamb came of age to his death, the story of his simple career is told in his correspondence. As Mr. Ainger says, there are few incidents in his life "that are not related or referred to in these letters; when read consecutively, and with the help of such supplementary information as can be provided in notes, they form an almost complete biography." In providing these notes Mr. Ainger has been discreetly abundant—there are more than eighty pages of them, properly relegated to the ends of the volumes. There is also an excellent index of nearly forty columns. Second only to the biographical interest of these letters—and Lamb is one of the writers whom we love for themselves even more than for their works—is the fund of criticism herein contained. In Lamb the critical faculty developed very early, and its versatility was as remarkable as its keenness. As Mr. Ainger puts it, "Lamb is our best and wholesomest example of that rare capacity for valuing and enjoying one literary school without at the same time disparaging its opposites"—a capacity especially welcome just now.

—Incidentally, in Mr. Ainger's almost always instructive notes, we get a pleasant glimpse of Edward Fitzgerald, the translator of 'Omar Khayyám.' It was Fitzgerald who sent a poem to Hone which was published in the *Athenæum* with the suggestion that perhaps it was Lamb's, and which Lamb wished he had written. Fitzgerald married the daughter of Lamb's frequent correspondent, Bernard Barton, the Quaker poet, whose memoir he wrote. And it was Fitzgerald who supplied Mr. Ainger with an account of one of the neatest of Lamb's jokes. When Lamb was in Paris in 1822, he saw Talma act *Regulus*, and had the actor to supper in the evening. The humorist and the tragedian got on excellently, although Lamb did not conceal his lack of liking for French tragedy. "I was not very happy to-night," said Talma at last; "you must see me in *Sylla*." "*Incidit in Scyllam*," said Lamb, "*qui vult vitare Charybdim*." "Ah! you are a rogue—a great rogue," said Talma, shaking him cordially by the hand as they parted.

—Readers of the *Nation* will doubtless remember the interesting account by its Paris correspondent about a year ago (No. 1131) of the then newly published journal of the little Princess Hélène Massalska during her school years at the Abbaye-aux-Bois. Lucien Perey has just published the second volume of this 'Histoire d'une grande dame au XVIIIe siècle' (Paris: Calmann Lévy; Boston: Schoenhof). The earlier volume contains, besides the Journal, the story of the marriage of the young Princess with Prince Charles de Ligne, and of her life as the Princess Hélène de Ligne for the fourteen years during which this union lasted. It ends, three months after the death of the Prince, with her second marriage to her countryman, the Polish Count Vincent Potocki. The present volume contains her life as

the Countess Hélène Potocka from the beginning of 1793, just after her second marriage took place, until her death in 1815. The story of these years is told partly by means of the correspondence between the Countess Hélène and her husband during their temporary separations, from which a great number of letters are published, and partly, when letters fail, by the narrative of the editor—the materials for which were drawn, as the reader is informed in the preface, not only from public and private collections, but from family papers and traditions and personal communications. The entire honesty as an editor of Lucien Perey (Mlle. Herpin) has been vouched for; still, what she says about her sources of information, and especially concerning the manner in which she has made use of them, would be more satisfactory if it were somewhat less vague. She has, however, made an attractive work from her abundant materials, and no part of the story is more interesting than that contained in the present volume, which is animated from beginning to end by the enduring and ardent affection of the Countess Hélène for the husband who was not always as exclusively devoted to her as she was to him.

—We have received the first number of Brunn's 'Denkmäler Griechischer und Römischer Sculptur,' of which we made mention some weeks ago. At this early stage of the work it is not possible to pass judgment upon it, and we shall content ourselves, for the present at least, with calling the attention of our readers to its character and purposes as they are set forth in the introduction. The editor wishes it distinctly understood that this is not to be a history of the art, but a series of illustrations so complete that they will in themselves embody its history. The text will therefore, we presume, be limited to the absolutely necessary; the first number containing only the Introduction, which has already been extensively circulated as a prospectus. The work will consist of about eighty parts, each containing five plates, and costing five dollars. In other words, the completed work will include some four hundred illustrations of the most representative monuments of the various epochs and schools of Greek and Roman sculpture, and will cost about four hundred dollars. The price alone is an indication of the ambitious character of the undertaking. In these days of good reproductions at low prices, a work like this seems more than ever costly, and we have a right to expect of it the very best that can be done in the way of reproducing the texture, surface, and finish of the subjects, and conveying as far as possible the impression produced by the tone of the material in the original. It is in this respect that experiments in reproductive processes have been especially successful of late years, and nowhere more than in Germany. The 'Antike Denkmäler,' published by the German Archæological Institute, seems to us the highest achievement yet attained by a publication which has to meet both scientific and artistic requirements, and it is by such a standard that the character of the present work will have to be judged. The name of Professor Brunn is the surest guarantee that the selection of subjects will be the most comprehensive and illustrative possible. Photographs are being made expressly for it under the direction of Dr. Leopold Julius, directly from the originals where this is possible, and in other cases from casts. These photographs are reproduced by "phototype," apparently a gelatine process, which gives them a permanent, lustreless black, and are mounted upon boards similar in size and color to Braun's. We regret the amount and size of the lettering introduced under the plates, which has a disturbing and, to our mind, a cheapening effect. The five plates in the first number are of subjects of various epochs in Munich and Athens, and include beautiful illustrations of the Apollo of Tenea and the Barberini Faun. The work is published by Bruckmann of Munich, and Asher & Co. of London are the sole agents for England and America.

RECENT POETRY.

PROBABLY no single volume of poems published in this country, since that of Emerson in 1847, has given a more unexpected sense of wealth and added possessions than Mr. Lowell's 'Heartsease and Rue' (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). Our poets are now so apt to write with a magazine-editor at the elbow; their new volumes are so largely filled with what has already been in print; and it seemed so improbable that Mr. Lowell's diplomatic years should have accumulated in his portfolio many unpublished treasures, that the public has been delighted beyond all anticipation by the final opening. The poems hitherto unseen appear fresher and more finely wrought than the more familiar, and the shortest are usually the best, having a peculiar mellowness of flavor and accuracy of form such as did not always mark Lowell's earlier work. He was, from the first, in Willis's phrase, "the best launched poet of his time"—beginning with no preliminary ordeal of disapproval; and the somewhat profuse and imitative sentimentality of his earliest volume met little but friendly criticism, except from Margaret Fuller, who said that it "sounded no depth." The 'Fable for Critics' shows how bitterly the young poet resented the remark; but he took the hint, and very little of the 'Year's Life' is now preserved in his collected poems. Later, he went through a period when his thoughts outgrew his power of expression, and there was a great deal of crudeness, clumsiness, and mixed metaphor in his poems, reaching its climax in such lines as:

"Where there are woods and un-man-stifled places."

Alternating with these were passages of such lyrical wealth as no other American poet has surpassed; and it is delightful to find in this volume the maturing of all promise and the vindication of all hope. His 'Democracy and Other Essays' does not show a greater advance on his previous prose criticism than this volume on all that has preceded it, except the "Commemoration Ode"; it places him unquestionably above all his American contemporaries, save Emerson alone; for, with all Emerson's defiant roughnesses, there is certainly a note sounded in such poems as "The Problem," "The Day's Ration," and "Daughters of Time," which places them, in regard both to thought and execution, at a point inaccessible by Lowell. It is curious to observe, on the other hand, that the humorous verses in this volume show no advance.

Again, as has been intimated, the longest poems are not the best. The "Ode to Agassiz," for instance, opens in the old cumbrous and involved manner; and when it comes to delineation, it shows us not the actual Agassiz, but only one side of the man—his friend's affection, like the proverbial sun-dial, counts only the sunny hours. The other Agassiz is not here, who was wont to deny to Darwin and Asa Gray the very name of scientific men because they favored the doctrine of evolution, though a true picture would give his bluff and vehement stubbornness as well as his kindliness when among admirers. On the other hand, Mr. Lowell cannot be charged with here withholding his own animosities; and he even feels bound to justify himself to Mr. Curtis for some phrases that were resented at the time as pessimistic, but which were all condoned and forgotten after his address on 'Democracy.' Occasionally, too, there is still a rough phrase that seems caught from the least attractive side of Browning, as in the verse:

"I have a fancy: how shall I bring it
Home to all mortals wherever they be?
Say it or sing it? Shoe it or wing it?
So it may outrun or outfly ME,
Merest cocoon-web whence it broke free?"
(P. 146.)

It is a pleasure to turn from this terse but too blunt expression to the exquisite ideality of the following:

"TO A LADY PLAYING ON THE CITHERN.

"So dreamy-soft the notes, so far away
They seem to fall, the horns of Oberon
Blow their faint Hunt's-up from the good-time gone;
Or, on a morning of long-withered May,
Larks tinkle unseen o'er Claudian arches gray,
That Romeward crawl from Dreamland; and anon
My fancy flings her cloak of Darkness on,
To vanish from the dungeon of To-day,
In happier times and scenes I seem to be,
And, as her fingers flutter o'er the strings,
The days return when I was young as she,
And my fledged thoughts began to feel their wings
With all Heaven's blue before them: Memory
Or Music is it such enchantment sings?" (P. 117.)

Dr. Holmes does not in 'Before the Curfew' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) offer us hoarded treasures, such as Lowell's, for the reporters have followed him up too closely; and the interest with which one turns the leaves of this volume is rather personal than poetical. He has his well-defined place in our literature, over which he himself has no further control; he is enrolled among that class whom Emerson designated as "favorites," holding an individual popularity which excludes all question of greater or less in point of genius. In this volume, as in those which have preceded it, he shows the curious combination of sometimes visibly failing to grasp large themes successfully, while elevating small ones by the lightness of his touch: "Columbia" hardly inspires him, but his after-dinner resources are inexhaustible.

It is interesting to observe that, after some delay, the American medical profession has at length produced its second real poet. The extraordinary versatility of Dr. S. Weir Mitchell has never shown itself in a form more striking than in his new volume, 'A Masque, and Other Poems' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). The result is more remarkable than in his novels, about which there is, to our thinking, something a little amateurish; whereas, the best of these poems—and the best are, for a wonder, the longest—would impress one as the work of a man whose whole soul was in poetic art, and who never had looked in any other intellectual direction. The "Masque" itself, with its scene laid in the fifteenth century, is as terse, as objective, as powerful, and proceeds with as stern a tread from the very first line to the very last, as if Browning had written it; and the other dramatic sketches, called "A Medal" and "The Huguenot," are scarcely less strong. Curiously enough, the weak point of the book comes when the author, thus vigorous in his own dramatic power, comes to transfusing the same quality from another writer. In his brief preface, Dr. Mitchell tells us that his poem on Launcelot "is an attempt to render, in blank verse, and as literally as possible, the most dramatic episode in the Arthur of Sir Thomas Malory"; but the rendering, though spirited, can by no means be called literal, phrases and whole lines being introduced, and in one case a passage of six lines being interpolated, beginning "And in the moonlight" (p. 44), and this always to the diluting and weakening of the sense. In the last line but one, in the phrase, "abroad his arms he cast," we should plainly read, "his armor," as in the original, since the word "arms" is ambiguous.

Mr. John James Piatt has made a selection from his poems under the title of 'Idyls and Lyrics of the Ohio Valley' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). Like all his volumes, it contains much that is pleasing and little that affords new promise, for the labor that he bestowed in retouching his one remarkable poem, "The Morning Street," only serves to emphasize the fact that he reached his high-water mark thirty years ago. Yet inasmuch as the function of a poet's life may commonly be said to be fulfilled when he achieves one strain that will be remembered, it makes but little difference whether this be done earlier or later in his career. In 'Beyond the Shadow, and Other Poems,' by Stuart Sterne (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), Miss Bloede continues that thoughtful and contemplative strain which has won her many readers. She never writes carelessly or without meaning, and though she never quite attains beyond the shadow, she never belittles the dignity of the shade. One of her strongest passages is where she makes a woman chant the song of her sorrow, and then wake to the greater grief of finding it all a dream, and her life empty of even the tragedy which she had visioned:

> 'The morning sun was in the room,—I woke—
> I knew it was a dream,—I knew my life
> Was heavier than the burden of my dream,—
> —I had not won, I had not loved nor lost."
> (P. 93.)

The reader opens each new book by Louise Imogen Guiney—in this case 'The White Sail, and Other Poems' (Boston: Ticknor & Co.)—in hopes to find that she has learned that art for which Jomelli, the composer, sought the instruction of Martini, "the great art of not being embarrassed by one's own ideas." But the result is always disappointing: she does not gain this art; there is always redundant invention and exuberant thought, but not the master's touch. In such poems as "The Rise of the Tide" and "A Chouan," she shows a genuine dramatic power, and then we come upon lines so defiantly turgid as

> "Her father's houndish lords she moved among
> From feud and uproar dewily distraught."
> (P. 51.)

But inasmuch as she has on her side youth and abundant talent, she may have a career before her. It would be daring to assume as much as this for Mr. William Batchelder Greene, whose waywardness seems as defiant and hopeless in 'Cloudrifts at Twilight' (Putnams) as in his previous pages. There are certainly gleams of light through his cloudrifts, but they show a dreary landscape, after all. It requires great charity to have any hope for the poetic career of one who can print such lines as the following:

> "PARIS, THE TON.
>
> "Yea, Paris, thou art France!
> Fair senseless *ton*, my senses throb
> For thee—thou art so beautiful.
> Lord! what a gad is Paris Fair,
> Ripe bait for foreign hordes;
> You pay your chink and get your chunk,
> Well buttered on both sides." (P. 104.)

And so on indefinitely. Yet this is no worse than the equally wayward pages with which a veteran in literature like Mr. George Meredith insults us, in his 'Ballads and Poems' (Boston: Roberts Bros.), as in the following?

> "HERNANI.
>
> "Cistercians might crack their sides
> With laughter, and exemption get,
> At sight of heroes clasping brides,
> And hearing—O, the horn! the horn!
> The horn of their obstructive debt!
>
> "But quit the stage, that note applies
> For sermons cosmopolitan,
> Hernani. Have we filched our prize,
> Forgetting . . . ? O, the horn! the horn!
> The horn of the Old Gentleman!" (P. 69.)

Yet on the very next page he strikes the powerful notes which mark the beginning of 'The Nuptials of Attila," a poem which for pure strength has not been surpassed in this generation, although even this is far too prolonged and discursive:

> "Flat as to an eagle's eye
> Earth hung under Attila.
> Sign for carnage gave he none
> In the place of his disdain,
> Sun and rain and rain and sun
> Cherished men to wax again,
> Crawl, and in their manner die.
> On his people stood a frost.
> Like the charger cut in stone
> Rearing stiff, the warrior host
> Which had life from him alone
> Craved the trumpet's eager note.
>
> O for the time when God did cry,
> Eye and have, my Attila!" (P. 70.)

The whole poem has the concentrated and waiting strength of the famous equestrian statue of Colleone; the woman described is even stronger than the men, and is brushed aside at last with a disdainful touch that is stronger than either:

> "Of the Queen no more was told
> Than of leaf on Danube rolled.
> Make the bed for Attila!" (P. 100.)

If thew and sinew were the test, George Meredith might well count as the first of English-writing bards; but even in athletic contests the judges take into consideration the element of grace.

The 'Garden Secrets' of Philip Bourke Marston (Roberts Bros.) has been already praised in these columns, and the series is now printed by itself. It is prefaced by a sketch of the young blind poet by the American lady to whose kind encouragement and friendly offices he was so much indebted, Mrs. Louise Chandler Moulton. The biographer has done her work with delicacy and sympathy. Another *carrière manquée* commemorated in a volume of poetry is that of the late David Atwood Wasson ('Poems,' Boston: Lee & Shepard), in whom the world lost a man of rare gifts, so hampered by illness and by various struggles as to give but a glimpse of what he might have been. His poems, as here published, have that kind of charm which Keats attributed to Shakspere's sonnets when he wrote, "They are full of fine things said unintentionally"; and some of his finished poems, as "All's Well," have already found a place among our American classics. There is a flavor of the seventeenth century about this poem, rising to a climax in the perfect closing lines,

> "And drowns the dream
> In larger stream,
> As morning drinks the morning star." (P. 127.)

Mr. Wasson also produced one of the finest among American sonnets in that which begins:

> "As unto blowing roses summer dews
> Or morning's anthem to the treetop choirs" (p. 78)

—an opening which certainly sustains the phrase just quoted from Keats. But the usual misfortune follows when a posthumous volume of verse is made up; between these fine scintillations occur many pages of mere rhythmic prose, and the over-strong praises of the editor lead the reader on to some disappointment. A more belated and more questionable tribute is in the sumptuous quarto which recalls the fading name and the sad career of Henry William Herbert, once well known as a sporting writer under the name of "Frank Forester." His 'Poems' are now collected (John Wiley & Sons), are printed on separate quarto sheets, and contained in a tasteful portfolio. They are illustrated, too, with engraved portraits of various Earls of Pembroke and Carnarvon, and of "Sidney's sister, Pembroke's mother," with all of whom Mr. Herbert was connected by blood; also, of their various country-seats and of "the Meet of the Meadow-Brook Hunt at Old Westbury, Long Island." Besides all these, there are representations of the author, his wife, his son, and his house; the whole effect being to recall and to deepen the tragedy of a wasted life. Mr. Herbert was, however, a good classical scholar, and the translations in this volume are the best part of the poetry; the rest having rather the flavor of the Willis period.

"A Little Brother of the Rich" has hit the public taste and has been widely circulated, but the "and Other Poems" of E. S. Martin (Mitchell & Miller) are not really enlivening; containing perhaps nothing so good as the condensed wit of the preface—"Inscribed to the editor of the *Sun*, with the somewhat disquieting consciousness that he knows poetry when he sees it." Mr. James Whitcomb Riley also publishes a volume of 'Afterwhiles' (Indianapolis: Bowen-Merrill Co.), which contains little to solidify his dawning reputation. Perhaps what he really needs is to read the "dialect poems" aloud, and then they would be effective. Yet one cannot well do this for sixty million people, and surely his verses "The Old Man and Jim"—not contained in this volume—needed no such personal administration to be effective and touching. Two other volumes in dialect are 'Poems by the late Irwin Russell' (Century Co.) and 'Befo' de War; Echoes in Negro Dialect,' by A. C. Gordon and Thomas Nelson Page (Scribners). Both of these employ for artistic purposes a mode of speech which "befo' de war" was found far less attractive; and both of them portray the negro of that period as such an infinitely blissful being that the youthful reader of history must wonder why it was ever necessary to convulse the nation by a Fugitive Slave Law in order to keep these happy creatures from running away. But they now afford good literary resources, at any rate, and these materials are here used with a good taste that is conspicuously absent from some of the prose work lately done by Southern women.

Sir Edwin Arnold seems especially unpopular just now—he and his verse—in London. Most of this feeling is doubtless political, as he is thought rather exuberant in his loyalty to the "Empire" for one who used to be classed with Liberals. Part of it may be also due to too profuse production, especially in the Oriental way, of which the public easily grows tired, as Southey and Moore found before him. Yet it is evidently his strongest point, and in his 'Lotus and Jewel' (Roberts Bros.) neither the original poems nor the French translations seem at all equal to what he brings from farthest Ind. The Hindu ballad, especially, he always handles with great vigor, as in "The Rajpût Nurse" (p. 181); but the necklace of pearls which he weaves by way of acrostic for his American wife seems a little labored, as it well might be. Yet the mere enumeration of gems for a hundred pages dazzles the eyes, and it certainly might deserve the name of that "lapidary style" which Charles Lamb claimed for some briefer and livelier effusions of his own. Another English volume, drawn from Italian, not Oriental, sources, is 'The Disciples,' by Harriet Eleanor Hamilton King (London: Kegan Paul; New York: Randolph); a book written, it is said, at the suggestion of Mazzini, and embalming in really simple and noble blank verse the experiences of Garibaldi and some of his fellow-laborers for the redemption of Italy. A peculiarly fine and impressive passage, "The Sermon in the Hospital," by the priest Ugo Bassi, has been reprinted in this country, and reached a wide circulation. In great contrast to this grave, strong book is 'Free Field; Lyrics Chiefly Descriptive,' by R. St. John Tyrwhitt of Christ Church, Oxford (Macmillan). There are here some poems about Palestine, conveying a little of the flavor of Lord Houghton's 'Palm Leaves,' but more feebly; and the rest of the book is trivial. Nor will the fame of Mr. Swinburne be enhanced by 'Locrine,' a

dramatic poem showing some of his resources of rhythm and alliteration, but with no strong grasp of character, and attaining about the grade of Sir Henry Taylor's less successful poems of this kind—'Edwin the Fair,' for instance (Worthington).

England may be regarded as at last avenged for the many tales told of the inability of her sons to take a joke made at their own expense. Mr. Thomas Brower Peacock, author of 'Poems of the Plains and Songs of the Solitudes' (Putnams), whose previous volume was lashed with sharp satire through a column of the *Saturday Review*, here reprints the whole review as an encomium, and his prefatory biographer rejoices in it as a crowning triumph. When the *Saturday Review* says, in its occasionally lively way, that Longfellow and Bryant are too English, and that the American bard should be "a soaring human being," and not be "inspired by the bed-ridden Pierian muses"; when it proceeds to give a few of the more astonishing verses of what it calls "this truly remarkable contemporary epic"; when it compares the author alternately to Homer, N. P. Willis, and Alfred Austin; when it ends by fervently saying: "We have never read any American poetry so exuberantly American," the author accepts it all and reprints the notice with gratitude on an advertising sheet. We can do no less, under such circumstances, than give an example of the chief narrative poem, commemorating a hero now dearer to the English heart, apparently, than even to our own:

> "Where Wild Bill fought the dead do swell
> To thrice the number elsewhere slain.
> He flies, he flashes o'er the plain—
> He kills before, behind the same—
> Shoots on all sides, true is his aim;
> He fires with such rapidity
> One stream of fire doth ever free
> Flame from the mouth of his firearms,
> For each hand a revolver warms.
> His thundering yells incessant rise,
> Which tell his foes he them defies;
> His long hair snaps and cracks behind,
> And lashes the complaining wind;
> He bristles like a porcupine
> With weapons growling in a line—
> An arsenal that spins and flies
> Before the watcher's wondering eyes."
> (P. 260.)

This is from the "Rhyme of the Border War," and there are a hundred pages of it. The late Matthew Arnold is mentioned in the appendix as one who thought well of the work, and found in it, apparently, those qualities of distinction and interest which he declined to recognize in Emerson and others.

'Lyra Christiana: a Treasury of Sacred Poetry, selected and arranged by H. L. L., author of Hymns from the Land of Luther' (T. Nelson & Sons), is a fairly good selection of devout poems, one for every day in the year. It shows, however, a curious slovenliness in editing, having no alphabetical index of authors, titles, or first lines; giving "Rosetti" for "Rossetti," and making Lord Houghton appear sometimes under his title, and sometimes as "R. Monckton Myles" [Milnes]; while poems of unknown authorship are sometimes credited to "Anon." and again sometimes to "Unbekanntes." In great contrast to this volume is the thorough and admirable execution of Mr. A. H. Bullen's 'More Lyrics from Elizabethan Song-Books' (London: Nimmo), in which that wondrous period of literary history is ransacked once again through the manuscript "Books of Airs" and "Sets of Madrigals" of which the great English libraries are still so full. How cheap seems all the modern London brood of triolets and French measures, compared with the freshness, vigor, and variety of this series of mere gleanings after a harvest which seems destined never to be quite exhausted. To those who wish for one new volume of poetry—one and no more—as a summer companion, we can safely commend this. It may well be called a new volume in every sense, for its freshness, grace, and delicacy make these poems citizens of all countries, like the songs in Shakspere. If, for instance, we had professed to be quoting from Lowell's volume a series of cadences so charming as the following, who could have gainsaid us? Yet it is taken from '*Musica Transalpina*, or the Second Book of Madrigals' (1597):

> "So saith my fair and beautiful Lycoris
> When now and then she talketh
> With me of love;
> 'Love is a sprite that walketh,
> That soars and flies,
> And none alive can hold him
> Nor touch him nor behold him.'
> Yet when her eye she turneth
> I spy where he sojourneth:
> In her eyes there he flies,
> But none can catch him
> Till from her lips he fetch him." (P. 98.)

To evoke out of oblivion the name of a poet so fresh and graceful as George Campion may well repay the utmost labor of a loving editor. Nor does our editor give us airy fancies and lyrics of love alone, but such solemn harmonies as this from the MSS. of Christ Church, Oxford:

> "Victorious Time, whose winged feet do fly
> More swift than eagles in the azure sky,
> Haste to thy prey; why art thou tardy now
> When all things to thy powerful fate do bow?
> O give an end to cares or killing fears,
> Shake thy dull sand, unravel those few years
> Are yet untold, since nought but discontents
> Clouds all our earthly joy with sad laments,
> That when thy nimble hours shall cease to be,
> We may be crown'd with blest eternity."
> (P. 125.)

THE BROTHER OF PRINCE ALBERT.

Aus meinem Leben und aus meiner Zeit. Von Ernst II. Herzog von Sachsen-Coburg-Gotha. Erster Band. Berlin: Wilhelm Hertz. 1887. 8vo, pp. x, 616.

THE author of these recollections calls attention to the remarkable paucity of memoirs in German as compared with their abundance in English, and especially in French. He might have added that this paucity becomes still more remarkable when we consider that in almost every other department of literature the Germans easily surpass the two rival nations. Novels constitute, perhaps, the only other notable exception. If German memoirs are relatively rare, the memoirs of monarchs are rarer still, and the present work thus enjoys a double claim to the attention of readers. This claim is reinforced by intrinsic merits, not the least of which is its agreeable style, as far removed as possible from the heavy, involved, and wearisome construction of sentences that makes the writings of most professional literary Germans forbidding and formidable. The Duke writes, not like a professional writer, but like an educated man of the world.

Although his dominions are small, the Duke of Coburg-Gotha has at various times enjoyed much prominence, partly owing to his ardent convictions and energetic character, partly, also, to his family connections with so many of the thrones of Europe. Prince Albert was his brother; among his first cousins may be mentioned Queen Victoria, King Ferdinand of Portugal, and the Duchess of Nemours, and his uncle, Leopold, was King of the Belgians and son-in-law of George IV. and of Louis Philippe. He says that his original intention was to give his recollections a purely personal character, but that in consequence of his uninterrupted interest in German politics his book has become a continuous narrative of the events of his time. The volume now published, however, owes more of its attractiveness to its revelations of the personal character and career of its author than to its historical portions. The latter, extending only to 1850, treat with almost unnecessary fulness of detail of many events which possess but a moderate interest for the world of to-day, spoiled, so to speak, by the great occurrences of the past quarter of a century, and absorbed in a far different class of problems. But many readers who care little or nothing about the humiliations which the irresolute character of Frederick William IV. brought upon Prussia, or who take but a faint interest in the Spanish marriages which helped to bring about the fall of Louis Philippe, or who quite despair of any attempt to understand the mysterious Schleswig-Holstein question, will take pleasure in studying the amiable qualities of Duke Ernst, as displayed in the course of his narrative.

His touching intimate relations with his brother, Prince Albert, lasting without interruption until the death of the latter, are known to English readers from the publications of Queen Victoria. The difference in their ages was but a little more than a year, and they were educated together. Their home life, although they missed a mother's care, was more affectionate than the conventional conception of a princely household would lead one to expect. The Duke lays great stress on the paternal influence under which they grew up. He says that their father was one of those men who, without any pedagogic maxims, but by the sheer force of character, are fitted to exercise influence on young people.

"I never," continues the author, "heard a harsh word from his mouth, or knew him to do an unbecoming act; we looked upon him as a model of excellence, and, although he never addressed a severe word to us, our respect for him, coupled though it was with affection and attachment, bordered on fear. He was never didactic, seldom praised or blamed, but his personal influence was so great that we took greater pains than if we had been praised or blamed. He was very skilful in arousing ambition and self-respect. His greatest pleasure was in having us about him as much as possible. Unconsciously, and with ease, he trained us to love nature and to comprehend the artistic, but his claims upon our attention, sympathy, and rapidity of apprehension were often too great. He never tolerated carelessness in dress or deportment, and in case of transgression punished only with a look, which, however, was so severe as to produce more effect than a long sermon. He allowed no complaints of personal discomfort, or even pain; we were hardened in every possible way."

In other respects the education of the two brothers varied from what was at that time regarded as the only proper way of training princes. They attended the University of Bonn, although it was not the custom of the sons of reigning houses to study at universities. In accordance with the usual practice, they were prepared for the university under private tutors, their curriculum departing in so far from that of the regular secondary schools as to exclude Greek, and to include natural history, physics, and chemistry—branches which, fifty years ago, were not so extensively cultivated as they are now. Although they did not learn Greek, they mastered Latin so thoroughly as to be able to converse in it and to take part in Latin disputations. French and English they learned, not in childhood, as was and is customary among their peers, but in later years. Their bringing up was liberal also in a religious point of view. The Duke says that both he and his brother took their confirmation very seriously, but adds that when Sir Theodore Martin speaks of Prince Albert's "natural piety," it must have been done to conciliate English prejudices, as the expression could not be truthfully applied to either of the brothers. The liberal opinions and practices of the Coburg princes, indeed, caused them to be, in a measure, "boycotted" among the German rulers, especially after their Uncle Leopold had accepted the crown of Belgium at the hands of a revolution,

King Leopold always took a fatherly interest in his two nephews, and much of the book is occupied with his letters and those of Prince Albert. In 1836 the two young men paid a visit to Brussels, this being the first of several journeys which they undertook together. There they associated with all manner and condition of men, not even excepting the dreaded Carbonari, thereby giving great offence to many of the ruling families in the fatherland. Duke Ernst has a sense of humor and a good scent for any oddity of character, and enlivens his pages with anecdotes of the many royal and other distinguished personages with whom he was brought in contact. Some of these stories he only repeats from hearsay, having heard them from his uncle. One relates to a scene between the latter and King Frederick William III. of Prussia, just before the battle of Leipzig. Prince Leopold, who was then serving in the Russian Army, had been sent to the King to get him to give certain instructions. He waited some time, and as the King did not appear or send out any message, he sent in an urgent request for an answer. Thereupon the King came out in very bad humor, declared that many hours ago he had requested the Emperor Alexander to inform him whether he should appear on the battle-field in the Russian or the Prussian uniform, but had received no reply, and was surprised that Prince Leopold had brought none. When the latter ventured to interpose a modest remonstrance, the King burst out in a rage, "I must know, first of all, what uniform I am to wear, for I shall most assuredly not march without trousers."

Another royal anecdote is in regard to King Louis of Bavaria. In 1840 the Duke, in his capacity as an officer in the Saxon Army, was on a visit to the camp at Nuremberg, and spent a fortnight in intercourse with the royal family. One day, after dinner, the King asked him, "How in the world are you going to kill this evening?" The young man admitted, with some embarrassment, that for want of something better to do he was going to visit the monkey theatre. The King seized the idea with childish glee, and said, "I'll go with you," and, in spite of all protests, insisted on going. After the performance, the burgomaster appeared in the barn in the full panoply of office, and made a patriotic speech of welcome to his beloved King, which was received with great applause. Then the King jumped on a bench and called out in a loud voice, "Is that meant for me or for the monkeys?" Of other royalties there is frequent mention. At a grand dinner which the author attended in England, King William IV. slept nearly the whole evening. Louis Philippe was very sympathetic to the young Prince. He was a perfect master of the German language, even speaking the various dialects. He was a man of strong personal feelings, and carried his feelings into politics. He had a great antipathy to Thiers. The latter was very near-sighted, and, on one occasion, while inspecting paintings at Versailles, knocked his nose against an easel, upon which the King called out to him, amid the laughter of the whole company, "That's what happens to people who poke their noses into everything."

Naturally the revolutions of 1848-49 occupy considerable space in this narrative. The Duke himself and his dominions were not directly much affected by the events of those years. He had voluntarily given his subjects a constitutional government some time before the storm appeared on the horizon, and had a reputation for entertaining liberal and patriotic sentiments. His services as commander of the Thuringian contingent in Schleswig-Holstein had gained him popularity, and overtures were even made to him from revolutionary quarters to put himself at the head of a national movement. His account of the way in which, by a timely display of boldness, he quelled a revolt in the neighboring duchy of Altenburg, shows that if the rulers had possessed a little courage, the Revolution would have made even less headway than it did. On the other hand, if the revolutionists had known how much dread they inspired in the breasts of the rulers, they would have followed up their successes more vigorously.

In the dreary years immediately following the Revolution, the Duke was a warm partisan of Prussia as against Austria, and of the theory that Germany had no hope of unity and greatness except under the leadership of Prussia. This view, although now a commonplace, was then a controversial question, and remained so until 1864, when Bismarck cut the Gordian knot of the Schleswig-Holstein problem. Although only thirty-two years old, the Duke in 1850 brought about the congress of sovereigns and presided over it. Its deliberations came to nought, through the lack of determination on the part of the Prussian ruler, but subsequent events have gone far to vindicate the patriotism and clear-sightedness of the Duke.

Many other interesting topics are treated fully in this volume, such as the Spanish marriages, the Greek question, in fact, all the political complications that agitated Europe from 1830 to 1850. The impression the reader gains of the author is that of an enlightened prince who takes a serious view of his responsibilities, and is animated by a warm affection for his larger fatherland. One is tempted to apply to him the lines which Goethe wrote of the Grand Duke of Saxe-Weimar:

"Klein ist unter den Fürsten Germaniens frellich der meine,
Kurz und schmal ist sein Land, mässig nur was er vermag;
Aber so wende nach innen, so wende nach aussen die Kräfte
Jeder, da wär ein Fest Deutscher mit Deutschen zu sein."

EBERT'S HISTORY OF MEDIÆVAL LITERATURE.

Allgemeine Geschichte der Literatur des Mittelalters im Abendlande. Von Adolf Ebert. Leipzig. 1874–1887. 3 vols., 8vo, pp. xii, 624; viii, 404; viii, 529.

THE history of the Classic Latin during the Middle Ages is one of the most interesting subjects of study, and one almost entirely untouched; histories of Latin literature usually ending with the fall of the Western Empire. Yet what more inspiriting subject of literary study could be found than the mode and extent of the preservation of classic literature during this period, and the influence of individual writers like Virgil, Ovid, and Plautus? Thanks to Comparetti's 'Virgilio nel medio evo,' Bartsch's 'Albrecht von Halberstadt und Ovid im Mittelalter,' and Reinhardstoettner's 'Die klassischen Schriftsteller des Altertums in ihrem Einflusse auf die späteren Litteraturen, I. Bd. Plautus,' we know something about the authors named, but how much remains yet to be done!

The Classic Latin was mainly preserved through tradition (so far as its popular influence was concerned), and for purposes foreign to itself—to train monks to write verse, to supply arguments to combat, etc. After the fall of the Western Empire, however, the literature that flourished until the rise of the national literatures was Latin in form, Christian in spirit, and almost exclusively ecclesiastical in contents. It is on this Christian-Latin literature, itself profoundly influenced by the Classic Latin, that the national literatures exclusively rest; for the elements, German, Oriental, etc., not peculiar to this literature, were obliged to pass through it in order to reach the national literatures. The long duration of this literature, its great volume and varied interest, entitled it to consideration by all students of the modern literatures, but it has been almost entirely neglected by all except those concerned with ecclesiastical history and literature. It is Ebert's glory to have made this field accessible for the first time to all classes of scholars, and to have revealed in a luminous and masterly way its supreme importance and interest as an organic part of European literature.

Those who have had to deal with the Christian-Latin literature of the period of which we are speaking, know how difficult it has been to find a guide through this field. First in order of time are the ecclesiastical biographical dictionaries like Jerome's, which, with additions by various writers in the editions of Miræus and Fabricius, was long a standard work. Then came the similar productions of Cave, Oudin, Du Pin, and Ceillier, in which the historical element gradually increased in importance. What could not be found in these had to be sought in the literary annals of the great monastic orders: Pez and Ziegelbauer for the Benedictines, Quétif and Échard for the Dominicans, Wadding for the Franciscans, Backer for the Jesuits, etc.—works of which it is impossible to speak too highly, but which, besides being scarce, lacked entirely the comparative method.

The magnitude of the task naturally frightened any one from undertaking a history of the whole field; the few attempts in this direction, like Berington's ('The Literary History of the Middle Ages'), being utterly worthless. Indeed, when Ebert began his work, he had but three predecessors worth mentioning, one of them incomplete, and the other two devoted to the Christian-Latin literature of a particular country. We refer to Bähr's 'Die christlichen Dichter und Geschichtschreiber Roms' and 'Die christlich-römische Theologie'; the 'Histoire littéraire de la France,' by the Benedictines (and later by a commission of the Institut de France); and, finally, J. J. Ampère's 'Histoire littéraire de la France avant Charlemagne, sous Charlemagne, et durant les Xe et XIe siècles.' Bähr's work is on the old bibliographical plan, and is now quite antiquated; the Benedictines' 'Histoire littéraire' is a work of very uneven execution; and Ampère's book, while pleasant reading, is somewhat superficial. After all, remarkable as has been the literary productivity of France at all times in her history, and while all branches of Christian-Latin literature were cultivated on her soil, a literary history of France during this period cannot take the place of one of all Europe.

If we have dwelt thus at length on Ebert's predecessors, it has been in order to bring out more clearly the difficulties he had to encounter, and to be able to estimate at its true value his successful performance of a herculean task. Before criticising the results of his labor, it will be well to form a distinct idea of the author's undertaking, for, strangely enough, some critics have entirely failed to see what was the author's goal, although the main title of the work sufficiently declares it. In the preface to the first volume Ebert says distinctly, after defining the Christian-Latin literature of the Middle Ages: "The Christian-Latin literature is here treated, therefore, entirely in regard to the literature of the Middle Ages, and as a part of it. . . . Not as an independent product, nor as an offshoot of the classical literature, but as a forerunner and companion of the national literatures of Europe, is the subject

here treated." And in this consists the originality of the work.

No one was better qualified for his difficult task than was Prof. Ebert, whose profound knowledge of every period of European literature has been attested by a mass of valuable articles and books, and enables him constantly to point out influences which would have escaped another. The general mode of treatment is a compromise between the older biographical method and the modern pragmatic literary history. The authors are treated chronologically one after the other, with an account of their lives and works, and a synthesis of the period to which they belong is given in an introductory essay placed before the divisions of the work. There are inconveniences in this method, and it is to be regretted that the author did not fuse his materials into one narrative. What, however, distinguishes Ebert's history from its predecessors, besides its extraordinary thoroughness and correctness, is an absence of bibliographical baggage, although all necessary references are given, and the completeness with which the works under examination are characterized and analyzed. Too much praise cannot be bestowed upon this feature. Only those who have worked their way with aching brain through the thicket of mediæval theological literature (much of which is entirely uninteresting in itself, but of vital importance for its later influence) can appreciate the endless pains and toil this part of the work must have cost the author. To mention but one example, Augustine's 'Civitas Dei' is analyzed in fourteen pages, in which every point of importance in the twenty-two books is clearly brought out. In other words, Ebert's analyses are sometimes genuine compends of the original, and hence an immense saving to the student.

The reader must not expect to find in Ebert a perfect substitute for the earlier works of Cave, Oudin, Fabricius, etc. It was no part of his plan to give a complete history of Christian-Latin literature in all its branches. His work embraces the practical-moral and ascetic as well as the historical literature, the dogmatic-speculative and polemical only exceptionally. Ebert's original plan was to write a general history of the mediæval literature of Europe. What he has accomplished is the history of Christian-Latin literature from its beginning to Charles the Great (vol. i); the Latin literature from Charles the Great to the death of Charles the Bald, 877 (vol. ii); and the Latin literature from the death of Charles the Bald to the commencement of the eleventh century, together with the beginnings of the national literatures, Anglo-Saxon, German, and French (vol. iii). In other words, he has given the history of that branch of Latin literature, without the classic pale, on which rest the national literatures of Europe, and he has brought his work down to the beginnings of those literatures, except in belated Italy and Spain.

The period which follows is of supreme interest, and no one can be a better guide than Ebert would have been; but it is also true that the means for the study of this period are more plentiful and easier of access, while Ebert has led us through what was a trackless waste. The author has not laid down his pen because he deemed his task accomplished, but because his failing health demanded it. Let us be thankful he was spared to do so much, and not grudge his weary hand its well-earned rest. May his declining years be cheered by a hearty recognition of his monumental work, an honor to his country and a glory to himself; and by the gratitude of the scholars of all lands who shall say, in the affectionate words of Dante—

"Tu duca, tu signore, e tu maestro."

The Orbis Pictus of John Amos Comenius. Syracuse, N. Y.: C. W. Bardeen. 1887.

We welcome this resurrection of the 'Orbis Sensualium Pictus,' which has lain too long in suspended animation. This masterpiece of Comenius, the prince of European educators in the seventeenth century, was the greatest boon ever conferred on the little ones in primary schools. Its author had grasped the idea of object lessons as fully as any modern, and developed it by a picture on every page of his book. Comenius, a Moravian, born in 1592, had no certain dwelling-place, but, by war or persecution, was tossed about all Germany, Poland, Hungary, England, Sweden, and Holland. He was urged by Winthrop to become President of Harvard College. Each change showing him a new significance in words when he came to see the things they denoted, he became impressed with the value of pictorial illustrations, and most of all in our childish plastic era. Hence his book was a natural growth.

It was not, indeed, the earliest picture book. The Egyptian 'Book of the Dead' was equally a picture book. Nor was it even "the first *children's* picture book," according to a phrase which the publisher, quoting from the 'Encyclopædia Britannica,' puts on its title-page. Its first issue in 1657 was more than two centuries after the appearance of the 'Biblia Pauperum.' 'The Bible of the Poor' was a kind of catechism in which children learned to read, and that about things and scenes shown on the same page with the letterpress. The 'Biblia' has 200 pictures, the 'Orbis' only 151, and those in size and artistic merit much inferior to what we see in the 'Biblia.' Where, then, is the merit of Comenius, which gave him a swifter and wider popularity than Webster's Spelling-book achieved for him—and that in many lands and languages? His forte lay largely in two things. His scope was not Biblical, but it ranged through all the common things that lie before every child. The house, shop, trades, sports, birds, beasts, furniture, tools, all things now of most interest in a Kindergarten, are depicted. A blackboard is seen on the school-room wall. In the next place, each change of many-colored life thus brought before the eye, which catches in an instant what the ear cannot learn in an hour, is analyzed. A dozen or more of the salient features on every page are marked each with a number, which leads to its name, as in United States ordnance manuals, and that is noted in the margin in two languages—Latin as well as the vernacular. Thus attention is fixed, interest roused and concentrated on definite points, the scholar becomes an active seeker and not a passive recipient. The result is a minimum of teaching, but a maximum of learning, and children become bilingual unawares. This method of teaching Latin rose again among us in the Hamiltonian or interlinear method.

Mr. Bardeen has applied photography to reproducing the woodcuts of 1657 just as they greeted Comenius himself. They are archaic and refreshingly quaint. It is interesting to compare and contrast them with the plates of the first American edition, published in New York in 1810 from the twelfth London edition. These were modified as respects dress, utensils, etc., to suit the time. The same first edition contains three more chapters than the present. —one being on Botany, and another on the Deluge.

In the Cyclopædia of McClintock and Strong six books by Comenius are described, but his greatest work is not mentioned. His death is there printed as 1631. That date may be a misprint for 1671—which is also an error —and should be 1670. Mr. Bardeen's dates, too, are divided against themselves. His cuts are said to be "copies from the first edition of 1658" (p. iv.), but then the work was "published in 1657," as we are told three times over, pp. vi., vii., ix. The latter date is correct.

Three Kingdoms: a Handbook of the Agassiz Association. By Harlan H. Ballard. New York: Writers' Publishing Co. 1888. 12mo, xii, 167 pp., illustrated.

This little book, which has reached its seventh thousand, was prepared to meet the necessities of that excellent organization so widely known under the name of Agassiz. It has an introduction by Prof. Alpheus Hyatt, in which he points out the benefits received and likely to inure to the community from the efforts of the Agassiz Association, and pleads for a permanent endowment to secure its future prosperity. The contents comprise an historical sketch of the Association, rules for organizing new chapters, plans for work and preservation of material, directions for the profitable study of the different branches of natural history and anthropology, instructions in regard to exchanges and as to making reports of work accomplished, and references to books, in all departments of science, which the student may find useful.

The repeated editions of this handbook called for show that it meets many of the needs of the young student of nature, and, doubtless, on the whole much better than any other existing publication. We wish the Association and its handbook continued development, progress, and improvement. There are a few typographical errors which should be corrected, and one portion, the bibliography, can be, and we hope will be, considerably improved in later editions. The assistance of a trained librarian would be most useful here, and there should be a certain amount of judicious and impartial comment on each item of the list, so as to give to those looking for handbooks in special sciences some idea of what each book contains and for what purposes it is suited. There are references to some books in the list which we cannot regard as suited to the needs of the members of such an organization. Others are objectionable as deficient in quality, or sensational rather than scientific in their contents. We do not doubt that the editor has used every endeavor to obtain titles of useful works, and the result shows, among other things, how very deficient in certain directions is our elementary scientific literature. Astronomy, botany, ornithology are well provided for. The lower invertebrates are much less fortunate.

Nothing partaking of the nature of an advertisement, except it be frankly introduced as such, should be permitted in such a handbook; and in future editions the so-called "Chapter xxi" should be headed "advertising," or in some other way more clearly display to the least suspicious and youngest reader its purely commercial character. We venture on these suggestions in the belief that they will be more helpful to the editor and to the Association than the use of the more considerable space we might have justly filled with praises of the many excellent and useful features of their little book.

Verner's Law in Italy. By R. Seymour Conway. London: Trübner & Co. 1887.

This book deserves mention here for several

reasons. In the first place, we may save from a possible disappointment some book-buyers who expect to find in the work a treatise on Roman or Italian law. In the second place, as the work of an English scholar who rises above the "parlor-philology" of Müller and Sayce, and shows himself familiar with the literature, results, and methods of the most recent investigations in comparative philology, it is a *rara avis in terris*. Thirdly, the book is a most important contribution to the history of the Italic dialects.

Verner is no statesman or law-giver, but a modest Danish philologist, who, in 1875, published in *Kuhn's Zeitschrift* (vol. xxiii) the results of investigations which summarily explained a great residue of so-called "exceptions" to Grimm's law by referring them to the influence of a pro-ethnic system of word-accent. Thus the hitherto inexplicable discord between the *t* of *vater* (Goth. *fadar*) and the *d* of *bruder* (Goth. *brōthar*) was referred to the ancient accentual difference of πατήρ (Sanskr. *pitá*) and φράτωρ (Sanskr. *bhrátā*). On the same principle was explained the apparently arbitrary representation of pro ethnic *s*-, sometimes by *s*, sometimes by *r*. Thus the *r* of *ear* (Lithuan. *ausis*) and the *s* of *nose* (Sanskr. *násā*) both represent a pro-ethnic *s*, but the ancient accent followed in the former case and preceded in the latter. The fact that, in the original inflection of the preterite of strong verbs, the accent was upon the root in the singular, but upon the ending in the plural, explains the difference of consonant in *I was; we were*. German *er war*, like our vulgar "*he wor*," is due to the analogy of the plural.

It is this form of "Verner's law" in its application to the Germanic sibilants that Conway, by a happy inversion of ultramontanism, proclaims as a rule of order for their Italic brethren. It is a well-known phonetic law that *s* between vowels in Latin is changed to *r;* thus: *nefarius* but *nefastus*, *funeris* but *funestus*, *gero* but *gestum*, *virus:* Greek ἰός , etc. Still, a goodly number of exceptions have remained, despite all the juggling and conjuring of the grammarians, as *nasus*, *miser*, *asinus*, *quaeso*, *vasum*, *Caesar*, *casa*, *caseus*, *rosa*, etc. In all these, according to Conway, the *s* has been retained on account of the preceding accent.

In order to explain all the cases of change to *r*, he is obliged to assume that the accentuation of the period when rhotacism took place was not entirely the same as that of the classical age. Here his results lack certainty. A portion of the changes to *r* are also caused by the proximity of the vowels *i* and *u;* thus, while *quaéso*, which is used only in the first singular, preserves its *s*, *quaérit*, *quaérimus*, etc., accept *r* under the phonetic influence of *i*, and *quaerébam*, *quaerémus*, etc., through the shift of accent. The physiological reason for this influence of *i* and *u* is fully established by a course of proof that forms perhaps the most brilliant and universally serviceable feature of the essay.

The author appears to be unconscious that a suggestion of a solution similar to his own was made by Sophus Bugge in vol. xl of the *Rheinisches Museum* (1885), p. 475; and he takes no notice of an article by Wackernagel in vol. xxix of *Kuhn's Zeitschrift* (1887), pp. 127 seqq., which shows a similar though less far-reaching influence of the accent upon sibilants in Greek. The book is full of fruitful suggestions upon a wide range of subjects more or less directly connected with the principal theme.

Mr. Conway is a former scholar of Gonville and Caius College, Cambridge. Is it a mere coincidence that another recent English book, Roberts's 'Introduction to Greek Epigraphy' (1887), which shows a like careful use of latest German sources, though not the same fertility of thought and independence of judgment, should come from a fellow and tutor of the same college?

The Seminary Method of Original Study in the Historical Sciences illustrated from Church History. By Frank Hugh Foster, Professor of Church History in the Theological Seminary at Oberlin. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1888. Pp. xi, 129.

Teachers and advanced historical students will alike welcome Prof. Foster's lucid and suggestive little book. He has set out to do three things: to show that investigation is valuable to any student and practicable in any large college; to lead students into the best methods; and to show the special necessity for "seminary" training in the education of ministers. He has done all three things well. The first question which would be asked by a college president about a new method of instruction is: Does it help men on in the world? And though Prof. Foster does not discuss the bread-and-butter aspect, he does make it plain that the work of investigation pays; that it pays the world at large, through the knowledge opened up; that it pays the student, through an increase of power. The four chapters in which the author describes the seminary method are studded with suggestions; no one who is trying to learn something about history from the sources could fail to find help in them. The distinction between "guide-books," sources, and other men's work is made especially clear. The principal deficiency seems to be a failure to direct students at the beginning of their work to the primary bibliographical helps, such as Vallée's 'Bibliographie des Bibliographies,' Petzholdt, and the indexes to periodicals. In this, as in the two other parts of the volume, the constant illustration by specific examples adds to the value of the book and makes it useful to persons obliged to work without a teacher. The third part, on the application of the method in theological seminaries, has more than a pedagogic importance. The Church cannot hold educated men save by a fearless application of the principles of historical evidence to its own beginnings and doctrines. To train the clergy in investigation means not only that they will be more powerful and better equipped men, but that they will be able to meet the critic upon his own ground.

For the neatness of type and binding, and for the convenient table of contents and index, the author and publishers deserve the thanks of the reading public.

The Life of Amos A. Lawrence. With Extracts from his Diary and Correspondence. By his son, William Lawrence. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1888.

The author of this volume has discharged his filial office well. He has told enough, and with sufficient illustrations from journals and correspondence, to give a clear idea of his father's life and character, and we never, for a moment, wish that he had been less explicit in his details or less expansive in his treatment of particular matters. The proportions and the arrangement of the book are excellent, and the photographic illustrations are an admirable addition to the text. No amount of writing could have given so full and pleasant an idea of the house at "Cottage Farm" as the picture of its smothered cosiness. Mr. Lawrence suggests that the record of his father's work and motives may have an interest and inspiration which some may not find in the biographies of greater men. It may well be so, and we could wish that it might be very widely read by business men, especially by those having a great deal of money. But there is a class who need it even more—the labor reformers, for whom all capitalists are selfish knaves. Mr. Lawrence's methods of generosity and public spirit were not unexampled. There are many such as he in the community, and they are doing more to solve "the labor problem" than the Anti-Poverty Association and all the medicine men, more or less famous or infamous, who have each a panacea for our social ills.

Mr. Lawrence was well-born, being the second son of Amos Lawrence, one of the brothers of whose business energy the city of Lawrence, Mass., is the enduring monument, a man of great probity and simplicity and social earnestness. Young Amos was a good boy—even his Harvard rustication being a precautionary measure—but he was not so extremely virtuous that he could not write to his father: "The morality and general observations of your letters, disconnected from the other matters and printed, would make a very instructive volume." As early as his Senior year he developed for himself a scheme of life to which he was entirely true in after years, with the exception of its literary prospect. He meant to be a rich man with a literary and farming attachment. To wealth and farming he attained, but not to the literary part. He would hold his wealth in trust for others' good, as well as for his own enjoyment, and this he always did. One of his least successful business enterprises resulted from his acquaintance with the Rev. Eleazer Williams, of French Dauphin notoriety. The pretender wanted money on his Western lands, and gradually unloaded all of them on Mr. Lawrence, who, finding them very burdensome, did all he could to improve the intellectual and moral condition of the people living on them.

The chapters relating to Mr. Lawrence's political and anti-slavery action are the most interesting in the book. He was an anti-slavery Whig, much interested in Liberian emigration. The passage of the Kansas-Nebraska Bill was a great shock to the cheerful optimism he had been cherishing. He immediately became the principal coadjutor of Eli Thayer, whose Massachusetts Emigrants' Aid Association conspicuously aided in making Kansas a free State. He was the Treasurer of the Association, and he advanced all the money which its frequent stringency demanded, besides being the principal contributor to the funds. The town of Lawrence was named for him in token of his important aid. He was well acquainted with John Brown, and had great admiration for his character, while doubting the soundness of his judgment more and more as time went on. He headed the subscription which secured to Brown's family the North Elba farm. He had no knowledge of Brown's Virginia plans.

But all this experience did not make him an Abolitionist, nor even a Republican. It was his house that received Sumner after Brooks's attack, but a Fillmore flag hung over it. In 1860 he was the Union-saving Bell and Everett candidate for Governor of Massachusetts. In February, 1861, he went to Washington, with others, to urge the Crittenden Compromise. Failure awaited him, and he went home and—began to drill his friends and neighbors. The war found in him a vigorous champion. He could hardly be deterred from enlistment. He recruited the battalion of cavalry which was commanded by Col. Charles R. Lowell.

The charities that soothed the horrors of the war found him equally earnest, and when the war was over he was one of the prime movers in the building of Harvard Memorial Hall. He was a man of many benefactions, and of a domestic and social life so orderly and beautiful, so full of sweet amenities, that one cannot read the story of his life without a sense of high companionship. His manly independence was, perhaps, his most prominent trait, his connection with the Union-saving meeting after Harper's Ferry notwithstanding—for he was one of those whom Webster had indoctrinated with the idea that the Union was the *sine quâ non* of our political existence.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alexander, S. B. The Veiled Beyond: A Romance of the Adepts. Cassell & Co. 50 cents.
Balfour—Vines—Farlow. Annals of Botany. Vol. I. Nos. 3 and 4. February, 1888. Macmillan & Co. $4.50.
Battles and Leaders of the Civil War. Vol. II. The Century Co.
Blakeslee, Prof. T. M. Academic Trigonometry, Plane and Spherical. Boston: Ginn & Co. 30 cents.
Century Magazine, November, 1887, to April, 1888. Vol. XXXV. The Century Co.
Clark, G. F. History of Temperance in Massachusetts. 1813–1883. Boston: Clark & Carruth.
Collections of the Wisconsin Historical Society. For the Years 1883–85. Vol. X. Madison, Wis.: State Printer.
Cooke, Rose Terry. Poems. Wm. S. Gottsberger.
Digby, K. H. Mores Catholici; or, Ages of Faith. Vol. I. Books I., II., III., and IV. P. O'Shea.
Emerson, P. H. Pictures of East Anglian Life. London: Sampson Low & Co.
Enos, M. A Few Culled Flowerets Scattered in a Tome: Poems. New York: Brentano's.
Epistles of Horace. Book I. Introduction and Notes by E. S. Shuckburgh. Macmillan & Co. 60 cents.
Fawcett, E. A Man's Will: A Novel. Funk & Wagnalls. $1.50.
Fowler, H. N. Thucydides, Book V. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.50.
George Riddle's Readings. Boston: Walter H. Baker & Co. $1.
Gow, J. A Companion to School Classics. Macmillan & Co. $1.75.
Hall, A. D. La Tosca. A Novel. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co. 50 cents.
Hayden, W. B. Our Heavenly Father's Book: A Compilation of Truths and Facts about the Bible. Part II. New Testament. New Church Board of Publication.
Hutson, C. W. The Story of Beryl. Part I. J. B. Alden.
Hutton, Rev. W. H. Simon de Montfort and his Cause, 1251–1266. [English History from Contemporary Writers.] G. P. Putnam's Sons. 75 cents.
Longfellow, H. W. Tales of a Wayside Inn. In 3 Nos. No. III. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 15 cents.
Loti, P. From Lands of Exile. W. S. Gottsberger.
Lunt, E. C. The Present Condition of Economic Science, and the Demand for a Radical Change in its Methods. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 75 cents
Macaulay, Lord. Lays of Ancient Rome. Illustrated. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Miller, Rev. E. A Greek Testament Primer. Macmillan & Co. 90 cents.
Norris, W. E. Chris. Macmillan & Co. 50 cents.
Odyssey of Homer, Book IX. Introduction, Notes, and Appendices by G. M. Edwards. Macmillan & Co. 60 cents.
Pierson, E. De L. A Slave of Circumstances. Belford, Clarke & Co.
Pomeroy, Dr. H. S. The Ethics of Marriage. Note by Thomas Addis Emmet and Introduction by Dr. J. T. Duryea. Funk & Wagnalls. $1.
Ralphdon, H. F. The Age of Cleveland. Frederick A. Stokes & Bro. $1.
Robertet, G. L'Œuvre de A. Thiers: Extraits, notices, &c. Paris; Jouvet & Cie.; Boston: Schoenhof.
Shairp, J. C. Glen Desseray, and Other Poems, Lyrical and Elegiac. Macmillan & Co. $1.75.
Spence—Exell—Neil. Thirty Thousand Thoughts, being Extracts Covering a Comprehensive Circle of Religious and Allied Topics, Gathered from the Best Available Sources, &c. Vol. VI. Funk & Wagnalls. $3.50 per vol.
Spurgeon, Rev. C. H. My Sermon-Notes. A Selection from Outlines of Discourses. Funk & Wagnalls. $1.
Stedman, E. C., and Hutchinson, Ellen M. A Library of American Literature, from the Earliest Settlement to the Present Time. In 10 vols. Vols. I., II., III. Charles L. Webster & Co.
Stein, J. F. German Exercises: Material to Translate into German. Boston: Ginn & Co. 45 cents.
Sterne, S. Constitutional History and Political Development of the United States. 4th revised ed. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.25.
Strongbow's Conquest of Ireland. [English History from Contemporary Writers.] G. P. Putnam's Sons. 75 cents.
Timsol, R. A Pessimist, in Theory and Practice. J. B. Alden. 30 cents.
Traill, H. D. William the Third. Macmillan & Co. 60 cents.
Warman, E. B. Practical Orthoëpy and Critique. Chicago: W. H. Harrison, jr., Publishing Co. $2.
Willard, Frances E. Woman in the Pulpit. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co.
Woodward, L. J. Number Stories. Boston: Ginn & Co.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 24, 1888.

The Week.

NOT since Grant's renomination for a second term has any national party entered a convention so united in support of one candidate as the Democratic party will be when it assembles at St. Louis on June 5. If there be an omen of victory in the much-sought-after act of "presenting a solid front to the enemy," the Democrats will have the benefit of it this year. Not only are they unanimously in favor of their candidate, but they have also gone on the record with equal unanimity in favor of the principles which he represents. Not a single State convention has thus far expressed dissent from his tariff message, and nearly every one has emphatically approved it, thus making it the leading issue in the campaign. The opening utterance of the Ohio Democratic platform gives an inkling of the amount of latent enthusiasm that is likely to be found in the President's personality this year: "We endorse, without qualification, the Administration of President Cleveland. His honesty, integrity, fidelity to principle, and manly courage have endeared him to the American people, and the interests of the country demand his renomination and election." When that was read to the Convention they broke into a perfect tumult of cheers. Similar scenes have been witnessed in every other State convention which has been held. They bear witness, as does the unbroken line of Cleveland delegates, to the fact that the Democratic party has found a leader and a principle, and has something definite to fight for.

On the Republican side the forecast cannot be so clearly made. The most obvious fact in the situation there is, that Mr. Blaine will enter the Chicago Convention, which meets on June 19, with a large proportion of the delegates in favor of his nomination in preference to that of any other candidate. It is not necessary to go into the question of how these delegates have been secured. Many of them possibly owe their selection to shrewd political manœuvring, but it is undoubtedly true that he is the spontaneous first choice of the overwhelming majority of the rank and file of his party. This is especially true of the Eastern and Middle States. In all the New England States, delegates have been chosen who, whatever may be their avowed preferences, are at heart in favor of him. Of the New Jersey delegation there is little doubt that the same thing is true. The New York delegation is nominally uninstructed, but it is understood to have a majority in favor of Mr. Blaine, and to be in the control of Tom Platt, who declares his conviction that Blaine is the inevitable candidate. The delegations from the Western States are divided up among a large number of favorite sons, but, with the exception of the Illinois instruction for Judge Gresham, none of them are under formal directions which will in any way prevent them from giving their votes to Mr. Blaine. It is known that many of these delegates are at heart Blaine men, and are only restrained from supporting his renomination by fears of its inexpediency. As for the Southern delegations, while Senator Sherman has been able to retain enough of his former power in the South to secure the nominal support of many of them, they will go to the Convention a more or less open band of political mercenaries, ready to give their support to the highest bidder. If Mr. Blaine is to be defeated, the Western delegations will have to perform the work.

It seems to be conceded on all hands that the Gresham boom is making steady and rapid progress in the West, and the effects of it are visibly felt in Washington, and even in this city. The open avowal in favor of it which Judge Kelley has given, is significant as showing that the high-tariff Republicans are willing to take some other man than Blaine. The struggle in the National Convention is very likely to be between Blaine and Gresham, and for that reason the *aut Blaine aut nullus* cohort are sharpening their knives to the keenest edge for the Judge. If they are not able to nominate Blaine, they will bend all their strength to accomplish the defeat of Gresham. They have strength enough at present, apparently, to do that, but there are signs of a spirit of wrath in the party which may develop sufficiently by the time the Convention meets to make it less tolerant than it is now of the Blaine manœuvring.

Gen. Black, now Commissioner of the Pension Bureau, is said to be a candidate for nomination for Vice-President at the Democratic Convention, and a "boom" of some sort has been set on foot for this purpose either by himself or some of his friends. We think the public is entitled to ask for more moderation at Gen. Black's hands in matters of this sort. It is not very long since a bill was pushed through Congress giving him a pension of $100 a month—the highest ever bestowed on anybody—on the express ground that he was a complete "physical wreck, incapable of any effort, helpless in both arms," and that "it was only a question of how long he would live." After he got the pension, however, his condition did not prevent his seeking, and obtaining, and administering, with much politics, the office of Commissioner of Pensions, which he now holds. No man drawing a pension of $1,200 a year as a "physical wreck" ought to hold any salaried public office. If Gen. Black is well enough to hold the office, he ought not to draw the pension; if he is ill enough to draw the pension, he ought not to hold the office. We trust that he is not now going to cap the climax of his absurdity by asking for the Vice-Presidency of the United States. The President ought in some way to discourage Gen. Black. He is evidently too little of a wreck either for his own good or that of the public.

The latest batch of vetoes of private pension bills illustrate afresh the evil tendencies of such legislation. One case is that of Mrs. Sally A. Randall of Norwich, Conn. Mr. Randall died in 1873, twenty years after their marriage; he had never served in the army. But this was the woman's second marriage; her first husband was Antipas Tabor, who enlisted in the war of 1812 and died in 1831. No claim is made that he received any injury in the army, or that his death was in the slightest degree related to his military service. His wife was born during his time of enlistment, and her first widowhood had no connection with any incident or condition of health traceable to his service. But Mrs. Randall is now seventy-five years old, in poor health and in needy circumstances. The idea occurred to somebody that the Federal Government might be made to assume her support, on the ground that Mr. Tabor, who died nearly sixty years ago had served in the army seventy-five years ago. "Prominent citizens" were readily induced to sign a petition for the application of a small slice of the surplus to this purpose, and "our member" pushed the bill through Congress. Probably everybody who voted for it would have admitted that it was, as the President says, "a bad precedent," but Mrs. Randall appears to be a worthy woman, and it was much easier to assent to giving her a support from the Treasury at Washington than to refuse the pension and tell the truth about the matter, as the President does in this sentence: "All this certainly commends her case to the kindness and benevolence of the citizens mentioned, and the State of Connecticut ought not to allow her to be in needy circumstances."

It is easier to excuse action which seems like charity to a deserving woman than to have patience with the premium placed upon dishonesty by the passage of such bills as the one granting a pension to William H. Hester. This man claims that while he was in the service in 1869 he encountered a sand-storm, and that the sand blew into his eyes to such a degree as to result in nearly if not quite total blindness. It appears that the House Committee which investigated the case conceded that the claim made by this man to the Pension Bureau was largely supported by perjury and forgery, but they tried to saddle the responsibility upon three rogues and scoundrels who undertook to obtain the pension, and to hold the claimant himself innocent of any complicity in the fraud. The evidence, however, leaves no excuse for so charitable a theory. Hester swore that the sand-storm occurred January 15, 1869, and that his eyes were so cut that he was hardly able to see or get about, and was cared for by Edward

N. Baldwin. But Mr. Baldwin, while admitting that he knew Hester and bunked with him in January, 1869, declares that he never saw any sand-storm and never knew that Hester had bad eyes, or was anything but sound and well at any time, except once when he had eaten too much. Mr. Baldwin was shown an affidavit purporting to be made by him and sustaining Hester's story, which he declared to be false and a forgery. The President declares with pardonable severity that he believes this claim for pension to be "a fraud from beginning to end;" and he adds that "the effrontery with which it has been pushed shows the necessity of a careful examination of these cases."

The debate on the tariff now going on in the House of Representatives is, and ought to be considered, the most interesting we have had since the return to specie payments. It is not often, too, that, as in this case, the subject of a debate in Congress is the very issue on which an approaching Presidential election is to turn. Moreover, the debate has been conducted with great ability on both sides, though we naturally incline to consider the speeches of Mr. Mills, Mr. Wilson, Mr. Fitch, and Mr. Russell much superior to anything produced on the Protectionist side. Would not one expect that under these circumstances the leading New York morning papers would give reports more or less full of the speeches on both sides, or at all events on their own side, respectively? Would it not be good journalism to do so, especially if we take literally all the boasting and romancing about the "function of the newspaper" which one hears from the professors and the editors? There is nothing visionary about this demand either. The London *Times*, as well as other English papers, reports the speeches on both sides, on great occasions, with a fairness which we have never seen reason to question, to the great honor of the journalistic art. But the melancholy truth is, that our public is not permitted to hear anything of what is said in Congress on this most interesting question. It is rare to find in any paper we know of, except the Philadelphia *Ledger*, more than a brief summary of a speech of the member of its own party, or a few lines of burlesque of others. This is literally true of all the speeches thus far delivered in this most important debate, which ought to be doing so much for popular education on the most important question of the day. If it be pleaded that newspapers cannot find room for such reports, the answer is that they would be more important just now than the petty gossip for which abundance of room is always found.

When the Mills bill was reported by the Committee of Ways and Means, a great cry was raised by the producers of pig-iron against the proposed reduction of seventy-two cents per ton on that article. We have before us at the present moment a pamphlet issued by a number of Eastern furnace-owners protesting against this fatal blow at their industry. They show to a dead certainty that pig-iron cannot be produced at a profit east of the Alleghanies if the tariff is reduced to $6 per ton, and that it is only by the most grinding economy that it can be made under the present duty of $6.72 per ton. It is further stated in this pamphlet that a reduction to $6 will check production in the West, since freights by way of the St. Lawrence and the Mississippi Rivers are merely nominal, enabling the British manufacturers to pour their products into the interior of the country almost as readily as on the Atlantic seaboard. While we were musing on this disastrous state of things and contemplating the speedy destruction of a great industry, we were surprised to read in the Philadelphia *Press* that the Thomas Iron Company had reduced its prices of pig-metal $2 per ton in advance of any action of Congress. In other words, the voluntary reduction made by the principal producers east of the Alleghanies is $1.28 greater than the proposed reduction in the Mills bill.

The reason for this reduction is stated by the *Press* in the following words:

"Taking a broad view of the matter, it is believed that these reductions will be of local advantage, as the West and South have for some time been running away with valuable portions of the Eastern iron trade because of their lower prices. As a matter of fact, the dulness has not been so much because of a scarcity of business, but because mills and furnaces could not meet the prices made by their more distant competitors."

What a precious lot of humbugs you are! If this reduction of $2 per ton had been brought about by a tariff bill, you would have rent the air with cries, you would have cut down wages and discharged a lot of workmen, and appealed to heaven to witness the distress that free trade was bringing upon the country; and you would have said that British manufacturers were crushing American industry. But when the same fall in prices is brought about by your effort to undersell the Western and Southern producers, it is all right, nobody is harmed, no workmen are discharged, and American industry continues to be of good cheer.

The decision of the Supreme Court of Michigan that the Local-Option Law of that State is unconstitutional and void because of defective title, is a forcible reminder of the slipshod character of much of our State law-making. The law in question was passed by the Legislature of 1887, and, working in conjunction with the stringent High-Tax Law which Michigan has had for several years, promised to make the State one of the best regulated in the country so far as the liquor traffic is concerned. Nearly half the counties, thirty-five out of eighty-three, had voted against all sales of liquor, so that a large part of the State was virtually enjoying prohibition. The decision undoes all this work until the Legislature meets next year, when in all probability the law will be passed again with a proper title. It is a curious and instructive fact that the two elements of the State's population most rejoiced by the decision are the liquor-dealers and the professional prohibitionists. Both have the same reason, however—that the law was seriously interfering with their business.

For the first time in the history of the country a State is about to elect two United States Senators, each of whom will be given a full six years' term. When the original States first elected Senators, each Legislature chose two men, but the Constitution provided that "immediately after they shall be assembled, in consequence of the first election, they shall be divided, as equally as may be, into three classes," the term of one class expiring in two years, the second in four, and the third in six, so that one-third of the body should be chosen every second year. Thus New York elected Rufus King and Philip Schuyler, but Schuyler fell into the first class, so that his term expired in two years. In like manner, when Colorado came into the Union in 1877, Chaffee dropped into the first class, with only two years to serve, while Teller was allotted to the six years' class. Of course, after the terms for each State have thus been fixed at the outset, each successor to a Senator of any class is chosen for six years. Even if a Legislature meets only once in two years, it can never happen that it will have to choose more than one Senator in the natural course of things (death or resignation excepted), since the term of his colleague will not expire until after the next Legislature has been chosen. Louisiana, however, by the new Constitution adopted in 1879, gave the Legislature a four years' term, and as a result it happens that the body chosen last month must choose not only a Senator for the term beginning in March, 1889, but also one for the term beginning in March, 1891. Mr. Gibson, whose term expires next year, easily secured the caucus nomination for reëlection last week, but there seems likely to be a hard contest over the other seat. The system under which a Legislature chosen in April, 1888, disposes of a Senatorship which does not fall vacant until March, 1891, is not only anomalous, but contrary to the principle of representative institutions, and ought to be changed.

We feel it to be our duty to warn the public against the suggestion made by Col. Elliott F. Shepard, in the columns of his newspaper, that much reading of the *Mail and Express* will impair the value of libraries, if it does not lead to their suppression altogether. Although the Colonel's reproduction of the Scriptures on his editorial page supplies a long-felt public want, it has never been his intention to supersede that volume, or to enter into competition with the Bible Society. But it is his announced purpose to make the *Mail and Express* so complete a repository of learning that the files of that paper will hereafter be more frequently referred to than the standard treatises on "history, geography, biography, politics, finance, trades, arts, medicine, sports, humor, sciences, eloquence." This looks as though the Colonel were about to establish a Trust for the purpose of monopolizing Thought. But we are convinced that the book trade is too important to be crushed out in this ruthless fashion. Col. Shepard

ought to be content with superseding the special periodical literature of the day, the historical magazines, the medical weeklies, the art and engineering journals, and keep off the domain of the book publishers, who really render a valuable service to the social economy.

A correspondent writes to us calling attention to a plan produced by Dr. Garnett at the recent meeting of the American Medical Association in Cincinnati for limiting the annual number of medical graduates. Dr. Garnett, who is President of the Association, proposed in his address the appointment of a committee in each State to attend the sessions of their respective Legislatures "for the purpose of using all honorable means looking to the reduction of the number of medical schools in the United States, and a consequent diminution in the annual number of medical graduates," and procuring the abolition of all medical schools "failing to show a greater number than fifty matriculates annually for three successive years." Our correspondent maintains that this is a manifestation of one of the worst features of trades-unionism on the part of the educated class, and as such expects us to denounce it. We cannot, however, see anything wrong in it. On the contrary, it seems to us highly commendable. Of course the assembled doctors, who received it with "storms of applause," may be actuated simply by a desire to keep down competition in their profession, but, whatever their motive, the public would gain by the carrying out of their scheme. It may be laid down as a rule that there can be no proper medical school where there are no large hospitals. Medicine cannot be taught out of books, and the country is cursed with a swarm of little medical schools which do not attempt to teach it in any other way. If there be any good way of suppressing them, it ought to be done, because untrained doctors are the worst kind of impostors. They ought to be hunted down and extirpated. But we do not ourselves think there is any good foundation for the notion that doctors are opposed to the multiplication of medical colleges because they fear competition. If every little college in the country were abolished to-morrow, the competition supplied by the large colleges would be, for all practical purposes, as great as it is now, but the poor and ignorant would be better protected against quacks and charlatans and ignoramuses.

The liquor question has been brought up in England in a very exasperating shape to the friends of temperance, by a provision in the new County Government Bill which recognizes a vested interest in their licenses on the part of liquor-dealers—that is, gives any dealer a right to compensation if a renewal of his license should be refused for any reason except misconduct. This provision was evidently put in as a sop for the liquor-dealers, or "licensed victuallers," as they are called in England, who are a very powerful body in politics there, as they are here. The whole Liberal party, as well as the temperance people proper, are up in arms against the clause, and the Ministry at first tried to defend it by saying it was based on the legal opinion of their law officers that there was a legal vested right in licenses. This opinion was, however, speedily overthrown, and more recently pronounced utterly unfounded by the Court of Queen's Bench. Sir William Harcourt, in one of the sledge-hammer speeches which he every now and then inflicts on the Tories, and which have sometimes been denounced even by his political friends as "cruel and unusual punishment," said on this subject the other day:

"You have had restrictions of all kinds growing up, and, I am happy to say, growing every year, upon the liquor traffic. You have had Sunday closing in Ireland, in Scotland, and in Wales. You have taken away by Sunday closing one-seventh part of the traffic, and you have given no compensation. You have restricted the hours, which, of course, is a diminution of right, if it be a right, and you have given no compensation. This very question has been tried before the highest tribunal in the United States, in the Supreme Court, and where the traffic has been entirely abolished the courts have determined that no question, no legal or equitable question, of compensation arises at all. [Cheers.] I speak very earnestly to you, gentlemen, upon this subject, which the Liberal party ought to fight boldly to the last. [Cheers.] It involves the question of putting a fine of millions upon millions of money upon those—who, I am happy to think, are growing every day—who wish to put a check upon a traffic which I think people are becoming more and more convinced is injurious to the best interests of the community. [Cheers.]"

There can hardly be a doubt now that the Pope has made a mistake in meddling in the Irish question. The Irish Catholic members of Parliament have, at a meeting in Dublin, united in an answer to his rescript, in which they firmly, but in respectful terms, deny the competency of the Roman Congregation to interfere in the matter at all, refuse to be bound by its utterances on the question of morals, and suggest that it has been deceived as to the facts, and especially the central fact of the Irish case, viz.: that all or nearly all the improvements on the land have been made by the tenants, who have been for a century compelled to pay rent for the use of their own additions to the landlord's property. It is not, however, because he may have been misinformed or ill-informed about the facts that the Pope is at fault. It is because it is impossible for an observer at a distance to get such a clear view of any great popular movement as to be able to pronounce an absolute judgment on its morality—that is, such a judgment as a priest has to give in the confessional. He may form a judgment good enough for a political speech, or review, or newspaper article, but he cannot form a judgment fit to be embodied in a quasi-divine admonition. The plan of campaign is one of those affairs in which each case has to be judged on its merits. There are cases in which it inflicts atrocious wrong; there are others in which no moralist can severely condemn it. The man to make the necessary distinctions in the name of religion, if anybody, is the priest on the spot to whom the campaigners confess their sins. He knows ten times as much about it as any committee of Italian cardinals can possibly know. And then it is a very serious matter for the Papacy to have the Irish, of all people, disputing its authority on a question of morals. They are, except the Tyrolese and Bretons, the only mediæval Catholics left. To quarrel with them, or weaken their allegiance, is like spending in extravagant display the remnants of a handsome patrimony.

From a Rio letter to the Paris *Brésil* we learn the probable outlines of the emancipation measure just passed by the Brazilian Parliament. As they were copied from another paper into Senhor Antonio Prado's organ, without contradiction, they doubtless represent the programme of the new Administration. Emancipation is made universal and immediate, but the enfranchised slaves must labor for three months, to save the impending harvest, at wages fixed by law. Thereafter they will be free to make contracts in accordance with the law of supply and demand. For two years, however, the freedman is confined to the municipal district where he lives, and obliged to engage in some definite occupation. Vagabondage will be punished by imprisonment with forced labor on the public works. The *ingenuos*, a class intermediate between slaves and freemen, are discharged from all further obligatory service, and enter into the full possession of civil rights. There is abundant evidence, from experiments made in every province, that, even without the legal precautions just enumerated, immediate emancipation has no menace for the industry of the country.

The precise whereabouts of Stanley, the explorer, is now a subject of anxious discussion among European newspapers and geographers. Ten months ago he left the last point from which news of him was received, that is, the camp of Yambunga. On the 10th of August, 1887, he wrote to this post, asking that fresh supplies of provisions might be sent him. Since then nothing has been heard of him. Between this point and Wadelai, the first station at which he would strike the territory of Emin Pasha, he had about 600 miles to travel through a swampy, but not impassable country. In Stanley's last letter he fixed August 15 as the date at which he should get into the lake country, where Emin Pasha would have been sure to hear of him; but Emin Pasha wrote on November 2 that he had heard nothing of him. It is unlikely that Stanley has fallen into an ambuscade and been massacred. He has 484 men, what with carriers and soldiers, who are well armed, and he is himself in this sort of warfare an experienced commander. Still another hypothesis has been propounded, namely, that having fully satisfied himself of Emin Pasha's safety and unwillingness to be "rescued," he has turned southward to do some more exploring on his own account, and will come out in the direction of Zanzibar. Everything that is said about him is thus far mere guesswork.

PETER AND PAUL.

Of all the pleasing delusions with which the high tariff is surrounded, not one has rendered half the service in politics rendered by the notion that the more profits the tariff enabled the manufacturer to make, the higher wages he paid his workmen; and that the smaller his profits were, the worse off would his workmen be. This, like some of the stories about the effect of the tariff of 1846 on business, has passed current in nearly every protectionist speech and article for the past twenty-five years, as one of the things which nobody would gainsay. Free-traders might question whether it was worth while or just to maintain a high tariff in order to enable employers to pay high wages, but that a high tariff did enable and even force employers to pay higher wages, it was assumed that no candid person would deny. Tariff reformers might say that taking money from the consumer in order to hand it over to the manufacturer's employee, was robbing Peter to pay Paul, but it was always taken for granted that Paul got the money.

Now one of the great benefits bestowed on the public by the pending debate in Congress, is its having brought out clearly the fact that in the matter of the tariff, as in many other things, the people who rob Peter to pay Paul do not, as a rule, pay Paul at all; they keep the money themselves. They say to Peter when they are rifling his pockets: "Oh, come, now, you have more money than you know what to do with; we must help Paul, so don't make a fuss. Hand over your 47 per cent., and cheer poor Paul's home." Having got it, they simply go outside and divide it among themselves, and when they meet Paul offer him the market rate of wages for a hard day's work, and if he remonstrates tell him that there are now so many Pauls who would like the job on the same terms, that he would be wise not to complain.

In plainer English, American protected manufacturers, no matter how much they were protected from foreign competition, have followed in their dealings with their workmen the immemorial and perfectly fair rule of paying for labor the market rate as determined by supply and demand. We believe there is not the shadow of proof anywhere that wages have had any other relation to profits in America than that which exists in England or any other country, or that any American manufacturer ever paid more for satisfactory labor than he could get other equally satisfactory labor for by advertising, or, in fact, that the tariff has ever been permitted in any part of the country to interfere with the natural and usual effect of competition in keeping wages down.

All this has been brought out with admirable force and effect in the speeches of Mr. Mills, Mr. Wilson, and Mr. Scott. The way the wages argument tumbled to pieces when Mr. Mills touched it with one or two of the commonest facts of daily life, was a striking illustration of what discussion does for a question of this kind. He said:

"It is said a high tariff makes high wages for labor. It is said if we reduce the tariff, wages must be reduced. How is it high tariff makes high wages for labor? How can it be explained? Why, they say, as a matter of course, if you increase the value of the domestic product, the manufacturer is able to pay higher wages. Unquestionably he is; but does he do it? No. Mr. Jay Gould, with his immense income from his railroad property, is able to pay his bootblack $500 a day, but does he do it? Oh no; he pays the market price of the street. He gets his boots blacked and pays his nickel like a little man. [Laughter.] Mr. Vanderbilt, from the income arising from the interest on the immense amount of bonds of the Federal Government he has got, can afford to pay his hostler $10,000 a year. He is able to do it, his bonds enable him to do it; but does he do it? Oh, no; he goes out into the market and employs his labor at the market value, and pays the same price that the humblest citizen in New York does.

"High tariff does not regulate wages. Wages are regulated by demand and supply, and the capacity of the laborer to do the work for which he is employed. If high tariff regulated wages, how is it the wages in the different States of the Union are different, while the tariff is all the same from Maine to California? In every part of the territory of the United States the tariff is the same. How is it the wages are not the same? How is it that wages in the different localities of the different States are different? What is the cause? What is it which disturbs the tariff and prevents it from fixing a high rate of wages all over the country for labor?"

In other words, when the manufacturer, as a rich man, turns round to pay his laborers, he does what all sensible rich men do—pays them exactly what their labor is worth. He does not say one word to Paul about his transactions with Peter. He says to himself that his business with Peter is his own affair; that in dealing with Paul he is bound to extend to Paul whatever consideration Paul gets from everybody else, and no more. When Paul goes to the grocer's to buy flour or sugar, the grocer never says to him that he has just made a lucky turn in stocks or real estate, and is on the whole so well off that he will take 25 per cent. off the flour or the sugar. He exacts the full market price no matter how rich he feels. And the manufacturer likewise thinks and acts about the advantages he has persuaded Congress to give him through the tariff just as Thurber or Park & Tilford would think or act about a lucky venture in stocks or real estate. It is the product of his capacity and pertinacity—the legitimate return of his lobbying in Washington, or of his contribution to the Republican campaign fund. He is not stingy with it, to be sure. He is quite ready to give largely of it to libraries, and fountains, and hospitals, and schools, and colleges, and other philanthropic or charitable objects; but to divide it with Paul, as Paul's rightful share, is something he never thinks of at all. What he gives, he gives, but he only pays what he owes and can be made to pay.

It is not wonderful that in view of these things Peter should be waking up and asking whether it is not time to stop making contributions for Paul's benefit, not one cent of which Paul ever handles or profits by. For, naturally enough, Peter is not consoled by hearing that even if Paul does not get the money, it is spent in a splendid manner, by men like Mr. Carnegie, in founding libraries, or in "new and improved works to develop still further the resources of this great republic." Peter is now inquiring whether he is not himself the best person to display generosity with his own money, and whether, if the resources of this great republic are to be still further developed at his expense, he is not perfectly competent either to handle the funds himself during the process, or lend them for the purpose on approved security. This is one of the questions which the voters will this year be called on to answer, and they will answer it with a fulness of knowledge they have never had before, for the simple reason that Peter and Paul are at last coming together, and comparing notes, and finding out how monstrously they have been imposed upon.

THE SENATE AND THE TREATY.

We have commented on the gravity of the statement made by the majority of the Senate Committee on Foreign Relations, in respect to the fishery dispute, that "it does not seem to the Committee that the existing matters of difficulty are subjects for treaty negotiation." To this statement the signatures of Senators Sherman, Edmunds, Frye, Evarts, and Dolph are appended. It is safe to say that if the Republican party were charged with the responsibilities of the executive branch of the Government, so that their words should practically be the voice of the nation, no such declaration would have been made by them. They would as soon have put their hands in the fire as put them to such a document. It is a declaration of an intention to apply coercion to the greatest naval Power of the world, at a time, too, when we have made no preparation for a conflict even with one of the lesser Powers, and when confessedly we can make no adequate preparation under ten years, if under twenty. If war is not intended, further embroilment certainly is intended, and we all know that embroilment commonly leads to war, and especially embroilment which is chosen in preference to any kind of treaty negotiation. The truth plainly is, that these Senators rely upon the prudence of the executive branch of the Government and the amicable feelings of the two nations to avoid any unhappy consequences resulting from their words. They have constructed a campaign document, and as such their work must be judged.

There is no probability that the people will take more interest in the fishery question this year than they did last year or the year before. Certainly they will not take much interest in the matters of detail which constitute the grounds of the dispute. The only things they will fully comprehend will be the fact that a treaty has been made, and that it has been rejected, not because it was a bad treaty, but because the subject-matter was not one for negotiation at all. Then the reasons why it is not as good a subject for negotiation now as it was in 1783, in 1818, in 1854, and in 1871 will have to be given. More than this, it will be necessary to show in what way continued embroilment with the possibility of war is preferable to any kind of a treaty,

for, as the minority of the Committee tell us, the majority declined to say how the treaty might be made satisfactory, or to offer any amendment looking to that end.

Preliminary to this we must have some justification—some statement of grievances so incurable in the very nature of things that the only escape from them is by successful war. As the minority of the Committee say: "Unless we can clearly state the causes that justify a war for the redress of grievances, or a clear definition of the right we seek to assert or defend, we have no right to subject the country to the perils, or even the apprehensions, of hostilities. It has never been stated by any administration, or diplomatist, or by Congress, that any one case, or that all the cases that have grown out of our disputes with Great Britain about the Treaty of 1818, gave a just ground for retaliation, reprisals, or war." No. The only declarations we have had of that nature have been made on the stump or in the newspapers. No person or body carrying the issues of peace or war in his or their hands has ventured so far.

It appears to us that there are reasons why both parties, and especially the Republican party, should not bring the fishery dispute, as a practical firebrand, into the campaign. If the report of the majority is a good campaign document, its merits will be better appreciated in the abstract than in the concrete. Arrangements have been provided whereby no fisherman need get into difficulties unless he desires to, pending the deliberations of the Senate. But if the treaty is now rejected, we shall probably have seizures and grievances of one kind or another sufficient to distract public attention from the real issues of the campaign. If the tariff question, pure and simple, is the thing which the Republicans have long ardently desired a Presidential battle upon, they ought not to put their success in jeopardy by introducing a question of peace or war with a foreign Power, especially in our present state of unpreparedness. It will not be wise to cater to the dynamite Irish vote at the risk of losing a large share of the moral and religious element of the party. If any excitement grows out of the fishing difficulties, it will necessarily bring into prominence the efforts made by the Administration to avoid them, the means adopted to narrow and minimize them, and the pains taken by the Senate to aggravate and multiply them. It will bring into relief the civilizing tendencies of the one side, and the opposite, we might almost say bullying, proclivities of the other; for we cannot consider in a less favorable light the declaration of the majority that no treaty at all is wanted, and that the subject-matter does not admit of one. By all means let the treaty go over to next winter, so that we may have a campaign exclusively upon home issues and home industry.

THE VICE-PRESIDENCY.

"Such an officer as Vice-President is not wanted," said Hugh Williamson, a delegate from North Carolina, in the convention which framed the Federal Constitution, and this view found no little support in the body. But it was obvious that provision must be made for the immediate transfer of the executive power to some person in case of the death of the President; and as a number of the States had instituted the practice of choosing a Lieutenant-Governor with especial view to such a contingency, the same system was adopted for the nation. To give the Vice-President a position of consequence, as well as the potentiality of the highest power, and to furnish a further excuse for his existence, he was made presiding officer of the Senate, with the right to the casting vote in case of an equal division.

The framers of the Constitution supposed that they had insured the choice of men of the highest ability and character for the Vice-Presidency by the mode of selection adopted. Each State was to choose electors, who were in turn to choose the President and Vice-President. They were to possess unrestricted liberty of choice, and it was expected that they would be a select body of distinguished citizens, "most likely," in the words of the *Federalist*, "to possess the information and discernment requisite to such complicated investigations" as must be made in deciding between the various aspirants to the Presidency. As the person having the second largest number of votes was to be Vice-President, it was supposed that the latter official would always be a man who was held worthy of the highest place by a large proportion of his fellow-citizens.

At first the theory promised to work well in practice. John Adams was as worthy as any man after Washington to be President, and he was therefore properly elected first Vice-President. As a man who was worthy of the Vice-Presidency might well be promoted to the Presidency, the first man to hold the second office was given the highest place upon Washington's withdrawal. A very even division in the first Senate made the presiding officer of the body a real power in legislation, Adams giving as many as twenty casting votes upon questions of vital importance during the first two years of the new Government. But the election of 1796, by which Adams the Federalist became President, and Jefferson the Republican Vice-President, showed that the system of voting for two persons without specifying a choice for President presented such temptations to intrigue, and left so much to accident, that, after the controversy between Jefferson and Burr in 1800, the nation readily made the change by which the electors specify the offices, and not long after the electors lost their independence altogether, and became, as they now are, mere recording machines of the popular vote.

There was no immediate change in the character of the men chosen to the Vice-Presidency. Such leaders in their day as Aaron Burr, George Clinton, Elbridge Gerry, Daniel D. Tompkins, John C. Calhoun, and Martin Van Buren, readily accepted the office, and occasionally one of them made himself a power in legislation, as when Clinton in 1811 negatived the renewal of the charter of the United States Bank. Calhoun, who filled the place during two Presidential terms, was not able thus to impress himself upon the course of legislation, but while he held it he vastly strengthened his equipment as a constitutional statesman. "The station, from its leisure," he said years afterwards, "gave me a good opportunity to study the genius of the prominent measure of the day, called then the American system, by which I profited."

Half-a-century has wrought a great change both in the estimation of the office and in the character of the men usually presented to fill it. During the greater part of that time the dominant party, whichever it might be, had so large a majority in the Senate that the Vice-President was almost never called upon for a vote, and he has thus been reduced to utter insignificance in legislation, insomuch that an occupant of the chair has remarked bitterly that it almost seemed as though a well-trained parrot could take his place. Nothing can be imagined more distasteful to a man who has been a prominent figure in either branch of Congress, than to be suddenly deprived of the power even to open his mouth on the merits of a question in which he may be profoundly interested. William A. Wheeler, the last incumbent who served the full four years, had been a man of much consequence in the House of Representatives, and he chafed constantly under the limitations of his position in the Senate Chamber. So unattractive and even repellent is the place that men who have become familiar with it, like John Sherman and Gen. Hawley for example, declare with perfect honesty their utter unwillingness to accept it; and a party sometimes almost needs to exercise compulsion to secure for it a man who is worthy to fill the higher office to which it may any day prove the stepping-stone.

For this is the unfortunate feature of the matter, that while the Vice-Presidency repels the best men, only the best men ought to have the place, because of its possibilities with reference to the Presidency. Four of the eighteen men elected to the Presidency during our first century have died in office, and Vice-Presidents have occupied the White House for periods of three years and eleven months, two years and eight months, three years and ten months, and three years and five months. In four Presidential terms out of twenty-five the Vice-President has been President nearly the whole period, the chief power during 14 years out of 100 having resided with a man who was not vested with it by the people. According to the law of average, therefore, there must be held to be one chance in six that any man chosen Vice-President will become President, and consequently every man chosen to the second place ought to be worthy of the first.

Unhappily, however, the Vice-President comes to his place almost without a thought of his qualifications for the Presidency. He is the choice in the first instance of a nominating convention, and his selection there is due to considerations of "availability" as a candidate in a campaign. He is hastily picked out to strengthen the ticket in a doubtful State, like Hendricks in 1884; or as the representative of a faction in the Convention which

has failed to get its candidate for President, like Arthur in 1880; or to represent some "element," like Johnson in 1864 as the type of the loyal man in the border States. It is safe to say that no delegate who voted for Johnson in 1864 ever thought of his becoming President, or raised the question whether he was fit to be President; the same thing was equally true in Arthur's case sixteen years later. If either had been suggested in the Convention as a candidate for the highest place, he would not have received a single vote, but each filled it for almost a whole term.

There appears to be no feasible method of changing the character of the office so as to make it more desirable, but it is possible to elevate the standard of the men elected to it. Disagreeable as it may appear to the eager debater, the position is not without its attractions to the thoughtful man, and it would doubtless still be practicable to secure its acceptance by a man of Calhoun's type. The effort certainly should be made by each party. While we may hope to escape assassination, the cases of Harrison and Taylor show that natural causes may cause a vacancy, and the warnings of forty years ago should be heeded, even if one does not fear another Booth or Guiteau. In Mr. Cleveland's case the possibility of sudden breakdown from his excessive application must be kept in mind, while if Mr. Blaine is nominated, there is abundant reason for giving special heed to the second place on the ticket.

The circumstances are peculiarly favorable for securing proper attention to this matter among the Democrats. The certainty of Mr. Cleveland's renomination enables the delegates to devote to the Vice-Presidency the attention which is usually monopolized by the contest over the Presidency. High-mindedness in the choice, and patriotism in the acceptance, will be one of the most valuable political lessons yet given to the country by any party, and a veritable landmark in our emergence from the toils of party.

THE MUTATIONS OF THE INTERNATIONAL COPYRIGHT BILL.

We lately traced the evolution of the "Chace" Copyright Bill to the time of its favorable report to the Senate, by the Committee on Patents, on March 19. It was taken up for consideration by the Senate on Monday, April 23, and the amended text suggested by the Committee was accepted. Two additional alterations were proposed by Senator Chace: (1) to reinsert the word "chromo" (which had inadvertently been omitted) in the paragraph of the bill amending section 4956 of the Revised Statutes; and (2) to amend the bill so as to confine the stipulation, "printed from type set within the limits of the United States," to books and dramatic compositions, and to provide that in the case of "engraved works, photographs, or similar articles, two copies of the same" shall be deposited. Both amendments were agreed to by the Senate, whereupon the Senator, after a lengthy speech, desired to press the bill to a vote. But further changes were promptly proposed by Senators Morrill and Vance. The former, in behalf of the publishers of *Littell's Living Age* and the *Eclectic Magazine*, submitted the following proviso:

"That publishers of newspapers or other periodicals in the United States shall be allowed to copy in those publications any articles which may appear in the newspapers or other periodicals of any foreign country, and for that purpose, and not for sale, shall be allowed to import such newspapers and other periodicals."

This amendment was opposed by Mr. Chace, who, on April 30, announced that he was authorized to withdraw it and substitute another, to the effect "that any publisher of a newspaper or magazine may without such consent [*i. e.*, of the proprietors of periodicals copyrighted in this country] import for his own use, but not for sale, not more than two copies of any newspaper or magazine published in a foreign country;" which substitute was accepted. Senator Vance's proposal was to exclude "newspapers, magazines, and periodicals" from obtaining copyright at all. This exclusion would have applied to American as well as to foreign journals; and, although the proposition was voted down, it must have startled American magazine proprietors to learn how gravely their property was jeopardied; no less than seventeen Senators putting themselves upon record as favoring a legislative enactment which, if carried into effect, would have rendered impossible the continued existence of the leading periodicals now published in the United States.

The "protection" features of the bill offered tempting opportunity for attack to the free-trade party in the Senate, and Senators Call, Vest, and Jones of Arkansas made vigorous protests against the requirement of total manufacture in the United States, and the prohibition of importation. Mr. Vest moved to strike out the words "from type set," leaving the manufacturing clause to read: "printed within the limits of the United States," but, upon being put to a vote, this amendment was rejected. On April 30 Mr. Jones proposed that the entire non-importation clause be omitted, and the vote was taken, but, as no quorum voted, this amendment came up again on May 9, when, less than a quorum again voting, although a call of the Senate indicated that the requisite number of Senators were present, it was withdrawn. On the last day of the discussion upon the bill, Senator Teller asked to have a section added limiting the term of the act to five years, which was not agreed to. No further amendments being proposed, a vote was taken upon the bill as a whole, and it was passed by 34 yeas to 10 nays, 32 Senators not voting.

The important provisions of the act, as passed by the Senate, may be briefly stated to consist of such amendment of the copyright law of the United States as will extend the protection therein guaranteed to literary and artistic property to all such property, without regard to the nationality of its creator or owner, provided certain stipulations are complied with. These are (1) that a printed title of the book or other article, or a description of a work of art, shall be recorded before publication; and (2) that two copies of a literary or artistic publication, or one copy of a photograph of a work of art, shall be deposited. After copyright has thus been secured, it is enacted that, during the term of its existence, the importation into the United States of any book or other article so copyrighted is prohibited, except that not more than two copies at any one time may be imported, provided written consent thereto has been obtained from the proprietor of the copyright, signed in the presence of two witnesses. In order to prevent other importation than is thus allowed, it is made the duty of the officer of record (the Librarian of Congress) to prepare "lists of copyrighted articles," which the Secretary of the Treasury is ordered to print weekly, and distribute to collectors of customs and postmasters, who are instructed to seize and destroy all copies of "such prohibited articles," whenever any attempt is made to bring them into the United States.

But the Librarian of Congress is simply a ministerial officer, not vested with any judicial authority, and he is obliged to record claims of copyright without regard to their legal value. In practice, therefore, many titles are entered, and copies deposited, of works which cannot secure legal protection under our copyright laws. It is reasonable to suppose that this practice will increase under the new act, especially in regard to foreign books. To illustrate: A German publisher will send, as directed in the act, a title-page and two copies of a foreign book which bears a claim of copyright. If accompanied by the proper fee, the title is recorded, and the copies of the book are deposited in the Library of Congress. Or the title-page of one of Walter Scott's novels is sent for record, and copies of the book, printed in the United States, are deposited. In both cases (as this act gives the Librarian of Congress no discretion) the titles of the volumes will be entered in the lists prepared for the use of customs officers and postmasters, whereupon foreign editions of these books at once become "prohibited articles," according to the phraseology of the act. The question then arises, what guarantee has the innocent purchaser who sends to Germany or England for either of these works that his book will not be seized and destroyed at the first American custom-house or post-office?—although in the first case the copyright claimed could not be sustained in our courts because the book was not manufactured in this country, as required by the act; and in the second case there is no legal copyright because the author's works have long since become public property.

As regards the deposit of copies, section 2 of the act requires that such deposit shall take place "not later than the day of the publication thereof in this or any foreign country," this being an alteration of section 4956 of the Revised Statutes, wherein the delivery of the copies is required to be made "within ten days from publication." But section 4959, which also contains a provision that "two complete printed copies of the best edition issued" of a book are to be deposited "within ten days after its publication," is neither repealed nor amended, though it is difficult to see how the two sections are to be made to harmonize. It is distinctly required, as regards a book or dramatic composition, that the copies deposited shall be "printed from type set within the limits of the United States," but no stipulation of this nature is made concerning the copies to be deposited in the case of "engraved works, photographs, or other similar articles," which articles may, therefore, be of foreign manufacture and yet obtain copyright. Are such engravings in that case to be imported only in lots of two copies, each importation accompanied by a written permit from the proprietor authenticated by witnesses? It is left to conjecture whether a musical composition is, or is not, to be considered as a "book," no mention being made in the act of this kind of literature; and while maps and charts may easily be considered as embraced in the designation "engraved works," no provision is discoverable concerning the deposit of copies of chromos. Our pre-

sent statutes relating to copyrights are very inadequate and by no means free from perplexities of interpretation; and it is to be regretted, therefore, that the provisions of the Senate act are such that their interpolation into the old law will increase rather than diminish the difficulties of construction.

CATHOLICISM IN IRELAND.

DUBLIN, May 5, 1888.

THE National ranks in Ireland have sustained a heavy loss in the death, at the comparatively early age of forty-two, of Edmund Dwyer Gray, editor of the *Freeman's Journal*. His father, Doctor, afterwards Sir John Gray, one of O'Connell's many Protestant lieutenants, purchased the paper before daily journals had become the serious undertakings they now are. After the disruption of the Repeal and Forty-eight agitations, Dr. Gray settled down to make the best of a bad business, virtually abandoning the National, but throwing himself vigorously into all subsidiary Irish questions, such as Land Reform, Education, and Church Disestablishment. For years, as the leading combatant of his time, he was perhaps the man best hated by the ascendency party in Ireland, peculiarly hateful as being a Presbyterian and of Presbyterian family, while editor of the chief Catholic paper. He was a man of uncommon and statesmanlike ability, and, if Ireland had had a government of her own, would still more have made his mark. He left an imperishable monument of his capacity and resolution in the splendid Vartry water supply of this city, a project which he successfully carried through against the strongest opposition of the respectable classes, which, since the corporation became really representative of the people, have resented and withstood all extension of its powers. For this achievement Dr. Gray was knighted by a liberal Lord-Lieutenant, the Earl of Carlisle.

Edmund Dwyer Gray had, perhaps, greater and wider capacity than his father. He was clear-sighted and practical. If once he came within the power of the law, it was not that he transgressed any act of Parliament, but that an irascible judge, at a time when party feeling was strung to the highest pitch, took an opportunity of paying off old scores with the *Freeman*, and committed him to several months' imprisonment for contempt of court. To the present movement the *Freeman* accorded but a tardy support. Before the position of Mr. Parnell was assured, Mr. Gray occasionally publicly differed from him; he "tried one fall" with the rising leader, and then became his follower, modifying and moulding the policy of the party as far as possible, in public and in private. Socially, Mr. Gray was charming; he kept open house and helped to elevate and extend national feeling by his hospitalities.

One misfortune of the chasm between Protestant and Catholic here is, that those Protestants who sympathize with and join the National party to any considerable degree, insensibly become more at home among Catholics than among their own coreligionists. It was therefore not unnatural that Mr. Gray should marry a Catholic lady. She was a daughter of Caroline Chisholm, so well known in the early fifties for her philanthropic work in connection with female emigration to Australia. Mrs. Gray is a woman who would adorn any faith. Before long Mr. Gray himself openly joined the Catholic Church, thereby removing the anomaly of the leading Catholic paper of one of the most strongly Catholic countries in the world being edited by a Protestant. Mr. Biggar, Mr. Parnell's principal coadjutor, like Mr. Gray brought up a Presbyterian, went over to Rome about the same time. Of the public men I have known, both would have appeared about the least likely to make this change. Yet the one is, I believe, a sincere son of the Church, the other died in the odor of sanctity. Still I cannot believe that in either case the change was doctrinal: I think it was more national and emotional. Seeing the hateful guise which Irish Protestantism assumes, generally opposing every broad reform tending towards freedom and enlightenment here, the change was, however, natural. I have known many such conversions, but, in looking back, can recollect only two Catholics who have become Protestants. I lately asked an elderly Episcopal clergyman how many such cases he had known; he could think of only one, which proved to be one of the two that I had recalled.

The reason of the strength and attractiveness, so to speak, of Catholicism in Ireland is not far to seek. With you it is intrusive. Ireland is its natural home. Here Protestantism has been intrusive, and not even through free immigration, but by confiscation and at the point of the sword. Your ancestors, at least in New England, crossed the Atlantic expecting to found states upon the sure basis of what was best in Protestantism. There must be something peculiarly exasperating in these anticipations being jeopardized by a mainly ignorant and impoverished foreign immigration. Catholicism has all along been the central undeniable fact in Ireland, to be dealt with as we would, but to be fully accepted. Those who dream of the conversion of the Irish to Protestantism entertain a chimera born of the reports and wishes of those who live by keeping up the delusion. Catholicism, here as elsewhere, will, of course, change in time, as all religious thought changes; but I believe it will never consciously become Protestant. All we can hope for in the elevation of Ireland must come theoretically in alliance with it.

The more increasingly I prize Protestant freedom, and feel the impossibility of my becoming a Catholic, the more I respect and would avoid all appearance of, or actual, interference with Irish Catholicism. It is everything fairest, best, and truest to the Irish people. It is bound up with their ideas of home, nationality, and common suffering. For an Irish Catholic to turn Protestant is like abjuring the better part of his nature, and condoning a system inimical to his race. We are apt to consider Catholicism in its purely ecclesiastical aspect. If we look into Catholic religious shops—at the gaudy plaster statues, the beads, and rosaries, and crucifixes, and other paraphernalia of religion, at the to us sickly or awful publications, such as Father Furness's 'Hell Opened to Christians,' if we turn over the leaves of a strictly Catholic periodical and dip into its to us unreal world of martyrs, saintly ecclesiastics, and immaculate communities, illustrated in a language of unreasoning adulation and complete subjection of the critical faculties—if we dwell upon these alone as Catholicism, we are likely to feel that there is no hope for the people who cling to such supports and modes of thought. But they are no more representative of Catholicism in Ireland than the Salvation Army *War-Cry* is a fair exemplar of Protestantism in its broadest sense. To know what Irish Catholicism really is, we must know the hearts and minds of the Irish people; and the more we do so the more we perceive its strength and to them sustaining force and beauty under all the trials and perplexities of life, and amid all the peculiar trials and perplexities of Irish agitation. We Protestants may wish things otherwise; we may and do consider this an enervating support, whose principles, if adhered to, can never build up men and nations as can Protestantism. But such as it is to them, we are bound to respect it.

The priesthood here could not maintain their influence if their characters were not in the main high. There is scarcely any form of human suffering that is not minimized by the charities conducted by the Catholic religious communities over the length and breadth of the land. They educate the young, raise the fallen, minister to the sick, poor, and insane, tend those afflicted with incurable maladies. The working of these institutions always impresses me with the single-minded and practical devotion with which they are conducted. This applies also to private life. What I see of "spiritual advisers" and parochial clergy convinces me how entirely merited, especially in the cases of unprotected girls in town situations, is the confidence placed in them. In our Protestantism we have nothing to correspond to the help afforded, particularly to the isolated, by constant access to advisers and consolers, to whom every thought may be confided, and whose counsel on any juncture may be sought with the absolute certainty of secrecy.

I know of no other reformatory work so completely and efficiently done as that by the religious orders. I cannot say what results the military precision with which they carry on their labors may have upon the after lives of those they benefit, as compared with the effects of Protestant methods. The extent to which the orders absorb the philanthropic energy of society seems to me to narrow ordinary life. The deep and abiding interest in wide philanthropic efforts imparted to the hearts and daily lives of so many Protestant families cannot be felt where such work is delegated mainly to orders in conventual or other institutions. For the most part, the highest and most spiritual natures among Irish Catholics devote themselves to a celibate life. It was Miss Cobbe, I think, who first pointed out the possible deteriorating effect this may have upon future generations. Interest in world-wide philanthropy, outside the limit of churches, appears to exist in inverse ratio to the power of the churches. Here in Ireland it is greatest among the dissenters, who number some tenth of the population, less among the Episcopalians, who form twelve per cent., least of all among Catholics, who constitute the majority. I can call to mind the names of only two Irish Catholics that took any effective part in the anti-slavery movement. The greater the religious organization, the more the sustainment of its prestige becomes the aim and object of its votaries. A Catholic clergyman who held a cure in the outskirts of Dublin, told me that he was stopped by his superiors in active temperance work because he gave offence to the liquor-sellers in his district, who were the most munificent supporters of local Catholic charities.

In business dealings and with workmen, no difference regarding honesty and reliability is to be remarked between Catholics and Protestants of equal education and opportunities. But Catholic workmen do not seem to me so desirous to rise as Protestants. It is painful the extent to which men in the higher positions, even with Nationalist employers, have to be brought from the north of Ireland or from Great Britain. Nor, I think, have Catholics here with equal openings yet proved themselves on the whole as capable as Protestants of inaugurating and conducting business operations on a large scale. But this may be all due

to the disabilities under which Catholics suffered until lately, and to the centuries' start which Protestants got in every relation of life. Easy and delightful social intercourse between Catholics and Protestants of mature age is always possible, but it is more or less prevented where in families there are young people, with the danger of mixed marriages, and their attendant difficulties regarding the religion of children.

Catholicism is to the Irish light, truth, joy, and freedom; but no less so is their national cause, which their Church may, through sympathy, help to sanctify and guide, but which even it cannot repress. The papal pronunciamiento is now the absorbing subject of interest here. I thought I should the better avoid too hasty conclusions regarding its probable effects, and the better prepare your readers for its consideration, by devoting a letter to Irish Catholicism, to which subject a few remarks on Mr. Gray's life, character, and conversion would naturally lead. D. B.

THE GERMANIZATION OF ALSACE-LORRAINE.

STRASSBURG, May 3, 1888.

FOR the first time in the history of the Imperial Reichstag, an Alsatian delegate, Dr. Petri of Strassburg, declared a few weeks ago that the questions relating to Alsace-Lorraine would be always considered and discussed by him from a German national standpoint only. This declaration, coming as it did from a delegate popular in the annexed territory, was most warmly received by the Government, and has been hailed by the German press as the dawn of a new era for Alsace-Lorraine. Whether a new era is really dawning, it is, perhaps, too soon to say, but the last year has at least been marked by a change in the Government policy towards the Reichsland, and serves to illustrate the political feeling in the provinces and the progress made in the efforts to Germanize them.

In face of the general election of February, 1887, following upon the dissolution of the Reichstag after the rejection of the Army Bill, Prince Hohenlohe, who succeeded the late Gen. Manteuffel in 1884 as Stadthalter of Strassburg, issued a proclamation calling upon all loyal Alsatians to show their patriotism by supporting candidates favorable to the bill. It was, perhaps, not a discreet thing to do, for his answer was an overwhelming defeat of the Government candidates, and the Protest party, at whose head stood Kablé, the Strassburg delegate, seemed stronger than ever. The death of Kablé, however, made a bye-election necessary in July. The hasty candidature of Von Moltke was unsuccessful, and the seat was won by Dr. Petri, who, though a personal friend of Kablé, was not a member of the Protest party, and whose platform was an acceptance of the situation as it is. But the result of the bye-election was for the most part unheeded in Germany, compared with the surprise and disappointment called forth by the general election which preceded it. Something seemed to be wrong with the policy hitherto pursued towards the provinces, and there were outspoken criticisms in the press of the attitude taken by Manteuffel. This blunt soldier had once declared: "I do not ask for any sympathy from the Alsatians; all I want is obedience." Nevertheless, he used every effort to cultivate friendly relations, and carried this so far that in cases of legal disputes between Alsatians and new-comers it was said that the former had the Stadthalter's influence in their favor, whether their cause were right or wrong. In spite of Manteuffel's apparent personal popularity, the German Empire seemed as little popular as ever. During the first years of Prince Hohenlohe's administration everything was much as it had been before. But, following closely upon the discussion of the Army Bill in the Reichstag, affairs in Alsace-Lorraine took a new turn. Stricter measures were enforced, a large number of arrests for treason were made, and it became apparent that the Government expected to try a policy of greater severity. The cases of high treason tried at Leipzig last summer revealed the fact that the disaffection in Alsace was greater than had been imagined, and German public opinion was loud in its approval of rigorous repressive measures.

The Strassburg University came in for a share of the blame. There were complaints that it had failed to perform the task for which it was founded, namely, not only to furnish the means of higher education to Alsace-Lorraine, but also, as an imperial university equipped at enormous expense by the Government, and aided by an annual subsidy of 400,000 marks, to build a centre for national ideas, political as well as academical, in the southwest borders of the empire. These expectations have not yet been fulfilled in the measure anticipated, certainly through no fault of the University, but simply because too much was demanded of it. The rector of 1887 said in a public discourse to the students: "It is our task now to conquer with German ideas this land that we have already conquered with the sword." It was a frank statement of the circumstances, and for such a task fifteen years is far too short a time. It was in the Reichstag debate over the annual appropriation for the University that Dr. Petri made the noteworthy declaration above quoted.

If the past year has seen a change of feeling on the part of old Germany towards the Reichsland, it has also been a year of excitement among the Alsatians themselves. The numerous arrests have made people nervous. New regulations, none of them singly of much importance, have irritated the shopkeepers. During the last winter, for instance, it became necessary for the first time that the quality and price of goods exposed for sale should be designated in marks instead of francs. Dating from February, all new business signs in Strassburg must be in German, though the old French ones may be retained as long as they last. There is no real hardship in this; it is simply an attack upon a certain sentiment. There is no reason why a firm that has called itself for a generation "Müller, Père et Fils" should not call itself "Müller, Vater und Sohn," especially as the Müllers, let us say, very probably speak German, of the Alsatian type, in their family; but it is exactly in little things of this sort that people like to be let alone. The Government is proceeding calmly to enforce its regulations, with the patience and pettiness that are such marked traits of the German character, and with a supreme indifference to local opinion. The German minor official has few friends even among his own countrymen, indeed, not as many as his fidelity ought to bring him, and enough allowance is not made for the exceedingly delicate duties of the officials in a city like Strassburg. The hand of the Government must be everywhere; now limiting the number of hours of instruction in French in a girl's private school, and now breaking up a young men's athletic club because the funds for the development of Alsatian muscle were found to come from the other side of the Vosges. As may be imagined, the young Alsatians who serve in the army are never quartered here, but are usually sent to the eastern frontier of Germany.

The line of division between the "inhabitants" and the "immigrants," to adopt the expressions of the Strassburg *Post*, the leading Government organ of the region, is nowhere to be studied to such advantage as in Strassburg. Metz is a fort in a conquered country, and no one pretends that it is anything else; Mülhausen is in many respects a French manufacturing town; but Strassburg, in spite of the statue of Louis XIV. on the façade of the minster, and the French names of the streets cut into the sandstone of the corner houses, is not a French city, and here is the centre of the characteristic life of the provinces. The physical peculiarities of the Alsatians, and their strongly marked Alemannic dialect, make it impossible to mistake them among the tall men of the north who jostle them on the narrow streets. This difference runs through the whole business and social life of the city. The shops are either "German" or Alsatian; in the latter French is spoken by preference. Alsatian and "German" cafés and beer halls are side by side, and the patrons of one are rarely seen in the other; indeed, the consumption of Munich beer, the favorite beverage of the "immigrant" class, is a test of a man's politics. Of recent years the regular performances in the city theatre have been exclusively in German, but let M. Coquelin come once a year with his Paris company, and everything in the audience is changed—faces, fashions, and tastes. The two elements of the population avoid each other by mutual consent, when this is possible. The growth in social weight of the "immigrant" class tends to give these people a society of their own. Theirs is the new quarter of the city, near the University and the Kaiser's palace; theirs is the consciousness of strength, and theirs is the future.

Recent investigations into the language line of the Reichsland show that though in Lorraine the section where French is the language of the villages runs diagonally across the province, in Alsace, on the other hand, the language line coincides marvellously, except in the extreme south, with the political boundary. The French language as spoken on German soil is ultimately doomed. It must be remembered that it was only after 1840 that real efforts were made to introduce French as the language of the Church and schools in the country districts. Napoleon III. was alive to the political advantages of this effort, and in the decade previous to 1870 the schools were carried on in French to a large extent, though the Church itself was constant in its objections to the religious instruction being given in any other language than the native German. The state of things to-day may be illustrated by the fact that while, shortly after the war, almost every servant-girl coming to Strassburg from the neighboring villages spoke French, having learned it in the village schools, it is now rare to find such a servant with a knowledge of the language, unless there are exceptional circumstances in the case. A few phrases are often picked up for gentility's sake, and it is not at all uncommon to hear "Bon soir" from a servant-girl or a butcher-boy as a cheery morning greeting. In many Alsatian families French is spoken simply because the Government is trying to stamp it out; but a language cannot live long without other nourishment than a spirit of obstinacy.

The real political sentiments of the Alsatians in Strassburg do not often find expression. The people are too wise to talk much, in view of the object-lessons they have been having. There is a large class of irreconcilables, as was of course to be expected. Men who have been

shelled by the Prussians in a siege are not likely to forget it, or to refrain from telling their children about it. Otherwise the fear of arrest keeps them close-mouthed; but these are the men and women who expatriate their sons rather than have them serve in the German Army. The younger generation is more bitter than German politicians once imagined that it would be, though it must be borne in mind that there is an excitement and a sentiment in the cultivation of French sympathies that tend to keep these alive among the younger folk. The majority of the Alsatians, however, seem politically indifferent. If there is in this majority no love for the German Empire, there is equally no love for republican France. The French sentiment in Alsace-Lorraine is, on the whole, rated too high, and nowhere more so than in France itself. The feelings of the Alsatians who emigrated to Nancy or Paris after the war, who have been nursing their wrath to keep it warm, and are prominent in the chauvinistic agitation meetings, must not be taken as representative of all Alsatians now in the Reichsland. What the Alsatians really feel is that they are a distinct people, divided from their neighbors on either side. Dialect, customs, temperament, separate them from their German kinsmen; but in all these respects they are still further away from France. I once asked the nurse of a bright little fellow playing in the public park here if the boy was French or German. She answered, with a puzzled shrug that left no doubt as to her own nationality, "He is—Strassburger." There is the whole political situation in three words.

In the country villages there is a general indifference to politics, just as there might be anywhere else in Germany or France. There are sometimes sharp complaints of the fines imposed by the local police upon the native population for causes that seem to the latter too slight, such as deficient drainage or irregularity in the handling of live stock. It is possible to appeal from these fines, but the wiser villagers do not try it. They grumble among themselves, and the boys are apt to leave for America if they can get away; but, in general, the situation is accepted as inevitable. Most of the peasants do not probably care overmuch what government administers the taxes, provided the taxes do not increase. A year or so ago I talked with an intelligent peasant at Elsasshausen, where the French made their last stand after the battle of Wörth had gone against them. The peasant described how his little barn had been burned by "the Prussians." "But of course you are a good German now," I remarked. "Why not?" was the naïve answer; "they paid me 700 francs damages."

To sum up, one must not imagine that the new era whose advent has been lately announced, arises from any particular change of sentiments in the mass of the people. That mass is slow to move. But it is important to note that there is a group of leading Alsatians who are tired of voting with the Protest party, and who, recognizing that the provinces are irrecoverably united to Germany, have decided to take their political stand accordingly, and to work, in the words of Dr. Petri's platform of last July, "for the welfare of our city, of our province, and of the empire." There may always be students of politics who will doubt the wisdom of Bismarck's annexation of Alsace and Lorraine, but, once annexed, they have been governed with admirable firmness, and with a thoroughness that leaves no doubt of the ultimate issue. Compared with the patience that regulates the studies of a girls' private school and a shopkeeper's sign and a peasant's barnyard, and that can, let it be added, throw a million of the best drilled soldiers in Europe behind the splendid forts of the western frontier, it seems as if the demonstrations of the chauvinists in France, the funereal draping of the statue of Strassburg on the Place de la Concorde at Paris, the songs of Deroulède, and the myth of Boulanger, were but child's play—a play that may, indeed, grow dangerous, but mainly so to the child itself. B. P.

THE PRINCESSE DE LAMBALLE.

PARIS, May 4, 1888.

THE memory of Marie Antoinette will always be associated with the names of Mme. de Lamballe and of Mme. de Polignac, and I have read with interest a volume which M. George Bertin, the editor of the *Revue Retrospective*, has just written on the first of these two favorites of the unfortunate Queen. The Prince de Lamballe was the son of the Duc de Penthièvre, who was called the *bon Duc*, and was universally loved and respected, and of Marie Félicité d'Este. He was married at the age of nineteen to Mlle. de Savoie-Carignan, who was eighteen years old. The marriage was not happy; the young Prince de Lamballe was very dissolute, and his father had hoped to cure him of his many vices by marrying him. Soon after his marriage the Prince de Lamballe became dangerously ill, and he died at Luciennes, near Versailles, at the age of twenty-one.

The Duc de Penthièvre begged the young widow to remain with him, and he became a real father to her. She spent the first part of her widowhood with him at Rambouillet, in company with his daughter, Mlle. de Bourbon. Her sister-in-law was married in 1769 to the Duc de Chartres. In 1770 the Dauphin was married to the Archduchess of Austria, Marie Antoinette, and Mme. de Lamballe, in virtue of her rank, took part in all the festivities of the marriage. The intimacy between her and the young Dauphiness did not, however, begin at once; the Princesse de Lamballe did not often leave the Duc de Penthièvre, who was very fond of her, and to whom she was herself very devoted.

In 1774 the Dauphin became Louis XVI., and Marie Antoinette ascended the throne. She made Mme. de Lamballe one of her companions, and from that moment we see them constantly together. The papers of the time, the 'Journal' of Bachaumont, show them together at the theatre, at the representations of the operas of Gluck, the favorite of the Queen (it was the time of the quarrel of the Gluckists and the Piccinists—as bitter as the present quarrel of the Wagnerians and the anti-Wagnerians). Mme. de Lamballe was one of the chosen friends who were admitted to the Trianon. Marie Antoinette had been educated at Vienna, and, as Dauphiness, the etiquette of the French court had much annoyed her. She had always asked her husband to give her a house where she could live as she pleased. Louis XVI. gave her the Grand and the Petit Trianon; she arranged them both after her own taste. Mercy, the Austrian Ambassador, who kept Maria Theresa informed of all the actions of the young Queen, wrote to her: "The Queen is now occupied with a garden *à l'Anglaise*, which she is making at Trianon; this amusement would be quite innocent if it left any room for serious ideas." Maria Theresa, who was a very severe mother, answers: "I am more and more convinced that I was not mistaken in my estimation of the character, wholly inclined to dissipation, which I have attributed for a long time to my daughter." Mercy speaks of Mme. de Lamballe as the great favorite; he describes her to us thus: "She adds to much sweetness and amiability a most honest character, foreign to intrigue, and without any drawback."

The Duc de Penthièvre presided in 1774 over the States of Brittany, and took with him, on his journey, the Princess, his daughter-in-law. She helped him to smooth many difficulties and to receive the deputations which were sent to him. The Queen, meanwhile, was trying to attach Mme. de Lamballe to herself by some official function; she wished to have her appointed *surintendante*, a post which was much desired by the greatest ladies of the court. This nomination was quite an event. Mercy at times encourages it, and at times he seems uneasy. Marie Antoinette had to triumph over the resistance of the ministers and of the King himself; finally, she writes herself to her mother: "I hope that what my dear mamma will soon learn about Mme. de Lamballe will persuade her that there is nothing to fear from her friendship with my sisters-in-law. She has always had a good reputation, and she has not at all the Italian character. She is established here for life, as well as her brother [the Comte de Villefranche, who had been made by Louis XVI. colonel of a regiment of infantry, and had received from him a pension of 30,000 livres]. I think they feel, both of them, that France is now their country."

Maria Theresa hesitated; she felt instinctively that the French would not like the appointment of a foreigner as *surintendante* of the Queen. This post was of great importance, the *surintendante* being as great a personage as the *camarera mayor* in Spain. She received a salary of 50,000 livres a year, and had besides a great patronage and many material advantages. The great friendship of the Queen and of Mme. de Lamballe excited much jealousy and much comment. "The Queen," writes Bachaumont, "has the greatest affection for the young Princess. It is known that her Majesty often has parties with her at the Petit Trianon, to which she admits no men, and only a few of her ladies. There she allows herself freely all the amiable liberties of her age." The Duc de Chartres and his friends once succeeded in entering this feminine circle, disguising themselves as bears and tigers. A showman introduced them in the garden, and the ferocious animals were soon recognized, and dined with the ladies. The Princess sometimes gave small balls at her own house, which the Queen could attend, and have supper with whomever she liked.

The reign of favorites is short. Mme. de Lamballe soon found a rival in Mme. de Polignac. Her health was bad, she was subject to neuralgia, and was sometimes obliged to leave the court and to go to some watering-place; and sovereigns, as La Bruyère remarks, like assiduity. While Mme. de Lamballe was at Plombières, she was forgotten. The favor of Mme. de Polignac alarmed her, and she tried to destroy her rival, who did not spare her in turn.

When Joseph II., the brother of Marie Antoinette, made his visit to Paris, under the name of Count Falkenstein, he dined once at the Trianon. He told his sister that Mme. de Lamballe had not pleased him. "The Queen," writes Mercy to Maria Theresa, "confessed that she had been mistaken in this favorite, and that she repented having placed her in the post which she occupied." The *surintendante* had soon the mortification of seeing Count Polignac made a duke; her rival had the *tabouret* of a duchess, and became the inseparable com-

panion of the Queen. She continued, however, her service, and we see her mentioned at all the great ceremonies, in all the visits of princes and sovereigns. She was glad to escape from court when she could, and to live with her excellent father-in-law at Eu, at Aumale, at Châteauvillain, at Amboise—the Duc de Penthièvre had many estates, his fortune was immense, and his charity boundless. He was very pious, and liked a retired life; Mme. de Lamballe was happy to forget in his company the difficulties and troubles of the court. Rambouillet was one of the Duc de Penthièvre's houses. Marie Antoinette coveted it, and the King expressed this desire to the Duke. He simply replied: "Your Majesty shall always be obeyed, but will allow me to take away from the place the remains of my ancestors." The coffins were taken out of the vault, and transported from Rambouillet to Dreux; the Duke following the procession all the way on foot. Dreux has ever since remained the burying-place of the Orleans family. Rambouillet became the property of the King, and is now the property of the State.

The States-General opened in May, 1789, and a new life began for Marie Antoinette. Everybody remarked her sad expression on the day of the opening ceremony. She had many enemies; abominable pamphlets had been written and were circulating against her; her most innocent actions had been turned as crimes against her. She was no longer the frivolous young Princess of Trianon, happy to forget for a moment that she was a queen. She was not mistaken in the character of the revolution which was beginning. When the Bastille was taken, Mme. de Lamballe was away, staying with the Duc de Penthièvre. The Comte d'Artois soon afterwards emigrated, the Comtesse d'Artois left for Turin. Mme. de Polignac, who had lived in the intimacy of the Queen, whom she had appointed governess of the children of France in 1782, offered her resignation and abandoned her royal friend.

The news of the events at Versailles on October 5 and 6, and of the forced return of the King and Queen to Paris, reached the Château d'Eu on the 7th of October. Mme. de Lamballe was there with her father-in-law. "O, papa," she said, "what horrible events! I must go at once"; and she left, nor did the old Duke try to prevent her. She took her place near the Queen in the Palace of the Tuileries, and became a witness of the long agony of the monarchy. The King continued his usual life, with an almost incredible calm and serenity. He went out shooting sometimes, and noted the game he had shot, as he had always done; the Queen was more conscious of her danger, and was in great trouble of mind. The diary of Louis XVI. records in the most laconic manner the events of the time. This is its style:

"February 22, Nothing. Hubbub at the Luxembourg.
"February 24, Nothing. Hubbub at the Tuileries.
"February 28, Nothing. Hubbub at Vincennes and at the Tuileries."

This hubbub (*train*), which he noted as nothing, became so loud that he thought of leaving France, in his turn, with his wife and children. The Memoirs of Mme. de Tourzel give us all the details on this project and on the journey to Varennes. We read also in the Memoirs of the Marquis de Clermont-Gallerande: "On the Sunday which preceded the departure of the Queen, Marie Antoinette told Mme. de Lamballe to go for a week to the country, and, taking her hand, said adieu to her with an intonation more tender than usual." Mme. de Lamballe was not informed of the projected flight of the royal family; she went to Aumale as soon as she had heard of it, and, in the hope of joining the Queen, she left, immediately after having embraced the Duc de Penthièvre and her sister-in-law, the Duchess of Orleans, for Boulogne, Dover, Ostend, and Aix-la-Chapelle. When she heard that the royal family had been brought back to Paris, she hesitated for a little while, and suddenly resolved to return to France. She knew well that she was going into the lion's den, for she made her will at Aix-la-Chapelle. Her friends remonstrated in vain. "The Queen desires me," she said; "I must live and die for her." She made the journey in a modest equipage, and when she saw Marie Antoinette again, she was horrified to find that, in a few months, her beautiful hair had turned almost white. When the King and Queen were imprisoned in the Temple, Mme. de Lamballe was not allowed to remain in prison with her mistress; she was sent to another prison, La Force. She was now resigned to everything. One day she was brought before a sham tribunal, and bade to swear hatred to the King, the Queen, and the monarchy. She refused. "I have nothing to answer; to die a little sooner or a little later is indifferent to me. I have made the sacrifice of my life." The President said: "Take her to the Abbaye." This word was the signal of death on that dreadful day of the September massacres. She was taken out, and as soon as she was at the door of La Force she was murdered. Her head was cut off and put on a pike; her body was dragged through the streets by a cord; and the murderers brought their trophies before the windows of the Temple, in the hope that they would be seen by the King and the Queen.

Thus ended this most unfortunate Princess. Facts are, in her case, so eloquent that nothing seems required in her biographer but accuracy and simplicity. M. George Bertin is accurate enough; his book is a compilation of citations and of notes; he has been content to place them in their chronological order, and does not seem to have been preoccupied with the desire to infuse life into his subject, to group his facts around a central figure, or to draw from them any moral lessons.

Correspondence.

THE METHODIST CONFERENCE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The action of the members of the Methodist Conference lately held in New York, in excluding women as lay delegates, is an instructive lesson in the way the world at times moves backwards. There were, it seems, some four quiet, inoffensive "sisters of the Church" present, while the "brethren" numbered, counting the yeas and nays cast, four hundred and twenty-two. These four "sisters" seem in no way to have presented their cause, but left the discussion entirely to the overwhelming majority of men present.

It would be well for the ministers occasionally to review the history of Methodism, and to recall the assistance they received from women in the early stages of their organization; and to remember that Methodism itself was a dissent from the government of the few and a belief in the right of all its members to have a voice in church affairs. It had from the beginning a flexible government; it did a wonderful missionary work with volunteer assistance; it laid its foundations deep and strong in the individual right of every member to preach if he wanted to, or, as it was phrased, if he "had a call." Nor can the Church ever refuse to hold the names of Susanna Wesley, Lady Huntingdon, and Barbara Heck by the side of those of John and Charles Wesley and Whitefield.

Susanna Wesley has been called the mother of Methodism. In the absence of her husband, she read, prayed, and exhorted to the many men and women who came to hear her, explaining that she would not have done so had there been a man capable of taking her place. Her example, and afterwards her sympathy with, and ready assent to, this new method, convinced John Wesley of its value, and thus was added the strong corner-stone of lay preaching.

It is very questionable if Methodism would have succeeded, notwithstanding the character of the Wesleys, had it not been for the generosity of Lady Huntingdon. She gave, it is said, $500,000 for the cause of the Church; she sold all her jewels and erected chapels for the poor; gave up her residences and liveried servants, her equipages; purchased halls, theatres, and dilapidated chapels in London. She was, indeed, "their most important centre of union, and directed the whole Calvinistic movement of Methodism." Her call was not to preach, but to work, which she did for forty years with so much spirit, sense, and generosity that her biographers conclude that it was only a question of sex that prevented her ranking as the equal of John Wesley.

It is a matter of historic interest that women have never figured very conspicuously, with some brilliant exceptions, either in state or in ecclesiastical affairs; and for any church, however new or broad, to include the sex as a factor in its body politic one hundred years ago, was an astonishing event. But this the Methodist Church did, following in this, as in everything else, the guidance of John Wesley. "I think the case rests here," he wrote to one of the women exhorters, "in your having an extraordinary call. St. Paul's ordinary rule was, 'I permit not a woman to speak in the congregation.' Yet in extraordinary cases he made a few exceptions; at Corinth, in particular. . . . The difference between us and the Quakers is manifest in this respect: they flatly deny the rule itself, although it stands clear in the Bible; we allow the rule, only we believe it admits of some exceptions."

Every one will remember, to illustrate further, the character of Dinah in 'Adam Bede.' In the conversation between her and Mr. Irwine, he continues:

"'Your Society sanctions women's preaching, then?'
"'It doesn't forbid them, sir, when they've a clear call to the work, and when their ministry is owned by the conversion of sinners and the strengthening of God's people.'"

But afterwards, when Adam is telling Dinah of his meeting with Arthur Donnithorne, he adds:

"'Ay, and we talked a deal about thee. "I shall turn Methodist some day," he said, "when she preaches out of doors, and go to hear her." And I said: "Nay, sir, you can't do that, for Conference has forbid the women preaching, and she's given it all up, all but talking to the people a bit in their houses."'"

Notwithstanding this limitation, however, the Church has developed strong women as well as strong men within its folds. To limit women to still narrower work may be to deprive it, no matter what Conference may think, of a spiritual power hard to replace. If women would regard this as a species of taxation without representation, and *resent* it, and retire from the membership of every church that permits nothing but membership and work, we prophesy that not a year would

roll around before every office and dignity within its borders would be open alike to women as to men. E. B.

KEOKUK, IA., May 19, 1888.

THE POWER OF THE PRESIDENT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The London *Economist* has an article upon the "American Presidency," of which the substance is in the following sentences:

"The gradual advance in the position of the President to immense power and responsibility has in part escaped the attention of Europe. Every country, even Germany, is now affected by the diplomacy of the United States, and that diplomacy is now in the main guided by the decisions of the President. Nor is his power really less within his own country. Scarcely any man not an autocrat has such direct personal power over his fellow-citizens' fortunes, or can use it with such little responsibility except to his own conscience."

As this seems to be the general idea in Europe, and as its correctness has much to do with judging as to the working of our Government, it is important to consider how far it is well founded. Certainly that was not Gen. Sherman's view when he declined to be a candidate for the Presidency, on the ground that that official has no power, but that "it is Congress which runs this Government." The *Economist* says that the Fisheries Treaty is approved by the President, by the Secretary of State, and the majority of prominent politicians, but that the Senate will postpone the decision till after the election. That seems a very queer illustration of the President's power. It says that the decision of the furious contest over the tariff will be postponed in the same way, as will every measure which greatly interests the people; and "so, we are told, will many large business arrangements, the fate of many railway schemes, of all protected factories, and of much financial business, really hang on the result of the election." Yes, and they will be postponed till the election of 1892, and again to that of 1896. These things show, no doubt, that Congress subordinates everything to party supremacy in the elections, but they do not at all show the power of this or the next President to get any of these questions settled.

"The message on the reduction of the tariff did more for free trade than any single speech from any premier would have done." Did it? That message was most creditable to the President, called forth a wide public response, and tended to identify the Democratic party with tariff reform, and the Republicans with protection, but whether it really affected the details of tariff reform or the action of the committees in the houses, remains to be seen. To those who know the connection of Sir Robert Peel and Mr. Gladstone with the British tariff, such a remark seems astonishing, though the words "single speech" may sufficiently restrict its meaning.

"Even his *obiter dicta* in answer to addresses, remonstrances, or the like, often powerfully affect opinion, and may, on occasion, completely arrest or materially forward enterprises of grave importance." No doubt such utterances raise an immense clatter in the newspapers, and may affect the personal standing of the President with the country, but their weight in the silent and secret deliberations of the committees, or in the action of the houses, is by no means to be measured by the same standard.

Upon our diplomacy depends "a serious question as to Samoa with Germany, the whole question of immigration with the Government of Pekin, the vital question of consular rights with the Sultan of Morocco, and it may next week have to decide whether it shall or shall not produce much financial ruin in Paris, and perhaps help to shake the republic, by its dealing with M. de Lesseps and the Panama Canal." If we consider that by the Constitution the Senate has the entire power of declaring war, and of raising and supporting an army and a navy, and that a two-thirds vote of that body is required before any treaty can be made, the imputation of such importance to the President must excite a smile. A man of the character of Jackson might, indeed, embroil the country in such a way as to render retreat impossible, but with the present promptness of outcry on the part of the press, and the jealousy of Congress in enforcing its control, there is but little danger until the disposition of the country and of Congress is very different from what it is at present. The exposure to Congressional snubbing, not to say impeachment, will be quite sufficient *in terrorem* to any man likely to be elected.

The one great power which the President does possess, and which is the foundation of the European idea as to his position, is that of appointments to and removals from office. But experience has abundantly shown that he does, and must, use that power in complete subservience to his party supporters in Congress. Here, again, he is held to the strictest responsibility to members of Congress, but to little or none as regards the country. So far as civil-service reform has been successful, it tends to deprive the President of the one power which he really has. G. B.

A POLITICAL QUARANTINE.

The steamship *Gaelic* sailed from Yokohama on the 24th of March and reached San Francisco on the 14th of April; there was no sickness of any kind among either crew, saloon passengers, or steerage passengers on the whole voyage. On arriving at San Francisco the saloon passengers were transferred to the steamer *Eastern Oregon* and held there in quarantine.

The steamship *Parthia* sailed from Yokohama three days after the *Gaelic*, came via Vancouver, reaching San Francisco on April 15th; her passengers were also placed in quarantine on the bark *Alden Besse*, although there had been no sickness on her.

The steamship *City of New York* sailed from Yokohama on April 4th, arrived at San Francisco April 22d, having had perfect health on the entire voyage, and her passengers were placed in quarantine.

While the passengers of these three ships were lying in quarantine in San Francisco Harbor, the steamship *Acapulco* arrived in San Francisco, having had smallpox on the voyage, and having put off several cases at a Mexican port. Her saloon passengers were allowed to land; the passengers of the three healthy ships being kept in quarantine.

Immediately on landing, the saloon passengers of the *Gaelic* held an indignation meeting, at which the following resolutions were passed: . . .

Resolved, That the action of the Mayor and Board of Health of the city of San Francisco in thus detaining the saloon passengers of a healthy ship is an outrageous abuse of power, which in no way protects the health of that city, and is apparently liable to be repeated at any time without notice.

Resolved, That we advise all passengers coming from Asia to avoid the port of San Francisco, and in the event of their being obliged to come there, we advise them to be careful about leaving the steamer on which they arrive until they are permitted to land. . . .

SAN FRANCISCO, April 28, 1888.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Will you do the country the favor to give room to the above in your paper? I am sure it is the duty of all to condemn such tyranny as is practised in San Francisco. It is a disgrace to America that such a thing is possible within our borders. Americans can see in it a mere political measure, and from it form their opinion of that section of our country, and the injustice of its course, when it resorts to such means in order to convince the country at large that Chinese immigration is attended with much inconvenience and danger. So far as sensible men in our own country are concerned, I am sure this is true, and the effect is to destroy all sympathy with our countrymen of the Pacific Slope in their crusade against Chinese immigration. But the damage is widespread and real, so far as foreign travellers are concerned. They go home with a contempt for a country where they may fall victims to a *political* and not a *sanitary* quarantine.

There can be no more doubt that this is a political quarantine than was the pretended one in N. Australia, which was admitted on all hands to be aimed solely at Chinese immigration. In fact, the Board of Health, in turning loose the *Acapulco*, which, according to their own showing, had been without smallpox over half a month less time than was the *Gaelic*, gave as a reason that she had not carried Chinese passengers. Is Chinese smallpox more tenacious and do its effects last longer than smallpox from other ports? But that we were not really a source of fear to the San Franciscans was further seen by the loose and inefficient nature of our quarantine. The cargo and mails were soon scattered over the country. Our soiled linen and that of the ship went ashore for washing. Our friends came alongside and we went down, shook hands with, sat beside, and (at least in the case of our ladies) *kissed* them, they returning ashore and we reentering our prison-house—prisoners with hard labor, *i. e.*, we had to work hard to keep down our angry passions under our treatment.

Again, we saw the Chinese inhumanly treated, in the way they were driven like dumb brutes into their crowded quarters, and we *heard* that those on the old hulk *Shenandoah* had already been there seventy days when we got there; we left them there still. It was said that new victims were sent to her, who, as they took the disease, were shipped to the pest-house, which even San Francisco papers pronounce to be a disgrace to the city. If these reports are true—and I fear they are—this hulk is kept as a sort of breeding-place for disease while present bills are pending in Congress. "A SUFFERER."

RAPIDAN, VA., May 11, 1888.

A PATENT-MEDICINE CANDIDATE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: We meet daily in the West people who appear sincerely to believe that Mr. Blaine is the greatest of living men—in all likelihood the greatest the world has ever known. They have what we understand you to have termed the Blaine mania. Not one of them can tell you why he is so "possessed" of the Knight. If you controvert his claim, he immediately goes into a fit, shouts, gyrates, sneers at Cleveland, and abuses the Mugwumps. He will discuss other subjects rationally, but will not endure any trifling with his malady. Is not such a state of mind, in people whose attachment does not spring from personal intimacy, induced by the same methods by which so many people who are physically ill are prepossessed in favor of nostrums? Who could have any faith in the staple drugs legitimate physicians prescribe, after reading and believing all that is advertised so abundantly in behalf of the evangelical and alliterative panaceas for all ills? Mr. Blaine has always seemed to me to be got up upon the fashion of the patent-medicine business. The compound is a secret its victims are not permitted to know. The success of the

business is not affected by the merits or demerits of the medicine, but depends entirely upon the extent and energy of the advertising. The minute examination of his character in 1884, they say, was a spurious analysis got up by the Mugwumps. The advertising has been done more extensively and skilfully since 1884. But why have they worked with an old medicine, when the same means would have made some one now unknown as great and more available?

ANTI-NOSTRUM.

KANSAS, May 12, 1888.

FORESIGHT AND HINDSIGHT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In connection with the abolition of slavery in Brazil, it is interesting to note the following passage from a speech of Lord Macaulay, delivered in 1845:

"Fully admitting, therefore, as I do, that Brazilian slavery is a horrible evil, I yet must say that if I were called upon to declare whether I think the chances of the African race on the whole better in Brazil or in the United States, I should at once answer that they are better in Brazil. I think it not improbable that in eighty or a hundred years the black population of Brazil may be free and happy. I see no reasonable prospect of such a change in the United States."

Even the greatest of historians may not write history in advance without incurring some danger to his fame for philosophical acumen.

W. H. JOHNSON.

GRANVILLE, O., May 19, 1888.

Notes.

A NEW book of short stories by Miss S. O. Jewett, 'The King of Folly Island, and Other People,' is in the press of Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

T. Y. Crowell & Co. publish directly Tolstoi's 'Power and Liberty,' a sequel to 'Napoleon and the Russian Campaign.'

John Wiley & Sons have in preparation a translation of Rosenbusch's 'Microscopical Physiography of Minerals and Rocks,' by Joseph P. Iddings of the U. S. Geological Survey. The first volume is devoted to minerals.

Thomas Whittaker announces 'Christianity in Daily Conduct.'

Ticknor & Co. issue this week 'Along the Shore,' verse, by Rose Hawthorne Lathrop, and 'Olivia Delaplaine,' by Edgar Fawcett.

Mr. W. J. Linton is seeing through the press in London his 'Masters of Wood-Engraving,' a history of the art, with examples reproduced at the original scale in photographic facsimile, the print-room of the British Museum being drawn upon for fine impressions. There will be two editions, a lesser and a greater, of 500 and 100 copies respectively, sold to subscribers only. The larger will take in Dürer's "Triumphal Car of Maximilian."

Scribner & Welford will soon issue, in F. Hueffer's translation, a limited edition of the correspondence between Wagner and Liszt, of which our readers have already had a taste; also, 'Tropical Africa,' by Prof. Drummond, a book of recent travel. Chas. Scribner's Sons have postponed till the fall the publication of the second volume of Thomas Stevenson's 'Around the World on a Bicycle.' Nearer issues are a 'Manual of Christian Evidences,' by Prof. Geo. P. Fisher; 'The Five Talents of Women,' by the author of 'How to be Happy, Though Married'; and, 'The Residuary Legatee,' by "J. S. of Dale."

J. W. Bouton, 706 Broadway, sends us the illustrated catalogue of the Salon of 1888, containing 4,764 entries, in which it is noticeable that sculpture makes a nearly equal division with painting. Perhaps no other statement could so forcibly contrast the state of art in France and in the United States. In our exhibitions the statuary oftenest serves as a mere adornment of the picture galleries. The designs of the year in the Salon appear, from the memoranda here given with varying degrees of elaborateness and fidelity, to be about on the usual level.

Dr. Philip Schaff contributes to the series of the American Historical Association a paper entitled "Church and State in the United States." The circumstances attending the adoption of the constitutional provisions forbidding religious tests as a qualification for office, and prohibiting any establishment of religion, are narrated in detail, and some light is thrown upon the perplexing question how, in spite of these provisions, Christianity can be recognized as the lawful religion of the land. The line has to be somewhat arbitrarily drawn between preaching and practice in order to avoid the sweeping guarantee of the "free exercise" of religion. The more valuable portion of the paper, however, is not covered by the title, being an account of the existing religious laws of the several European states. There is an appendix containing the opinions in the leading cases in our courts which have involved the definition of religious liberty and the status of Christianity. The paper makes the fourth number of the second volume of the publications of this useful society.

Mr. George Faber Clark's 'History of the Temperance Reform in Massachusetts, 1813–1883,' is an unpretentious work executed in an orderly manner, and fills a gap. Something like this should have formed a chapter of the ill-digested 'One Hundred Years of Temperance,' published in 1886. Massachusetts was well in the front of the temperance movement, with the first State society, the first newspaper devoted wholly to the subject, and probably the first legislative committee appointed to consider the repression of intemperance. In Boston, too, was founded the American Temperance Society. Many other organizations, if not instituted in the State, were adopted, and one cannot resist the conviction that there were far too many of them. Of the majority the tale is one of decline and cessation at a date more or less ascertainable. Divisions rent not a few, particularly on the color-line. There is a chapter on rum-riots, and one on "Deacon Giles's Distillery," with others on presentations and welcomes, on conventions, on temperance newspapers, etc.; and there are a few portraits. The publishers are Clarke & Carruth, Boston.

The second number of American *Notes and Queries* (Philadelphia: William S. Walsh) is an improvement upon the first in external appearance, yet remains a very unattractive example of typography. This has too frequently to be remarked in the launching of such enterprises, though the difference between success and non-success may lie in the attention paid to so fundamental a matter.

Much superior in this respect is the *Bibliographer and Reference List* (Buffalo: Moulton, Wenborne & Co.), of which the first number has appeared. This issue is wholly devoted to the History of English and American Literature. Each title of a work cited is followed by a descriptive note. The "Reference List" embraces magazine articles, etc., and works out of print, though we fail to see why the latter should not have been entered in their regular places. Among these is Brewer's 'Reader's Handbook of Allusions, etc.'; but we miss Wheeler's 'Handbook of Allusions,' E. Edwards's 'Words, Facts, and Phrases,' and Percy Smith's 'Glossary of Terms and Phrases'—all kindred works. For slight errors we will point out "Spoffard" under No. 26, and "Adonias" under No. 70. But on the whole, both as regards fulness, accuracy, and judgment, this enterprise seems to make a good start. The next number will give a list of works on the history and science of elocution and oratory.

Mr. William Blades closes in the *Bookworm* for May his papers on the invention of the art of printing, and sums up with a present disposition to believe Holland the birthplace, while the very existence of Coster is questionable, and Gutenberg's claim as the first master of an art perhaps not his own by discovery is unshaken.

As we have had several inquiries for Mr. Lowell's recent address in this city before the Reform Club, we will mention the reprinting of it (in very small type, to be sure) in the Baltimore *Civil-Service Reformer* for May.

The March Bulletin of the New York State Museum of Natural History, just published, has a report on the "Building Stone in the State of New York," by John C. Smock.

The Rev. W. C. Winslow, 525 Beacon Street, Boston, asks for new and renewed subscriptions to the Egypt Exploration Fund, of which he is the Honorary Treasurer for America. It is desired both to promote the excavations in progress, and to provide for the publication of the next memoir, relating to Bubastis.

The general series of "Old South Leaflets," now put forth by D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, deserves to find a place in every school-house library. The United States Constitution, Articles of Confederation, Declaration of Independence, Ordinance of 1787, Washington's Farewell Address and Inaugurals, Magna Charta, Franklin's Plan of Union (1754), Nos. 1 and 2 of the 'Federalist'—such are some of the contents of the dozen politico-historical tracts thus far in view. They are sold at five cents each, or one hundred for three dollars. Their use as adjuncts to the Reader should not be overlooked.

An exhibition of some of Victor Hugo's manuscripts of his writings, together with drawings, original designs, and wood-carvings, also by his own hand, was opened in Paris on May 5 for the benefit of the fund for the statue of the poet. Among the manuscripts is that of 'Les Travailleurs de la mer,' with illustrations by the author himself. Mention is also made of a fireplace and chimney with panels carved and painted by him, as are also various articles of furniture and adornment. It is said that the complete collection of his illustrations for his own works and all his other drawings will be shown. A few of these have been engraved and published, from time to time, and among them Americans may remember the extremely Hugoish one of John Brown's gibbet, so widely reproduced after the execution.

The vacancy in the French Academy caused by the death of Eugène Labiche in January last has been filled by the election of another dramatic writer, M. Henri Meilhac, so well known as the joint author, with M. Ludovic Halévy, already a member of the Academy, of the librettos to Offenbach's "Belle Hélène," "Grande Duchesse," and "La Périchole," and of the plays of "Frou-frou" and "Tricoche et Cacolet," to mention only a few of the best known from a long list going back as far as 1861. There were only two other candidates for the vacant seat—M. Paul Thureau-Dangin, the historian of the Monarchy of July, and M. André Theuriet, the novelist. On the first ballot the votes were quite evenly divided, but on

the second M. Theuriet lost one vote to M. Thureau-Dangin and six others to M. Meilhac, giving him the seventeen necessary to make a majority of the thirty-three members present. Ever since the great success of his last comedy, "Décoré," produced in January, M. Meilhac's entrance into the Academy at no distant date was assured. This election, which took place at the meeting of the Academy held on April 26, increases the number of new members not yet formally received to four, leaving only one vacancy still to be filled, viz., that caused by the death of M. Désiré Nisard, a little more than a month ago.

M. Édouard Rouveyre, the Parisian publisher, has at last issued the third, and perhaps the richest, of his three illustrated volumes on book-binding—'Les Reliures d'Art à la Bibliothèque Nationale' (New York: F. W. Christern). As in the earlier works of MM. Octave Uzanne and L. Derôme, the plates and the letter-press have little or nothing to do with each other. In the present volume the text is from the learned and lively pen of M. Henri Bouchot, author of the pleasant little treatise recently turned into English as 'The Printed Book.' M. Bouchot in fifty pages sketches the origin and development of the fine art of book-binding in France, devoting the second and longer part of his paper to a characterization of the noble sequence of book-lovers of whom France has reason to be proud from Grolier's time to the dark days of 1793, when the 'Dance of Death' came to be the most fitting book. Then by themselves we have eighty plates in some variety of photogravure, by Aron Frères. These are all chosen from the picked books of the National Library. They are arranged in strict chronological sequence, and serve to give a lover of bindings an excellent bird's-eye view, as it were, of the rise of book-binding in France, from its rude and Teutonic beginnings, through its Italian splendor with Grolier and Mazarin, to its showy emptiness under Louis XVI. A few final pages of text contain the descriptions of the original volumes.

The fourth number of the "Petite Bibliothèque Française," published by the Librairie des Bibliophiles (Paris: Jouaust & Sigaux; New York: Duprat & Co.), has recently appeared. This little collection now contains 'Le Paysan,' by Jean Sigaux; 'Mademoiselle Abeille,' by Ferdinand Fabre; 'Une Dot,' by Ernest Legouvé; 'Dans l'Argonne,' by Jules de Glouvet. In point of mechanical execution this is the most beautiful of the various fifty-centime collections now in course of publication.

Among the latest publications of Hachette & Cie. is a collection of papers by the late Academician and philosopher, Caro, in two volumes, called 'Mélanges et Portraits.' Also, another of the little volumes of the "Histoire de France racontée par les contemporains," which M. B. Zeller edits with such practical and scholarly ability, called 'Henri IV. et Biron.' The preceding one, published about a month ago, was 'Henri IV. et Sully' (Boston: Schoenhof).

The third and final volume of the 'Journal des Goncourt' was published by Charpentier about the end of April.

The number of the *Gazette Anecdotique* for April 15 (Paris: Librairie des Bibliophiles; New York: Duprat & Co.) is full of interesting things: reminiscences of M. Felix Pyat and Eugene Sue; of Jules Sandeau and George Sand; of M. Charles Floquet as war reporter of the *Siècle* with Garibaldi in Italy in 1866; unpublished lines, said to be by Victor Hugo, and an extremely clever little poem dated "Guernesey, 188.," of which it is implied that Hugo is also the author. It is called "Petite Tristesse d'Olympio, poème inrime," and each of its lines, in a very lively measure, ends with one of the words that have no rhyme in French, with an unexpected and burlesquely Hugo-ish solemnity which produces an indescribably comic effect.

As the first of a series of "Monuments de la Géographie des Bibliothèques de Belgique," the Institut National de Géographie of Brussels publishes a reproduction of four maps, constituting a representation of the countries of Europe. They were found in a manuscript edition of Jacobus Angelus's Latin edition of Ptolemy, bearing the date of 1485, preserved in the Royal Library at Brussels. This manuscript contains also the twenty-seven Ptolemaic maps. Charles Ruelens, the editor, thinks the four modern ones are copies of a prototype of those made by Nicolaus Donis or (as sometimes called) Nicolas Hahn, for the edition of Angelus's Ptolemy of 1482, which he revised.

In the Introduction to his 'Histoire des Œuvres de Théophile Gautier,' Charles de Lovenjoul takes occasion to rebuke a recent American writer for alleged neglect to acknowledge duly material taken from a previous work of the French author. He says, "Avant de terminer, nous sera-t-il permis d'exprimer le vœu que M. Edgar Evertson Saltus n'use point de ce livre comme il l'a fait de notre Histoire des Œuvres de H. de Balzac, dont il a tiré la plus grande partie d'un volume intitulé *Balzac*, publié en anglais, à Boston, et sous son seul nom, sans aucune indication de la source à laquelle il avait emprunté presque tous ses renseignements bibliographiques?"

—The increased importance of the literary life as a career in this century is admirably illustrated by an excellent paper in the June *Atlantic*, in which the Parisian variety of it is broadly treated. The two great changes are that literature as a pursuit has become commercial and journalistic, and the consequences are far-reaching. In France, men of letters have filled a place in public and social life much greater than in other countries, and the prospects which literary success opened to young men of ambition and talent in Paris have been an object of envy, especially in the middle of the century, when Villemain said, in a passage here quoted: "Literature is a career which leads to everything, but often on the condition that a man abandons it; it is a pathway rather than a goal." At present it leads to fortune, and one need not abandon it if he wishes only for money. The difference between the time when Victor Hugo sold only two or three thousand copies of a book and De Musset only seven or eight hundred, and these days of great editions with corresponding profits, is one that has profound results both in the character of the popular works and of the men who produce them. The literary profession as a body is to be congratulated for its material prosperity, but it is more doubtful whether literature itself has profited. The literary art remains, and men of talent and taste practise it; they even look down upon and ignore the writers of books which have no merit except that of financial success; but literature does not remain unaffected by the mass of reading-matter which is without art, and by the gauge of pecuniary reward. Success, particularly the gross and palpable success of large royalties, must always attract imitation, and in the crowd of young men of active and versatile talents, but undetermined aims and unconfirmed tastes, it must happen the great proportion will go with the tide. It will hardly be maintained that the present literature of France, developed concurrently with financial and journalistic success, is a great one, or will hold any high rank in history; nor is there any better promise for the future discernible. This interesting paper gives many details, and throws light upon the course of the movement which has made the literary career a money-making one; and what is true of France is also more or less true of other countries. No other article in this number is of special interest, except Mr. Parkman's graphic narrative of the fortunes of the family of La Vérendrye, some members of which were the first white men to see the northern chains of the Rocky Mountains. Their story has been recovered from documents now being printed, of which we have here a foretaste. The poetry is the least excellent of the year, Miss Thomas's verses being hopelessly Emersonian; but we shall hope for less of this poetic ventriloquism.

—No. 30 of the Harvard University Library Bibliographical Contributions is a facsimile of Shelley's "Skylark" from a MS. volume in the College Library. Its interest consists in its fixing beyond doubt the reading "unbodied joy" for *em*bodied joy, and in the few corrections made by Shelley, all of which are great improvements. It seems unlikely that this is a first draft. At the end is an editorial note that gives the contents of the volume, which is a thin quarto of poems of 1819 and 1820, some in Shelley's and others in Mrs. Shelley's script. Unfortunately, the note is not of so much use as such a description should be: one cannot identify the poems from such titles as *Song*, *A Dream*, *England*, etc., which might mean any one of several of Shelley's poems. The first line should have been given in such cases. We are made sure, however, that stanza 17 of part iii of "The Sensitive Plant" should be erased, as in Mrs. Shelley's edition; and it is a happy erasure, the stanza being in Shelley's worst style. The date of this poem, also, is fixed as Pisa, March, 1820. The date of "An Exhortation," Pisa, April, 1820, is also valuable. Mrs. Shelley ascribes it to 1819. These dates seem to mean, however, the time of finishing the poems. Two poems, the "Sonnet to the Republic of Benevento" and "Young Parson Richards," are not known to us, at least by these titles. There is enough indicated in this defective note to make it plain that careful examination may be of considerable value to the text of Shelley on minor points. The collation of "The Indian Serenade" is especially to be desired.

—Another useful work, the result of that patient toil for which the Germans are noted, is offered to the classical world: 'Index Thucydideus, ex Bekkeri editione stereotypa, confectus a M. H. N. von Essen' (Berlin: Weidmann). The author tells us that the book owes its origin to the frequent complaints of his old teacher, F. W. Ullrich, that there was no such work to aid students of Thucydides. What Ullrich wanted, and what Von Essen has given us, is an index simply, not a lexicon, for the double reason that no one man's views as to meanings and constructions will always commend themselves to others, and because Bétant has left an excellent lexicon to Thucydides. The Index does for the historian what Frohwein does for the Homeric verb: it undertakes to give every passage in which a word is found, and gives the exact form of inflected words, and not only so, but we have separate groups of references for ἐπί, ἐπὶ, ἐπ', and ἐφ'; for τε, τέ, τ', and θ'; for βούλονται and βουλονταί. What surprises us is that a classification so minute as to the form under which a word presents

itself should totally ignore any distinctions of construction. Under εἰ, for instance, it could not have involved much additional toil to tabulate the references according to mood and tense. So of ἄν. So, too, we have nothing to show the case by which a preposition is accompanied. As Bekker's edition is the basis of the Index, we have no hint that in three places (4, 46, 3; 6, 13, 1; 6, 18, 6) ἄν is the undoubted reading of the MSS., and has been changed to ἐάν by the editors. (Stahl ἐάν, Classen ἄν in these passages. In his *Adnotatio Critica*, Stahl admits that the change has been made against MS. authority in 6, 13 and 6, 18. By what must be an accident, he omits to state that in 4, 46 only one MS. has ἐάν, though he has a note on that very passage.) In his preface, Von Essen notes as *id quod imprimis dolendum*, the fact that Bétant does not handle the particles. He will the more readily excuse us, therefore, for lamenting the deficiency we have pointed out in his own book. At the same time we feel deeply grateful for what he has done, and we mark his book as indispensable to all students of Thucydides.

—A rival to Volapük is in the field. 'Dr. Esperanto's International Tongue. Preface and Complete Method, edited for Englishmen by J. St. Price' (Warsaw, 1888) is a low-priced brochure capable of affording much entertainment. The opening words of the preface are: "The reader will undoubtedly take with mistrust that opuscule in hand, supposing that I am speaking about an irrealizable utopy"; and an unprejudiced hearing is bespoken. "I will not speak here much about the considerable importance for humanity of one *international*, by every one without any condition accepted *tongue*." Translations avail but little in putting us in possession of "outlandish literature." Socrates long ago pointed out to a sceptic the immense superiority the human tongue has over the tongue of animals, in being able to utter articulate speech. Our author ascribes to it even higher honor. "And yet the tongue is the first motor of civilization; thanks only to it, if we uplifted ourselves so high over animals. The difference of the tongue is a cause of antipathy, nay hatred among folks." The different "attempts made for giving to the public an international tongue . . . amounted or to a new system of signs for a short, self-made understanding, or to a natural simplification of the grammar with a change of the words, existing in the living tongues into arbitrarily fabricated ones." The first attempts were unpractical, "and so vanished away." The second were merely "cabinet essays, which are not realizing direct benefits," and "no wonder, if they made utterly fiasco." The popularity of Volapük is recognized, but is declared to be overestimated, for "you cannot—as of course—reckon the sum of sold exemplaries as equal to the sum of adepts, who learned the tongue." Moreover, "The number of enthusiasts, after having risen to a certain quantum, will stop and the indifferent and cold world shall never agree with the idea of taking pains in order to speak with a few, and so again, this attempt, like others, will vanish away." Dr. Esperanto found three main "difficulties to get through," the second of which was: "To set the adept in direct possibility of making use of his science with people of either nationality, no matter if the new tongue is agreed by the whole world, if it has many adepts or not." "Among the projects, emitted to the public at different times, often under the loud . . . name of an 'universal tone,' no one resolved more than *one* of the above-mentioned problems, and that only *partially*." The simplicity of the new method is likely to be against it, for "the greater part of men are inclined to bestow their consideration upon a thing, the more it is enigmatical, broad, and indigestive."

—The inventor's plan for introducing his tongue is a novel one. "Not feeling satisfied with *internationality*, the tongue is aiming to *universality*." "To count upon the aid of the public, it would be the same as to build a house on a wavering, even fantastical foundament; the largest part of the public does not like to aid any one or anything, but they would have all ready at once." "The learning of the international tongue . . . remunerates completely the little pain that must be taken for it. I could hope so, my tongue will be accepted at once by a mass of people. But I wish rather to be prepared for the baddest, than to have too splendid hopes"—and this determination, we doubt not, is wise. The plan is to get 10,000,000 people "to full out" a printed slip promising to learn this tongue "when the number of promises will reach ten millions." Not to fall in line and learn it, "would be then simply stupidity." "The underwriting of that promise does not request the smallest sacrifice of work, and in case of unsuccess of the enterprise, it does not lay any obligation upon the underwritten." "For every undertaking people *can* collect underwriters, but very few people *will* underwrite." "The refusal would not be neglect, but crime." We would fain hope that this would not be regarded as "an impardonable fault," in view of the following weighty reason for not underwriting: "The refusal could only be explained by the fear of birth-, science-, or money-aristocracy of finding their names on the list beside the names of people of inferior social position." But there can be no forgiveness. "Nothing will excuse in the future before society the persons, whose names will not be found in the list of vote. . . . With 'I did not know' no one will be excused," for editors are requested to give wide circulation to the project. We commend the book to any who are in low spirits and need to be cheered up. We have only given crumbs from the feast they will find.

—The indefatigable collector of Sicilian popular literature, Dr. Giuseppe Pitrè of Palermo, has just published the eighteenth volume of his "Biblioteca delle Tradizioni popolari siciliani" (Palermo: Pedone Lauriel), containing 'Fiabe e Leggende.' The *fiabe* correspond to the German *Märchen*, the *leggende* to our religious stories of saints, etc. After Dr. Pitrè's four volumes of similar tales published in 1875, it would seem as if little was left to collect, but the present volume contains 158 new stories or important variants of those already published. Two interesting classes of stories were insufficiently represented in the older collection, legends and fables. This lack is here fully repaired, and several very good stories given. One relates that during the creation of the world the Lord called Peter to him and told him to go and see what the people were doing. He did so, and said: "Master, they are all weeping." The Lord said: "The world isn't right yet." A few days later the Lord sent Peter again to see if the world was right, and the apostle saw that all were laughing. "It isn't right yet," answered the Lord. The next time he saw some weeping and some laughing. Then the Lord said: "Now the world is right." Another story tells us that when the ass was created and named, it was constantly forgetting its name, and running back to the Lord to be told again. At last the Lord, wearied by its stupidity, gave its ears a sharp pull, and cried out: "Ass! Ass! Ass!" That is why the ass has long ears, and why we pull a person's ears to keep him from forgetting a thing. Dr. Pitrè's great undertaking will be completed by four volumes of 'Usages and Customs,' now in press, and a volume of bibliography of popular tales. The present volume, we notice, is dedicated to an American scholar, Prof. Crane.

—The scientific study of the various religious sects in Russia is of comparatively recent date. During the last reign the scope of literature was first enlarged to the necessary extent, and the prohibition directed against the exposition of all the historical epochs and the various phenomena of the life of the people was removed. Ever since that time the history and the present state of sectarianism have furnished themes for zealous study. Thus have arisen extended essays on the historical development, and the creeds of the dissenters (*raskolniki*), their results in practice, and many separate tracts on special points and peculiarities. None of these, however, offer a broad review either of the history or of the present phenomena of sectarianism. This deficiency is to be supplied by the publication of a book entitled 'Raskol-Sektantctvo' ('Sectarianism of the Dissenters'), by A. S. Pugavin, of which one volume has already appeared. This contains a bibliography of "the old belief" and its ramifications, and is the first of four large parts devoted to "materials for the study of the religious and social movement of the Russian people." The second volume is to furnish a classification and the characteristic traits of all sects and divisions of which the "old belief" proper consists, and which have sprung up on the soil of schism. The third will contain a bibliography of mystical sectarianism (the *Khlisti*—the scourgers—the *Skoptsi*, etc.), the rationalists (the *Dukhobortzi*—wrestlers with the spirit—the *Molokane*, the *Shtunditzi*, etc.); and, lastly, the fourth volume will be devoted to the classification and peculiarities of all the mystico-nationalistic sects (heretics).

—The two modes observed in inflecting the verb in the Maya languages of Southern Mexico and Guatemala have been set forth in a lucid manner by Dr. Edward Seler in his German inaugural dissertation delivered before the Faculty of the Leipzig University (1887). The verb in Maya, as in other agglutinative languages, is a mere noun, and the two methods employed in its inflection differ in this respect, that the pronoun is either prefixed or suffixed to the verbal base. Whenever it is prefixed, that pronoun is a possessive pronoun, and the base is a *nomen actionis;* but when it is suffixed, the pronoun is a personal pronoun, hence the verbal base has to be considered as a *nomen agentis* or *actoris*. Both pronominal sets vary considerably among each other, and so do the prefixed pronouns among themselves and according to the various dialects. Placed before vowels, they often sound differently from what they do when standing before consonants. When a verbal base is used transitively, a possessive pronoun is prefixed to it; when a passive signification is intended for this same base, the personal pronoun will be suffixed to it. Chiefly such bases as exist in the form of radical syllables submit to this rule; but others prefer to assume the formative suffixes *-ax*, *-ix*, or *-tah* in the dialect of Maya proper. The tense function is not expressed by real tense forms as in the Aryan languages, but by particles or combinations of such, and this is frequently observed in other languages of the Pacific Coast. The title of the book of Seler (who is now exploring Southern Mexico) is worded: 'Das Konjugationssystem der Maya-Sprachen' (Berlin: Th. Grimm).

WASHBURNE'S RECOLLECTIONS.

Recollections of a Minister to France, 1869-1877. By E. B. Washburne, LL.D. With illustrations. Charles Scribner's Sons. 2 vols.

THE history of Mr. Washburne's mission in Paris during the Franco-German war forms one of the most honorable and instructive chapters in American diplomacy. Rarely have such demands been made upon an American minister, and rarely have demands of this kind been met with such skill and soundness of judgment. Appointed to what in ordinary times is a somewhat ornamental position, as a recognition of long and honorable service in the exacting business of home politics, Mr. Washburne found himself suddenly plunged into the maddest sort of political vortex, around which all the forces of European statecraft were surging tumultuously. That delicate equilibrium, the maintenance of which is the chief care of Continental diplomacy, was for the moment disturbed by a shock such as comes only once or twice in a century. The post of the American Minister happened to be at the point of collision, and circumstances connected him in a peculiar and almost unprecedented manner with both parties to the conflict.

When Mr. Washburne, after his first year of service in Paris, went off to Carlsbad in July, 1870, for a summer's recreation, everything in the diplomatic horizon was serene. Two weeks later came the news of the French declaration of war, and he was again at his legation. Here he remained for the next ten months. During this time Paris, as the final battle-ground of the war, and as the centre of revolutionary movement, was the theatre of events only paralleled by the great drama of 1789-1815. The actors were changed, the order of the scenes was inverted, but the incidents were largely the same: siege, capitulation, the fall of a Napoleonic empire, revolution, mob government, terror—each followed the other, on a miniature scale, perhaps, but with more breathless rapidity. In this succession of crises, the American Minister, remaining steadily at his post, was, if not an active participant, at least much more than a mere spectator, and his delicate and exacting duties were discharged with extraordinary courage, energy, and discretion.

Mr. Washburne found upon his arrival that the North German Confederation, on the point of withdrawing its embassy from Paris, had asked him to take charge of the interests of its subjects. Similar requests soon followed from Saxony, Hesse, and Saxe-Coburg-Gotha. The necessary authority was given by cable from Washington, the consent of the French Government was sought and obtained, and in less than a week after war had been declared, Mr. Washburne found himself the custodian of the German Embassy and its archives, and, what was much more serious and burdensome, the sole protector of German subjects in France. Of these there were estimated to be 50,000 in Paris alone. The news from the frontier served to inflame the bitter animosity with which they were regarded by the Parisians, and the duties of their guardian proved to be no sinecure. He was to stand between them and the mob on the one hand, and between them and the Government on the other.

The Government early found itself obliged to define its position. Notwithstanding the great importance of the question, there is no fixed principle in international law to govern the treatment of enemies found in the country on the outbreak of war. The ancient rule was, that they might be regarded as prisoners of war and their property confiscated, but the harshness of the rule has led to its gradual disuse. The usual course is to permit the enemy's subjects to reside at large in the country and to engage in their ordinary pursuits, subjecting them only to a surveillance strict enough to prevent them from giving information or assistance to their own state; while those who desire it are allowed to return home within a reasonable time, unless, of course, they belong to the enemy's army. This is the most liberal policy that a belligerent can be expected to pursue. A third course is to require the departure of all subjects of the enemy; but this rule, like the first, being harsh in its operation, is only resorted to in cases of military necessity.

In 1870 the question was therefore to a great extent an open one, and the efforts of Mr. Washburne did much to bring about a humane and enlightened settlement of it. The cause of the friendless Germans was espoused as earnestly and as skilfully as if their advocate had been one of themselves. At the beginning of the war the French Government resolved to adopt the second of the courses described. By the proclamation of July 20, German citizens were left at liberty to continue their residence in France, and were to enjoy the protection of the laws as before the war, so long as their conduct gave no cause of complaint. A question arose, however, as to the departure of those who did not wish to stay. The American Minister was at once overwhelmed with applications for permission to return to Germany, and he promptly urged the claims of the applicants upon the Foreign Office.

The Minister of Foreign Affairs, the Duc de Gramont, refused to grant the permission to males within the age of military service, that is, under forty years. In this decision the Government doubtless exercised its strict legal right. It is admitted that a belligerent may detain subjects of the enemy who actually form a part of his armed forces. Of the 100,000 or more Germans in France, a considerable number—enough, certainly, to add materially to the fighting strength of the German Army—were within the prescribed limits. It was evident that many of these were leaving France to take part in the war. Under the laws of their country they would be required to take part as soon as they found themselves within its borders. As far as increasing the numbers which Germany would bring into the field, and the numbers which France would be compelled to fight, it made no difference whether they were already enlisted or about to be enlisted. As the Duc de Gramont clearly put it in his letter to Mr. Washburne, "No rule of international law obliges a belligerent to allow the departure from his territory of enemy's subjects, who, from the day of their return to their own country, will be enrolled in the ranks to take part in hostilities."

Mr. Washburne's rejoinder to the letter of the Foreign Office was a masterpiece of diplomatic correspondence, a model state paper. He did not deny the absolute legality of the Government's decision; on the contrary, he distinctly conceded it. But with a deferential courtesy that disarmed all criticism, and a simple dignity and grace of expression, he pleaded the alien cause which had been committed to him. The embarrassments of his anomalous position disappear in his firm but polished sentences. He could not win his case, but so strongly were the French authorities impressed by his tone and temper that, from this time on, he never failed to obtain a respectful and friendly hearing, and in all cases where it could possibly be done, his applications were granted. In this way it often fell to him to secure that which no other man in Paris could have accomplished.

As the war went on, and it became evident that the army of invasion would penetrate to the heart of the country, the Government reversed its policy, and, on the 12th of August, adopting the third course of action in place of the second, decided on the expulsion of all the Germans in Paris. In view of the probability of a siege, hardly any other action would seem to have been possible. The measure was based partly on considerations of humanity; but, humanity apart, it was fully justified by the necessities of the situation. The removal began about the middle of August and terminated on the 3d of September, at which latter date the great body of Germans had received passports and been despatched to the frontier. All this was placed in Mr. Washburne's hands. The labor it entailed was enormous. Many of the cases presented required a hurried examination—there was no time for more than this—and arrangements for transportation were to be made with the railway companies. The setting-out of the parties at the railway station was superintended by a representative of the Legation, sometimes by the Minister himself. Untiring and in most cases successful efforts were made to secure the liberation of Germans arrested or detained by the police on suspicion, and the protection of the flag was given to those threatened with lawless violence. Through Mr. Washburne's earnest representations, the order for departure was modified, relieving the process of much unnecessary hardship. By an arrangement with the Government, the Legation was allowed to take entire charge of the removal, its visa on passports even being accepted in place of that of the police authorities; and, upon its application, permits to remain in Paris were granted by the Prefect of Police. The North German Government placed 50,000 thalers at Mr. Washburne's disposal to provide the expenses of removal, and to relieve the wants of the destitute, leaving the details of expenditure to his individual discretion. The apportionment of this fund was not among the least of his burdens and responsibilities. The extent of the work done by the United States Legation may be judged by the fact that by the 3d of September it had prepared, signed, and distributed 30,000 safe-conducts to the departing Germans, and had supplied 8,000 with railway tickets to the frontier, many of whom also received small amounts of money; while of those who remained during the siege, it provided in the closing month over 2,000 with the means of daily subsistence.

The fact that the American Minister occupied a close relation to each of the contending parties, and was equally trusted by both, pointed naturally to him as the most available intermediary, and led him into a direct and exceptional connection with their negotiations. It was an odd freak of destiny by which the veteran Illinois politician thus became a medium between Bismarck and Jules Favre—between the avengers of Jena and the men of the 4th of September. It was an even stranger train of circumstances that made him later the intercessor for the Archbishop of Paris with Raoul Rigault, and the instrument of securing the release of the imprisoned nuns of Picpus. Indeed, one is rather surprised to find that in that singular international episode, the rescue of the Empress Eugénie, which was begun by the Chevalier Nigra, continued by Dr. Evans, and completed by Sir John Burgoyne, the ubiquitous Minister had no part. He was, however, the means of saving the statue of the Prince Imperial from destruction in the Tuileries—a service for which the fugitive Empress sent

him a pretty note of thanks. The extraordinary fact throughout is, that in the successive upheavals of social and political forces that were taking place around him, Mr. Washburne should have continued, as he did, to command the unbounded confidence of all parties alike, so that each vied with the other in asking his services, and in acceding to his requests—Germans and Frenchmen, clericals and communards, Imperialists and Republicans. Pursuing calmly the even tenor of his way, his services to one side, whichever it might be, never cost him the friendship of the other. His legation was besieged alternately by multitudes of Germans whom he was passing to the frontier, and by deputations of Parisians thanking him for his prompt recognition of the Republic. Through him the protests of Count Bismarck in reference to alleged violations of the laws of war were transmitted to the Government of National Defence. During the siege he was the only man who received news from the outside world; and when Versailles and Paris became hostile French camps, the *laissez-passer* of Marshal Macmahon, and that of Rigault, both of which he held, enabled him to circulate freely in the lines of both armies.

Mr. Washburne's labors in behalf of foreign subjects did not lead him to forget the interests of his country or his countrymen. Great numbers of the latter had departed in haste, leaving their apartments, with all that they contained, to his protection. A proposition to quarter the Garde Mobile in the vacant apartments was checked by an order from Gambetta, issued at the instance of the envoy. Later, he induced Jules Favre to suspend the enforcement of a tax upon the dwellings of absentees decreed by the city of Paris. It was next proposed to use the apartments for the inhabitants of the surrounding villages who had taken refuge in Paris, then for those rendered houseless by the bombardment, and finally for the troops again. In obstructing all these attempts, Mr. Washburne's vigorous protests were successful, and the apartments were spared. He even found it necessary, notwithstanding his championship of distressed Germans, to cross swords on one or two occasions with Bismarck, and he stood his ground manfully in defence of his diplomatic rights, against the imperious Chancellor. The principal controversy arose in reference to the passage of diplomatic despatches to and from Paris, past the military lines of the besiegers. It was a serious question, involving the broad principle of the right of a neutral envoy to uninterrupted communication with his Government. At the beginning of the siege, Count Bismarck refused to allow the passage of the despatches of the diplomatic corps, except upon the condition that they should be unsealed. This impossible condition Mr. Washburne, and those of his colleagues who remained in Paris, absolutely refused to accept. Their protest was not successful in inducing Bismarck to recede from his position as to the diplomatic corps generally, but he made an exception in favor of the United States Legation, and thereafter once a week its sealed despatch bags were forwarded to and from London through the lines, under a flag of truce.

So matters remained until January, when, on the strength of certain passages in captured balloon correspondence, the German authorities formed a hasty and unwarrantable assumption that the privilege of communication had been abused in the interest of private parties. Bismarck thereupon addressed to Mr. Washburne a letter of complaint, and even went so far as to suggest that the despatch bags should be sent, not to London, but directly to Washington, and that the return bag of despatches should be sealed at Washington. To this most unjustifiable attack, Mr. Washburne immediately made a spirited reply, repelling warmly the imputation of bad faith, pointing out that most of the letters he had delivered to private persons had come from Bismarck himself, and adding:

"In this connection, permit me to observe that you will find enclosed herewith an envelope, containing certain letters addressed to persons in Paris, and which you sent to me by the last *parlementaire*. I know nothing of these persons, and I know no reason why I should deliver the letters. I therefore have the honor to return them to you."

In reference to the proposition to transfer his correspondence from London to Washington, Mr. Washburne said:

"With a knowledge of the views of my Government on this subject, and its opinion that it has a right to promptly communicate with me as its representative near the Government of France, it is impossible for me to acquiesce in the arrangement which you have done me the honor to recommend. I have concluded, therefore, to send you, by the *parlementaire* which I hope to obtain for Tuesday next, my despatch-bag addressed in the usual way to the United States despatch agent in London. If you should feel constrained to decline sending it forward without an unreasonable delay, I shall thank you to return it to me here by the first *parlementaire*. And, also, if you should feel constrained to retain my bag sent to you from London to Versailles beyond a reasonable time, I shall thank you to return it to London."

The letter produced an immediate disclaimer from Bismarck, and nothing more was heard of the proposition.

Mr. Washburne's narrative of his mission in Paris is marked by the same modesty, dignity, and justness that distinguished him in his public career. Although written somewhat stiffly, it gives a graphic picture from the standpoint of a close observer of the most striking episode in recent European history. It is disappointing only in its characterizations of the extraordinary men who figure on its pages, of whom Mr. Washburne gives rather superficial sketches, lacking in that subtlety and keenness of penetration which might be expected in one whose career had given him a sharp insight into human character. Notwithstanding this defect, the book deserves the high place which it will doubtless take among contemporary memoirs.

A DORSETSHIRE POET.

The Life of William Barnes, Poet and Philologist. By his daughter, Lucy Baxter ("Leader Scott"). Macmillan & Co. 1887.

William Barnes, whose pleasing pastoral poems in the Dorset dialect are not unknown in this country, belongs to a most interesting class of self-made men, who, with exceptional faculties, make themselves marked persons, but yet rise little, if at all, from their original place among the people. Such a one was our Elihu Burritt, whom Barnes recalls by his special aptitude for languages; such are those workingmen of whom we hear from time to time by the report of some Ruskin who has discovered them, who have a native taste for botany or geology, or it may be poetry. They are distinguished rather in their class than among the intellectual group with which, had they been more fortunately born and placed, they would have been naturally associated. Barnes was an unusual example of the type. He met with more success, and actually rose in social station; but he had the stamp of his country origin strongly impressed on him, and he never ceased to be thoroughly a man of the people from whom he sprang. He is of interest, also, as an excellent specimen of the sort of "original" which we appropriate too exclusively to our own nation; he possessed the versatility, the knack, the tool-using faculty, and the mental curiosity that we associate with the Yankee character, and his biography has the double worth of a life active in mind and in work.

Curiously enough, we are not told in this volume when Barnes was born, but from the chapter-heading it must have been in 1801. He came of farmer stock in Dorset, but in his babyhood he had not the physical vigor and frame that ought to be the birthright of one destined to be a farm-hand. It is related that some wise old woman comforted his mother with the remark, "Never you mind what he looks like, he'll get his living by learning-books and such like." He had some schooling, and was early put at a clerk's desk in solicitors' offices, where his good penmanship saved him from holding a plough, and, as he spent his leisure in acquiring knowledge from books, he early set up a school, and throve so well that he married in 1827 and took a larger house for himself and his pupils. He had the success he deserved, and, eight years later, finally settled in Dorchester, with which place his name and labors were closely associated during his active years. He had already shown the variety of his tastes by engraving wood-blocks, not with much talent, but for publication, nevertheless, and he had written verses in the newspapers. He made himself acquainted with many languages — Welsh and Hindustanee among the rest—and had begun his philological studies. Being discontented with the text-books used in his school, he wrote an arithmetic, a geography, and a grammar for the use of his pupils, upon what he thought better principles. He became a principal founder of the Dorset Museum, and took his boys out on scientific walks as a part of their education, and also to get specimens in the newly opened railway cuttings. He was an antiquarian, too, and took a leading part in the Society which examined and speculated about British and Roman remains; and, to mention a few other of his multifarious employments, he painted doors "artistically," as well as drew in water-color, made boxes, invented a pair of swimming-shoes which would not work, turned his own chessmen on a lathe, produced a quadrant and an instrument to describe ellipses, and played the flute, violin, and piano. He had the fixed habit of bringing his notions to practical forms, and we find him regulating the binding of his books and the margin and frames of his water-colors by "harmonic proportions"; and, to give one capital instance which does as well as any to put this aspect of his character before us, he adopted the theory that Nature never makes mistakes in colors, and that her juxtapositions must be the true harmonies, acting on which, he studied mosses, leaves, and fruits, and used the tints as arranged in them in his own sketching and decoration. Thus, on purchasing two old high-backed chairs, he chose for their covering "a certain gray-green damask, with a yellow-brown binding, the tints found on the upper and under side of a beautiful lichen."

He had determined in the midst of all this on entering the church; and in 1837 put himself down on the books of St. John's College, Cambridge, as a ten years' man. At the end of that time, having meanwhile been a prolific author in the magazines and in books, he received a small cure of £13 value, three miles from his school, and held it for five years, walking out and back every Sunday. His life went on in this way with teaching and preaching, philology, antiquities, lectures in the country, a diary in all languages, and poems in dialect, which

had always been popular in the district and slowly attracted the attention of literary men at London. But hard times came to him, his wife was dead (in his polyglot journal he wrote her name at the end of each day's entry for forty years afterwards), his school declined, and it was a matter of rejoicing when Palmerston put him on the civil list with £70 pension. At last, when his friend Colonel Damer gave him the living at Came in 1862, he found a home for his old age, and congenial employment until his death in 1886. As a rector he was much beloved, and went in and out among his people like one of them. His daughter tells of a woman saying to her, "There, miss, we do all of us love the passon, that we do; he be so *plain*. Why, bless you, I don't no more mind telling o' un all my little pains and troubles than if he was my grandmother. I don't mean any disrespec', miss;" and this story tells its own tale. He remained vigorous until near the end, and died in advanced age with the honor of the people among whom he lived and the respect of those in the larger world who knew his acquirements and talents.

But the biography was written because he was a poet. The name philologist is also upon the title-page; his philological work, however, was cumbrous, and had in it elements of crankiness. It consisted of numberless writings, some of which brought him £5 for the copyright, and some of which have never found a publisher at all. The *opera majora* in these are a 'Universal Grammar of all Languages,' an attempt at a rational formal analysis of speech which shall be true of each particular tongue or dialect; and secondly, 'Tiw,' an analytical scheme of roots and stems. He had also much at heart the reform of the English by eliminating all except Teutonic elements, and restoring to it such purity as the Welsh possesses; his practice of using in his later books only pure Teutonic words, numbers of which he was of course obliged to coin, with his habit of using figure-symbols, made them unreadable. Such are the traits of his philology. But his feeling for the plain and expressive quality, the homeliness, of country speech, to which his philological dreams were allied, is at the root of his extraordinary success as a poet in dialect. At the importunity of friends he translated some of these Dorset idyls into ordinary English speech, and the volume had little success—quite rightly, for the charm was gone. In his English verses he did not exceed commonplace. His poetic inspiration refused to flow except from the living rock of the speech of the country folk which had been familiar to his childhood. There is in all real dialect verse a certain correspondence of the feeling and the words, a fitness as inexplicable as that of a peasant's costume to his body, an adjustment of thought and burring inflections as perfect as is made in all things by use and wont; and this is the main element of their delight to the cultivated. All art reaches after harmony, but here is a harmony that seems before art, and comes to us like unbreathed-on nature. The peculiar forms are easily caught and understood, and they give the tang of life to the country manners which they are used to describe, to the simple sentiment and direct emotion which they convey.

Barnes had poetic feeling of the primitive kind, and so long as he dealt with this Dorset life that was interesting and dear to him, and used its own century-moulded vital speech, he wrote verses with a quality like the charm of a pastoral picture or the sight of the cows in the pool staring at you. These poems won him the attention of some London folk—Mrs. Norton among them, and a Mr. Tennant, whose letters to him are most pleasant in tact and temper; and after a while Patmore and Allingham became his friends, and Tennyson exchanged visits with him. It is said here that the "Northern Farmer" was written under the stimulus of this incident. Palgrave praised Barnes very highly. "This aged poet seems to me to stand second only to Tennyson in the last half century. He has a truth united always to beauty in his drawing of character and country ways—a pure love of nature, such as one sees in the best Greek or Roman writers, exalted and rendered more tender by his devout Christian spirit. I know not, also, if any of our poets have surpassed him in the number of original pictures or motives which his three precious volumes display." There is something of the over-exquisite critic in this, but it should be said that Palgrave has since explained that, in placing Barnes "second only to Tennyson," he meant to class him "with, not above," our other poets "in the foremost line of those after Tennyson." Still, his remarks indicate well enough the lines of Barnes's excellence. The Bishop praised rather the influence of his life and words in his community: "He has helped the people hereabouts to feel what they can be and do." To write verses to please Mr. Palgrave's nice taste, and to have been helpful by them to the humble people of Dorset, is to cover a wide reach of life, one thinks; it is a test of the singleness and simplicity of poetic art.

With one more striking glimpse of the old poet, we have done. He was always eccentric, it seems, in dress. The poncho, the plaid, the flowing cassock, and silver buckles served in turn, but he was especially fond of a red cap, and perhaps it was a favorite color in other articles; at least it flashes out finely in this sketch of him by Mr. Gosse in a letter to Patmore:

"Hardy and I went on Monday last to Came Rectory, where he lies bedridden. It is curious that he is dying as picturesquely as he lived. We found him in bed in his study, his face turned to the window, where the light came streaming in through flowering plants, his brown books on all sides of him save one, the wall behind him hung with old green tapestry. He had a scarlet bedgown on, a kind of soft biretta of red wool on his head, from which his long white hair escaped on to the pillow; his gray beard grown very long upon his breast; his complexion, which you recollect as richly bronzed, has become blanched by keeping indoors, and is now waxily white where it is not waxily pink; the blue eyes half shut, restless under languid lids. I wish I could paint for you the strange effect of this old, old man, lying in cardinal scarlet in his white bed, the only bright spot in the gloom of all these books."

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Adélaïde Ristori: Études et Souvenirs. Paris: Ollendorff; New York: F. W. Christern.

Adelaide Ristori: Studies and Memoirs. An Autobiography. [Famous Women Series.] Boston: Roberts Bros.

We have waited long for a minute biography of Cooper, the foremost figure of the American stage for the quarter of a century before Forrest came to the front; but it is not to be denied that this sketch of his professional career was well worth waiting for. All those who are interested in the American theatre owe a heavy debt of gratitude to Mr. Ireland for his invaluable 'Records of the New York Stage,' which was suggested, no doubt, by Geneste's 'History of the Drama and Stage in England from 1660 to 1830,' and which easily surpassed its model in orderly arrangement and in literary charm. The chief fault that we can now find with Mr. Ireland's 'Records' is that it ceases in 1860. It is greatly to be regretted that the past twenty-seven years have not yet found a chronicler. With loving care Mr. Ireland had also written a life of Mrs. Duff for Mr. Hutton's "American Actor Series." This biography of Cooper seems to us, if not better than the sketch of Mrs. Duff, at least more needful, for Cooper was far more prominent and of more importance in our play-houses than ever was Mrs. Duff. Cooper held his own against George Frederick Cooke and Edmund Kean and Junius Brutus Booth. He was the model that the young Edwin Forrest strove to imitate. In his youth the pupil of William Godwin and the friend of Thomas Holcroft, in his old age he was welcomed in the best circles of New York. What his career was, what his character, what his powers as a performer in comedy and in tragedy, can be seen fully set forth in Mr. Ireland's pages, which are studded with letters and playbills and casts of plays. The memoir is written in simple and straightforward fashion, and it is accompanied by a full list of Cooper's parts, which serves to show the range and variety of his histrionic faculty; and by an abundant citation of contemporary criticism, exhibiting the diversity of opinion which has almost always been manifested in regard to all great actors. The book is enriched by an index and adorned with a portrait and with a facsimile of one of Cooper's letters. It is beautifully printed at the De Vinne Press.

Dr. Doran's 'Annals of the Stage' is one of the best and best-known books about the theatre. It is, perhaps, a greater favorite in America than in England. There is, for example, an American large-paper edition printed at the Riverside Press a score of years ago; and in 1880 it was issued again in this country in two volumes in the more or less complete edition of Dr. Doran's writings, enlarged by a slight memoir of the author and an introductory and a concluding chapter by Mr. R. H. Stoddard. The present edition, by so competent a hand as Mr. Lowe's, is none the less welcome. Until recently, Mr. Lowe was known in America only as the contributor of certain admirable, though brief, biographical sketches of distinguished performers to 'Actors and Actresses of Great Britain and the United States'; but his 'Bibliographical Account of English Theatrical Literature' revealed his extraordinarily minute knowledge of the details of theatrical history. He is just the editor needed by so careless a writer as Dr. Doran, who had read much rather than well. Very wisely he has nowhere modified the pleasantly written text of 'Their Majesties' Servants,' contenting himself with a frequent note in which to give a more exact reference, or to correct a blunder. This is as it should be, and the result is most satisfactory. With all its obvious faults, Dr. Doran's book is the best existing history of the English stage; it is a gallery of portraits of authors and actors. That his Annals stop at the death of Edmund Kean—as Mr. Ireland's 'Records of the New York Stage' stops in 1860—is a misfortune;

and we wish that Mr. Lowe might be tempted to add a fourth volume to the three of the present edition, in which he would continue the history for half a century, bringing before us Macready, Charles Kean, Fechter, Sothern, Helen Faucit, Mr. Boucicault, and Mr. Irving, and digressing to relate the incursions of Miss Cushman, Forrest, and Mr. Jefferson.

The present edition is sumptuously printed and illustrated. There are fifty copper-plate portraits in the three volumes, and eighty wood-engravings—the latter printed on Japanese paper and mounted on the page as head and tail-pieces. The portraits are of varying value, and the success with which they have been reproduced is also variable. One strange error of ascription deserves to be pointed out: in the third volume there is a plate which the list of illustrations declares to be "Master Betty, the Young Roscius," but which is really a portrait of Master Burke, as surrounding sketches of the performer in his chief parts plainly indicate. Master Betty, for example, did not play the fiddle; the "Master Burke" of the past is now a teacher of music at Washington.

M. Édouard Thierry was one of the best managers who ever presided over the Comédie-Française, and it was his duty to guide it through the dark days of the Prussian siege and the revolt of the Commune. During this time he kept a journal in which he jotted down the details of the affairs of the theatre and the rumors of the greater strife which came to him from outside. It is this journal which he has now published, and it is very curious reading, of interest only to those who delight in studying the workings of French character under pressure, and to those who are collecting the minor facts of French theatrical history; other readers would no doubt find it dull. The great house of Molière was carried through the storm, partly owing to M. Thierry's skilful guidance, partly owing to the devotion of M. Got, who assumed a great responsibility in taking a part of the incomparable company across the Channel to play in London. M. Got's account of this first visit of the Comédie-Française to England has already been published by M. Georges d'Heylli, and this journal of M. Thierry's now supplements it by setting forth day by day the adventures of those of the company who remained in Paris and continued to act at their own theatre.

M. Pierre Giffard is a journalist who has had a hand in one or two plays. The experience acquired in his dual capacity he has utilized in a theatrical novel. 'La Tournée du Père Thomas' has been called a new 'Roman Comique'—but M. Giffard is not the first husband of Mme. de Maintenon! His is an easy sketch (*bon enfant*, the French would call it), lacking altogether in *documents humains*, and yet truthful enough in the main. *Aller en tournée* is the French equivalent of "going on the road," as we Americans say—"touring," the English call it. As yet no American author has told the tale of a theatrical company's season "on the road," with its ups and downs, its hardships and its pleasures, its exhausting railroad journeys and its equally fatiguing "one-night stands"; but there exists an English novel covering much the same ground as M. Giffard's, and it is instructive to compare the black and bitter 'Mummer's Wife' of Mr. George Moore with the good-humored 'Tournée du Père Thomas.' It is a sorry existence at best which we see depicted in either book; and if we knew a young person of either sex bent on going on the stage, we should suggest a careful study of both stories.

Mme. Ristori's autobiography appeared in Paris in French late last fall, and an English translation has recently been issued in London. In America this translation is published as a volume of the "Famous Women Series"—a very strange proceeding, and we earnestly hope wholly unauthorized on the part of the distinguished Italian actress, a lady as well as an artist. Two actresses, Rachel and Mrs. Siddons, have already been included in the "Famous Women Series"; but they were at least the more admissible as being dead, and therefore open to "traditional" treatment. It is the *traditions* about the artists of the stage (and this holds true in large measure of artists in painting, and the plastic arts, and in music), and not their stories, that are of value. This is not only the first autobiography, but the first biography of a living woman that has been given in this series—an innovation to be regretted, and the choice is in every way absurd. Shall we have later the autobiography of Sara Bernhardt? She is more deservedly *famous* than Mme. Ristori, as well as much more given to advertisement. The seventeen preceding volumes have, with the exception of the two just spoken of, had for their subjects, rightly, women who were remarkable for force of character, and who exercised by their writings, or otherwise, an influence of longer duration than their mortal lives. For no actress can this be the case beyond an insignificant degree.

The first half of the volume, containing the narrative of Mme. Ristori's life, is inexpressibly dull; and the last half, containing the analyses of her conceptions of six of her principal characters, and her mode of acting them, is not less trivial and commonplace. It is even vastly inferior to Lady Martin's (Miss Faucit's) vapid criticisms of her own Shakspere parts. In conclusion, the book is badly written, and worse translated, and is altogether a wretchedly paltry piece of work.

Harvard Reminiscences. By Andrew P. Peabody, D.D., LL.D. Boston: Ticknor & Co. 1888.

Dr. Peabody graduated in the eminent class of 1826, and his aim in composing this little volume has been to commemorate every college officer whose name was catalogued with his while he was undergraduate, theological student, and tutor. He devotes a special chapter to life at Harvard sixty years ago, and incidentally, too, throws much light upon it. Only five years before he entered, a Hebrew oration had been a regular feature of the Commencement exercises. Examination in the Greek Testament (at a time when no Greek-English lexicon was to be had) was still obligatory. The course in mathematics lasted four years. The mere statement of these three particulars shows, in comparison with the present elective system, how far the College has swung away from its ancient ecclesiastical moorings. Dr. Kirkland was President during our author's academic education, and, with a single exception, for more than a century none but clergymen had held the office. He was succeeded by a layman, Josiah Quincy, who quickly swept away one of the obnoxious survivals of the day when "pious citizens of Boston used to send their slaves to Commencement for their religious instruction and edification," until the custom simply amounted to a riotous holiday:

"When I entered college," says Dr. Peabody, "the entire Cambridge Common, then an unenclosed dust-plain, was completely covered on Commencement-Day, and on the nights preceding and following it, with drinking-stands, dancing-booths, mountebank shows, and gaming-tables, and I have never since heard such a horrid din, tumult, and jargon, of oath, shout, scream, fiddle, quarrelling, and drunkenness, as on those two nights."

By far the largest part of the actual instruction was by lectures, and there can be no doubt that the courses then available, imperfect as the scientific part necessarily was, richly compensated the defects of the routine curriculum. A body of very remarkable men communicated not merely their learning but their personality to Dr. Peabody's college generation. Chemistry was practically neglected, but "we had courses on physics and astronomy by Prof. [John] Farrar, of whose surpassing eloquence I have already spoken; on technology by the late Dr. [Jacob] Bigelow; on anatomy by Dr. John Collins Warren; on hygiene by Dr. [James] Jackson; on law by Chief-Justice [Isaac] Parker; on French and Spanish literature by Prof. [George] Ticknor; on the canon of the New Testament by the elder Dr. [Henry] Ware." Of the regular instructors, Edward Tyrrel Channing, brother of the more celebrated divine, undoubtedly possessed the highest qualifications for his profession. His appointment, at the age of twenty-nine, to the chair of rhetoric and oratory "was perhaps the most important ever made in the interest of American literature," says Dr. Peabody; and in this opinion he does not stand alone.

The lights of the Unitarian denomination are prominent on Dr. Peabody's roll, and one more tribute is paid to the lamented Follen, who in these athletic days might well be remembered by bust, painting, or memorial window as the first to introduce gymnastics, *more Germanico*, at Harvard. Dr. Peabody does not allude to the true cause of his losing his professorship, the pro-slavery intolerance of the time, and one thinks of this omission after having read the almost unbroken series of kindly judgments and what we may call Christian certificates bestowed on the subjects of these sketches. We would quarrel with none of the characterization as unwarranted, yet in the application of all their admirable qualities to social and public life they notoriously differed on the absorbing question of slavery—Follen, for instance, ranging with Palfrey and Quincy on one side, Story, Ticknor, Everett, Felton, and Peirce together on the other. During the period of the so-called Salem régime, the political, intellectual, and social weight of Harvard College as an organized institution was distinctly given to the side which now has hardly a champion even south of Mason and Dixon's line.

Dr. Peabody's pages are enlivened with many humorous touches by way of anecdote and otherwise. Speaking of the *American Monthly Review*, founded by Sidney Willard, he says that he never saw Felton angry but once, after having passed in a contribution to the *Review*:

"He had written, and sent to the press, an article somewhat rhetorical, though by no means distastefully high-flown; and the proof came to him with 'Froth' written in the margin against the most ambitious sentence in the copy. Felton went at once to the printer to complain of the insolence of his compositors in presuming to make insulting criticisms of the work under their hands. The explanation was promptly and satisfactorily given: at precisely that point, the work was passed over to a compositor named Frothingham."

The state of literary criticism at that period is illustrated by the fact that the *Review* being conducted by Unitarians, a scathing notice of Prof. Moses Stuart's edition of Cicero's 'De Officiis' was treated as sectarian, and cost the magazine almost every Calvinistic subscriber, although written by an orthodox Yale professor. So the exposure of a charlatan in geology drew off scores of his admirers, and brought down the enterprise in ruins.

Negro Myths from the Georgia Coast, Told in the Vernacular. By Charles C. Jones, jr., LL.D. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1888.

Two pleasant surprises await the reader of this book, viz., that so many additions can still be made to the store of "Uncle Remus," and that Mr. Jones's transcription of "the vernacular" is worthy to be ranked with Mr. Harris's. This Georgia-coast dialect is nothing else than the primitive speech of Daddy Jack, but, as here rendered, it will be found, owing to its syntax, especially, much harder to understand, and especially to read aloud, than its forerunner in 'Nights with Uncle Remus.' It is a little complicated, too, by some phonetic inconsistencies, as when *for* is written in two ways in a single paragraph—"fur eat," "fuh eat" (p. 25), or again, "fur me" (p. 3) compared with "fuh mo" (p. 15). This may very well represent a divided usage, also observable in the curious locative word *duh* or *der* (in the, of the, to the, into the, etc.), *e. g.*, "Eh see de King Crab duh squat een de water *duh* bottom er de boat"; "een de closet *duh* garret"; "fuh feed ehself un eh fambly *duh* winter time"; "eh gone *der* bottom." The identical meaning of these two forms is not pointed out in the glossary, nor is *duh* (which is much the commoner in Mr. Jones's handling) allowed the above signification at all; "was" and "were" being the sole recognized equivalents. Apparently this sense is assigned to a very prevalent and curious use of *duh*, to form the only present participle employed in this collection. In the examples which we shall now give, however, *duh* seems rather to stand for "do" with the infinitive: "Eh couldn't ketch um *duh tief* de water"; "Wen Buh Wolf yent *duh watch* um" (wasn't watching him); "Wuh you *duh do* yuh anyhow?" "Buh Tukrey Buzzard rise wid de Crab *duh heng* on ter eh leg"; "Eh meet Buh Rabbit *duh siddown duh wait* [sitting down waiting] fuh hire somebody fuh cahr him meat ter him house," etc. Another unfamiliar term is *blan*, as: "Enty you *blan* tek water outer me spring?" (ain't you in the habit of taking). Finally, the substitution of *b* for *v* is noticeable: *mobe* (move), *bex* (vex, vexed).

When we come to the substance of the fables, we find no inconsiderable number which are mere variants of Uncle Remus. Such are the widespread myth of the race between deer and tortoise, the ever-delightful Tar Baby, Buh Wolf ridden in triumph by Buh Rabbit, the stories of "Buh Rabbit, Buh Fox, an de Fisherman," of "Buh Rabbit, Buh Wolf, de Dog, an de Goose" and the parallel "Buh Rabbit, Buh Wolf, an de holler tree," of "Buh Alligatuh, Buh Rabbit, an Buh Wolf" (Daddy Jack's inimitable "Brother 'Possum gets in trouble"), etc. Mr. Jones undertakes no framing of his fables—no machinery of the cabin and its inmates—so that, dialect apart, there is a direct comparison between his mode of narration and Mr. Harris's, whose greater art is well exhibited in the common tale of the 'coon and the 'possum. On the other hand, Mr. Jones's appended morals are very pithy and taking—as, touching saying grace at the right time, "Bes plan fuh er man fuh mek sho er eh bittle [victuals] befo eh say tenky fuh um."

Buh Rabbit remains the hero of this black folk-lore; but though his "schemy" character is again and again illustrated, not without occasional disapprobation, it cannot truly be said of him, "Ebry time you yeddy bout Buh Rabbit, you fine um duh come out head." In the division of the cowmeat, he is cheated out of his portion by Buh Pattridge, contrary to his better luck on a similar well-known occasion. And we may say here that the birds play an interesting part in this collection. The impudent Buh Sparruh, who "yent much fur wuk," rivals Buh Rabbit in laziness and untruthfulness. The parable of the fowl-hawk who, "Lord er no Lord," in a season of scarcity, "manage fuh fine all him want fuh eat," but impales himself by mistake on a stump, and so furnishes a meal to the starving but still pious buzzard, is irresistible. "'De man wuh trus in ehself,' moralized Daddy Sandy, 'guine fail; wile dem dat wait topper de Lord will hab perwision mek fur um.'" The alligator, as was to be expected, cuts a relatively conspicuous figure in these pages.

We must not close without mention of the stories distinctly derived from Europeans, like "De Debble an May Belle" (Bluebeard), "De Two Fren an de Bear" (Æsop), "Buh Lion, Buh Rabbit, Buh Fox, an Buh Roccoon" (a very noticeable version of Herodotus's story of Agamedes, the thieving architect of the treasure-house of Rhampsinitus, whose unhappy rôle is here taken by the coon), and such Orientalisms as "De King an eh Ring" and "De Ole King an de Noung King." For these, as well as for the strictly African myths, Mr. Jones and his publishers deserve the hearty thanks of the reading public.

The Chess-Player's Manual. By G. H. D. Gossip. Revised and edited and with an American appendix by S. Lipschütz. Geo. Routledge & Sons.

It may be said of books on chess as the Kentuckian said of brands of whiskey—some are better than others, but all are good. The game stands supreme among intellectual amusements: its combinations are infinite, and its fascinations imperishable. There cannot be too many books about it. From the inexhaustible field of discovery every faithful laborer can bring something of interest. In this age we have chess-writers, chess-players, chess champions, and chess clubs, and there is no danger that the noble game will die or even decay; but it is to be regretted that it has not a stronger hold at the fireside. Properly speaking, it has no rival, but there are amusements, some of them evil, which to a great extent supplant it. Of the young people of the present day probably ten know the value of a "flush" and a "full"—and know it "for stamps," as they say—where one knows the difference between a bishop and a knight.

The manual before us is an octavo volume of 882 pages, published in 1874, and now republished with an appendix of 120 pages by the champion of the Manhattan Club of New York. The original work and the appendix are valuable in themselves, and, taken together, they may be regarded as exhaustive of the subject to the present date. The large bulk of the volume is due, of course, to the heavy demand made upon space in presenting tabular statements of games necessary to explain the openings, and to show by the games actually played by the best players the changes that time has produced in attack and defence. The work is commendable not only to beginners, but to the most advanced chess students.

Homestead Highways. By Herbert Milton Sylvester. Boston: Ticknor & Co. 1888.

This volume is in the same style as the author's previous 'Prose Pastorals,' and describes scenes of New England life of the sort of which Whittier's 'Snow-Bound' is the lasting memorial. The greater part of the volume is taken up with pictures of the snow-storm on the eve of Thanksgiving, the drive to the meeting-house and the sermon by the old pastor, the farm-house dinner, and the fag-end of the day; and in a second paper the opening of the district-school, the scenes of school-boy life, and the personality of the teachers. The remaining chapters lack the directness and concentration of these two. The style is pleasant, and always touched with that reverence for the early days of country life, and loving reminiscence of them, which are traits of the New England nature; and in living the old time over in these sketches the author has depicted it with such reality and simplicity that his own past has the value of a type, and will be a welcome reminder to the lovers of this kind of literature, who are not few, of the humble annals of many country homes.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, J. C. The Fatherhood of God. Boston: Universalist Publishing House.
A Strange Manuscript Found in a Copper Cylinder. Harper & Bros.
Baumbach, R. Summer Legends. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. $1.25.
Brisbin, Gen. J. S. Trees and Tree Planting. Harper & Bros.
Brooks, N. Abraham Lincoln: A Biography for Young People. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.75.
Christianity and Evolution; Modern Problems of the Faith. T. Whittaker. $1.50.
Cobb, S., Jr. Orion, the Goldbeater. Cassell & Co. 50 cents.
Daudet, A. Partners; or, Fromont, Jr., and Risler, Senior. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.
Eaton, A. W. The Heart of the Creed: Historical Religion in the Light of Modern Thought. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Fishwick, H. The Registers of the Parish Church of Rochdale in the County of Lancaster. 1582–1616. London: Trübner & Co.
Gielgud, A. Memoirs of Prince Adam Czartoryski and his Correspondence with Alexander I. 2 vols. With Portraits. Scribner & Welford.
Goode, G. B. American Fishes: A Popular Treatise upon the Game and Food Fishes of North America. Illustrated. Standard Book Co.
Goodwin, J. A. The Pilgrim Republic: An Historical Review of the Colony of New Plymouth, etc. Boston: Ticknor & Co. $4.
Griffiths, A. The Wrong Road. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co. 25 cents.
Gröber, Prof. G. Grundriss der Romanischen Philologie. III. Lieferung. Strassburg: Karl J. Trübner.
Hadley, A. Life of Walter Harriman. With Selections from his Speeches and Writings. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.50.
Hahn, Anna E. Summer Assembly Days; or, What was Seen, Heard, and Felt at the Nebraska Chautauqua. Boston: Congregational Publishing Society. $1.
Harte, B. The Argonauts of North Liberty. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Hewlett, H. G. A Wayfarer's Wallet. London: George Redway.
Hill, G. A. Lessons in Geometry for the Use of Beginners. Boston: Ginn & Co. 75 cents.
Hinsdale, Prof. B. A. The Old Northwest: with a View of the Thirteen Colonies as Constituted by the Royal Charters. Townsend MacCoun. $2.50.
Hirsh's Tabulated Digest of the Divorce Laws of the United States.
Howells, W. D. The Minister's Charge. Boston: Ticknor & Co. 50 cents.
Kennard, Mrs. Edward. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co. 25 cents.
Why Should Priests Wed? A. E. Costello. $1.

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NOTE.—This, one of the best of Mr. Surtees's works, was originally commenced in the "New Sporting Magazine," and illustrated by the inimitable artists, Wildrake and Heath, but was not completed in that magazine. It was afterward published complete in a three-volume edition. The five illustrations now added are by John Jellicoe, and illustrate the latter portion of the work not done by Wildrake or Heath.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 31, 1888.

The Week.

AMONG the really telling speeches on the tariff question that the present debate has brought out, that of Mr. Fitch of New York is entitled to preëminence for calmness, sobriety, and common sense. It is the second Republican speech during this session of Congress that has put the fiscal aspect of the tariff above the partisan aspect, that of Mr. Nelson of Minnesota being the other. These two have discussed the question as though it were one of taxation and of dollars and cents, in which Republican taxpayers are as much interested as Democratic. They alone have approached the schedules of duties on imports with the understanding that men may honestly differ as to the rightfulness of a particular rate on any particular article of commerce. No other speaker on that side has admitted that a duty of 100 per cent., for example, should be reduced to 99 per cent., or that the question of reduction can properly be raised and drawn into debate, except on the single article of sugar. Here there is a wide difference in the Republican camp. Mr. Kelley and his school of Chinese-wall builders would not allow the smallest reduction on sugar, any more than on pig-iron. But the majority of the party would gladly throw the sugar-planters, and also the beet and sorghum cranks, overboard in order to save the remainder of the protected classes. They tell us that the doctrine of protection does not apply to sugar, because after half-a-century of continued effort we have not succeeded in increasing the product of home grown sugar. This is substantially true of hemp, flax, carpet wools, tin plate, woollen dress goods, and many other things, the duties on which the Republicans will not allow to be touched, and would not allow even to be talked about if they could have their way. But the argument as applied to sugar has a strange sound when we listen to the appeals of the beet-root growers in California and the sorghum experimenters in Kansas, who tell us that if we will only have patience and continue to pay $60,000,000 a year, they will show us a "development" equal to that of France and Germany in the production of sugar. These appeals are based upon the true protectionist philosophy, and they are supported by an example of much force in the Old World.

When Mr. Fitch insists upon looking at the separate items of the tariff in order to see what inequalities, and, therefore, what wrongs and injustices, it may contain, he merely reverts to the principles of common sense which such leading Republicans as Sherman, Garfield, Allison, and even the author of the Morrill tariff, avowed, and which two-thirds of the party in the House sustained by their votes, a few years ago. The present position of the party, as Mr. Fitch says, is that although the tariff needs amendment, it should only be amended by its friends. The present inequalities, wrongs, and injustices should be continued until the Republicans secure a majority of both branches of Congress. And here Mr. Fitch makes what we consider his strongest point, namely, that this argument requires that acknowledged wrong and injustice should be continued for ever unless the Republicans carry a national election. But, he says, when the Republicans do carry a national election on this issue, it will be urged with irresistible force that the people's verdict is against any meddling with the tariff, so that the wrong and injustice must be equally perpetuated whether the Republicans carry the election or not. The conclusion is enforced by all the experience we have had since the close of the war, that if the reform of the tariff can only be made by its friends, it will never be reformed at all, no matter how odious and oppressive it may become. The Republicans cut down the duties 10 per cent. in 1872, but they restored them to the old figure in 1875. They created the Tariff Commission in 1882, only to upset and nullify their reformatory work in the following year. Then they went out of power, and took the position that no reform must be made or attempted until they got into power again. This dog-in-the-manger policy Mr. Fitch has exposed thoroughly, and has made a national reputation by so doing.

The arguments made in the House in favor of the bill to prohibit the transportation of goods manufactured by convict labor from one State to another, were of the nauseous character usual to demagogues when they address themselves to Labor. Remark that the prohibition is not directed against commerce in hurtful articles, but merely in articles produced in a certain way. The same arguments employed to prohibit the transportation of goods made by convict labor would be equally effective and valid to prohibit that of any other goods. The bill, in fact, opens the door for a general scheme of inter-State protective legislation. It would be quite in keeping with such legislation to pass a law prohibiting the transportation of cheap manufactured goods from Massachusetts to the Southern and Western States where "infant industries" have been started. In fact, the arguments used by Mr. Cabot Lodge in favor of this bill are exactly adapted to support such a measure. Mr. Lodge cited the case of cocoa matting produced in the Pennsylvania State prison. This cocoa matting, he said, had severely crippled the manufacture of such matting in his own State. Perhaps so —perhaps not. Every manufacturer is interested in getting a rival out of the way, whether it be the product of prison labor or of free labor. His word is not to be taken upon that point without thorough investigation. But supposing that the manufacturers of boots and shoes in Illinois find that the competition of manufacturers in Massachusetts "severely cripples" them, is there any constitutional reason why they should not have a law passed to prohibit the transportation of boots and shoes from Massachusetts to Illinois? Moral reasons there are in plenty, but we are speaking now of constitutional reasons. We can see none whatever, but we can see plainly that Mr. Lodge and those who agree with him are blazing the way for inter-State protection laws, from which the older manufacturing States will be the first and principal sufferers.

The Anti-Prison Bill, if it could be put in force at all, would disorganize all the prisons in the country. The Governor of California protested against it, saying that that State, after multiplied efforts to employ convicts on work not performed by free labor in the State, had got to work at last on jute-bags, which are sold to farmers in Oregon and Washington Territory, and that the passage of the bill would cut off that resource and leave the prisons a sheer burden on the taxpayers, all of whom are now satisfied with the happy settlement of the prison-labor question. Mr. Outhwaite of Ohio said that 700 prisoners in his State were out on parole under a ticket-of-leave system, working for wages, and that the bill would drive them back to the prisons to be supported by the money of the taxpayers, because nobody would hire them if their products could not be sold. The case was cited of the manufacture of saddle-trees in the Missouri penitentiary for the Mexican market, 95 per cent. of the product being exported to Mexico, none of which could be sent out of the State under the provisions of the bill. Mr. Adams of Illinois said that the penitentiary authorities of his State, after infinite trouble in meeting the demands of labor, were experimenting in the manufacture of brick for the lower Mississippi districts, where there was no clay suitable for brick-making, and that this resource would be cut off by the bill, to the great injury of the State of Illinois, which made the bricks, and of the States which desire to purchase them. All was of no avail. The bill passed by a vote of 185 to 44, and thus Labor secured a great triumph in the way of increasing local taxes in order that convicts may have plenty to eat and nothing to do. But it was shown in the course of the debate that the real movers for the bill were a few manufacturing firms in the larger cities, who, of course, did not omit the opportunity to show that wages were depressed by convict labor, and that they would be enabled to do much better by their workmen if prison labor, amounting to 54-100 of 1 per cent. of the mechanical labor of the country, were suppressed altogether. The prospect of an increase of 54-100 of 1 per cent. in the rate of wages must be very alluring to the working classes. But where is the

guarantee that employers of labor will pay it to the workmen when they get it?

The *Tribune*, backed by Mr. Joseph Nimmo, jr., has conceived a sudden liking for foreign commerce, and calls loudly for duties of 40 per cent. against goods transported by the Canadian Pacific Railway in order to get some. There is a better way to attract foreign commerce than the establishment of discriminating tolls against the carriers of the same. What the country needs, and what it is in a fair way to obtain, is the lowering of existing duties, not the enactment of new ones. If Canada chooses to subsidize a railway across the continent, she only follows our example of twenty years ago. We hope she will not have as much trouble with her Pacific-railway subsidy as we have had with ours. If she chooses also to subsidize a steamship line to Asia, here again she only follows our example, and here again we hope she may reap more wholesome fruits than we did.

The *Times* has information from Washington that the special Committee of the House appointed to investigate the Reading strike are considering favorably a bill to put any railroad in the hands of a receiver which fails for thirty days, on account of any difficulty with its train hands, to discharge its duties to the public as a common carrier. The bill is said to provide, also, that train hands must give at least ten days' notice of intention to strike, and that railroad companies must likewise give at least ten days' notice of an intention to reduce wages. It would, of course, be improper to criticise such a measure in detail until its details are furnished, but if any such measure is contemplated, it is difficult to see how it is to be reconciled with article 5 of the amendments to the Constitution, which says that no person shall be deprived of his property without due process of law, and that private property shall not be taken for public use without just compensation. The appointment of a receiver is a judicial act, and cannot possibly be made a legislative or an executive act. A receiver is, in fact, an officer of the court. He stands in the place of the judge as to certain things. All his acts, from taking possession of the property to the sale or rendition of the same, are the acts of the court. Now, the proposition is that the judges of the United States courts shall take possession of and operate all railroads that have disputes with their train hands, provided the train hands seize the road or terrorize the community so as to prevent the regular running of trains for thirty days. We do not believe that any court will assume the responsibility of appointing a receiver to take possession of a solvent railroad which is making due and diligent efforts, as the Reading Railroad certainly did, to discharge its duties as a common carrier.

The negotiation of about $25,000,000 of Reading 4 per cent. bonds and $12,000,000 first preference incomes, as announced on Friday, is the culmination of one of the largest business undertakings of modern times. We say the culmination, because the negotiation of this first instalment of the new securities to replace others bearing a higher rate of interest insures the negotiation of the remainder. There is an increasing demand among the investing public for low-interest bonds that are well secured, as is shown by the firmness with which the West Shore 4s have always been held. This demand is accentuated by the purchases of Government 4s and 4½s by the Secretary of the Treasury, and by the near extinction of the latter class of securities, which run only three years longer. When the remainder of the $100,000,000 of Reading 4s (less the portion reserved for prior-lien bonds, etc.) are taken, the total fixed charges will be reduced $1,500,000. The other and minor parts of the plan of reorganization have always hinged upon the success of the $100,000,000 loan. It may be assumed, therefore, that the contemplated reduction of fixed charges is within sight. The plan of reorganization embraces the Coal and Iron Company as well as the Railroad Company, and among the fixed charges under the new mortgage is a sinking fund of ten cents per ton of coal mined to replace the capital represented by the coal so disposed of, this sinking fund to be invested either in the company's securities or in the acquisition of other coal property. The company owns about 36 per cent. of the anthracite in Pennsylvania, and the supply is computed to last until the year A. D. 2057, allowance being made for a progressive increase of consumption.

Senator Stewart of Nevada has made his promised speech in support of his proposition practically to abolish the veto power, by allowing a majority of Congress to pass a bill over the President's objections, and a curious sort of speech it was, filled largely with complaints of the Government's policy regarding silver, the purchase of bonds, the disposition of the public lands, etc. When he came down to facts about the matter in hand, he showed himself utterly misinformed. He said, for example, that "there is a growing sentiment in the States against the veto power," and in support of this statement declared that "nine of them have already qualified it, so that a majority of the Legislature can pass a bill over the veto of the Governor." The truth is that the tendency has been strongly in the opposite direction. Five of the original thirteen States at first gave the Governor no veto power, but have since conferred it upon him, Connecticut in 1818, New Jersey in 1844, and Maryland, Virginia, and South Carolina since the war. Moreover, instead of a disposition to qualify the power by reducing the proportion of votes necessary to override a veto, the drift has been strongly the other way. Only two States have ever made such a change, Kentucky having changed from a two-thirds vote in 1792 to a majority vote in 1799, and Nebraska, which began in 1867 with two-thirds, having changed to three-fifths in 1875, while Missouri, Florida, and Illinois have changed from a majority to two-thirds. Furthermore, New York, Pennsylvania, and some other States have increased the veto power by giving the Executive the right to disapprove single sections of appropriation bills.

It would be easy to show that this steady increase of the Executive's share in the business of legislation has been to the public advantage. Four of the States have never given the Governor any veto power—Rhode Island, Ohio, Delaware, and North Carolina—while Ohio does not even require the Executive signature to a legislative act. The result is, that the Governor of Ohio exercises but little influence, and there is no check upon the folly of a Legislature. Even the limited veto power which can be nullified by a majority vote, is better than none at all, as Gov. Buckner of Kentucky repeatedly proved during the recent session of the Legislature. That body passed a number of ill-considered acts which he could not approve, and though a majority could overcome his objections, he was sustained in every important case, so strong were his messages. But the pride of legislative opinion is usually so great, and the force of partisanship generally so strong, that as a rule the Executive needs the requirement of at least a two-thirds vote to overcome his objections. The development of our institutions has shown that the early fears of the Executive's grasping too much power were groundless, and that the centring of responsibility upon one man, through the veto prerogative, may save the people from terrible evils which the representatives of the people, with their divided responsibility, may be ready to sanction, as when Congress passed the Inflation Bill in 1874, and a majority (but not two-thirds) of the Senate voted to pass it over Grant's veto. Instead of diminishing the present veto power, the next change is likely to be its extension, through a provision which will give the President the right to veto separate items of an appropriation bill.

The Maine Democrats have made a most admirable nomination for Governor in selecting Mr. William L. Putnam of Portland as their candidate. Mr. Putnam is a lawyer of such ability and standing in his profession that he was properly regarded as within the range of choice when the vacancy in the Chief Justiceship was under consideration. He has been Mayor of his city, was one of the Commission which framed the Fishery Treaty, and would make an excellent Governor. Mr. Putnam recently made an interesting contribution to political discussion in a thoughtful letter to a Portland club, giving his views as to the national reforms which are now most needed. Beginning with the proposition, which everybody will concede, that the methods of government in a republic should be so simple that there need not be an official class, he pointed out that "a republican form of government ceases to be

truly republican when, by reason of its complex nature or of monopolization by a body of interested persons, it passes in its principal relations beyond the ordinary understanding of the professional man, the merchant, the mechanic, or the farmer, or is shielded from the just influence which citizens in the ordinary walks of life ought properly to wield." He then showed how the protective tariff and the spoils system are separating the ordinary citizen from the administration of public affairs; the former by so complicating our taxing systems as to put them beyond the comprehension of anybody but an expert, while the latter "continuously promotes the growth of an interested class, at times salaried by the Government, and always encouraged to devote itself to grasping a monopoly of public affairs." His conclusion, therefore, is, that "at present the most important thing is to resist the tendencies to segregation of the mass of the people from direct intervention in the affairs of government," by reform both in the tariff and in the civil service.

Anarchism and Socialism had a disagreement on Sunday at a joint meeting held at 201 Broome Street. Mr. L. Spector, or Spectre, was the presiding officer, and the question under debate was whether the "Russian Progressive Union" of New York should become a more radical organization than its name implies, or whether the radicals and the conservatives—*i. e.*, the Anarchists and the Socialists—should separate from each other and push their respective doctrines in different ways. The Socialists, being in the majority, voted to dissolve the union. Thereupon the Anarchists, according to the *Herald's* report, did "howl, wail, and gnash their teeth with fury." This was to be expected, but why did they call their late allies "scoundrels and thieves," as the report further narrates? How is a man lowered in the esteem of Anarchists by calling him a thief, or even by proving him to be one? This ought to be considered the highest title of honor except that of homicide. We were compelled to lament the inconsistency of the Chicago Anarchists—those who were not executed—when they cried out against the judicial murder of the bomb-throwers. We pointed out that if Lingg and his associates were, as they alleged, hanged contrary to law and without having had a fair trial, that was a public vindication of anarchy, and ought to be accepted as such, and not mourned over as a calamity. So, too, if the Socialist branch of the Russian Protective Union of New York is composed of thieves, who take property by a majority vote, they ought to be cheered and not hissed by their Anarchist neighbors.

The laying last week of the corner-stone of the great Catholic university which is to be reared in Washington was not only a noteworthy event in itself, but was given peculiar importance and significance by the remarkable address delivered on the occasion by the Right Rev. John L. Spalding, Bishop of Peoria, Ill. One could not imagine a more striking proof of the change which is coming over the Roman Catholic Church, and the wonderful adaptability to new conditions which it displays, than is shown by this eloquent address. "To do the best work," Bishop Spalding frankly said, "the Catholic Church must fit herself to a constantly changing environment, to the character of every people, and to the wants of each age." "If there are Catholics who linger regretfully amid glories that have vanished," he said further, "there are also Catholics who, in the midst of their work, feel a confidence which leaves no place for regret; who well understand that the earthly environment in which the Church lives is subject to change and decay, and that new surroundings imply new tasks and impose new duties." The keynote of this address was the supreme value of the higher education and the celebration of the true university as its seat—a university which "will be the home both of ancient wisdom and of new learning; will teach the best that is known and encourage research; will stimulate thought, refine taste, and awaken the love of excellence; will be a nursery of ideas, a centre of influence." The truth is, that a candid Protestant may read this address from beginning to end, not only without finding anything to arouse his indignation or excite his apprehension, but with a growing surprise at the elevation of its tone, the breadth of its view, the comprehensiveness of its scope.

The international controversy between the Lotos Club of this city and the Savage Club of London appears to turn on the question as to whether a mutual agreement to exchange "courtesies" means that the members of one club shall have the unrestrained privilege of getting drunk in and knocking down the members of the other club, and vice-versa. The Lotos Club takes the ground that it does not, and has severed the agreement because a London visitor to its quarters did get drunk and attempt to knock down an "Italian gentleman" who happened to be present as a member's guest. This is made the excuse for the discontinuance of "courtesies," but there are intimations from London that the decision to sever was first reached by the Savage Club because some of its members, many of whom belong to the theatrical profession, have suffered gross indignities in the Lotos quarters when they have sought to enjoy the "courtesies" promised them in the agreement. One of them is said to have heard himself called a "bum actor" when he was sauntering through the Lotos parlors, which, if true, must naturally have shaken even a Savage's confidence in Lotos courtesy. It is a painful controversy, and is in danger of casting a gloom over the Lotos banquet to the next eminent English actor who ventures upon our shores.

The long-delayed official explanation by the Mexican Government of the terms of the last foreign loan leaves even less ground than had been supposed to exist, for regarding it as a proof of a great advance of Mexican credit in Europe. Instead of eighty-six, at which figure it was at first reported the German banker Herr Bleichroeder would take the loan, seventy is the exact amount realized. The net result, therefore, is simply that the Mexican Government has been able to get money loaned it at a little over 9 per cent. interest, and that, too, only by making extraordinary pledges to guarantee punctual payment of this high interest, in the shape of a practical assignment to the bondholders of 20 per cent. of the customs receipts, together with nearly all the direct taxes of the Federal District. Inasmuch as Secretary Dublan represents the principal advantage of the new loan to consist in enabling him to pay off the floating debt, with its "heavy interest," it may be imagined at what rate he has been forced to pay the National Bank for moneys advanced to make good the annually recurring deficits. If it is a great stroke to get funds at 9 per cent., it is not so strange that popular rumor has made the rate before paid 12 or 15. It is to be remembered, also, that but one-third of the total loan proposed has yet been taken. It would not be strange if the whole scheme ended with this. Certainly European investors who should conclude that the new Mexican loan was promising, would have to do so in the face of such weighty financial authorities as the London *Times* and *Economist*, and the Berlin *Nation*. It was the latter journal that remarked, referring to the German subscriptions to the new Mexican loan, that "it was a new example of the old truth that no one is so confiding as the small capitalist."

M. Paul Leroy-Beaulieu, in the *Économiste Français* of May 12, finds reason to believe that a real revival of business is taking place in France, notwithstanding the depression of agriculture due to the bad harvest of last year. He sees evidence for this opinion in the gradually improving dividends of the finance, industrial, and navigation companies and the railroads, and in the gradually increasing yield of the general taxes and the octroi of Paris. The drawbacks to French prosperity are protectionism, political uncertainty, the apprehension of war, and the Panama Canal. "Without exaggeration," he says, "it is plain that all the symptoms, or nearly all, show a tendency to a sure revival of business. We see only two classes of adverse facts. On the one side, France is committing the folly, under the instigation of the ruling powers, of plunging deeper and deeper into the ruinous enterprise of Panama, which will swallow all the savings put into it without any return whatever. On the other side, politics does not seem to grow more reassuring. If we could oblige our radicals to give a little social peace to the country, to stop their agitations, their pretended reforms, and disturbing intrigues, if they could be induced to put our budget in equilibrium simply by economies that are not impossible, we should see the revival accentuated and unfolded; even the agricultural distress, grave as it is, lessened; and the country return to that prosperity which its many resources seem to make its normal condition."

THE ADMINISTRATION AND THE CUSTOM-HOUSE.

MR. MAYNARD, the Assistant Secretary of the Treasury, sent to the New York *Evening Post* the following telegram, which appeared in its issue of April 7:

TO THE EDITOR OF THE EVENING POST:
SIR: I have just seen the editorial statement in your issue of the 5th instant, that "pressure of the most extraordinary kind is being brought to bear on the Custom-house in this city by Assistant Secretary Maynard, to compel the officers to do things which he well knows would violate the President's pledges, degrade the public service, and debauch the party in power." The statement is utterly false, and as a journal with a reputation for fairness I shall expect you either to retract the charge or produce the proof that it is true.
J. H. MAYNARD.
WASHINGTON, April 7.

This letter was sent to Senator Hale, the Chairman of the Senate Committee appointed to investigate the operation of the Civil-Service Law under the present Administration, with a request that the Committee would visit this city, and inquire into the truth of the charge which Mr. Maynard so flatly denied. The Committee came accordingly, and the investigation has been made, beginning on Thursday of last week.

We wish to be strictly moderate in describing the result, and shall therefore simply say that there is only one way in which Mr. Maynard can escape the conclusion that in writing that letter he was guilty of deliberate falsehood. That way is by maintaining that the practices which he has just been proved to have indulged in at the Custom-house were not such as to discredit the President and degrade the service. This plea, however, if he put it forward, would be simply an inference of his own. The facts as proved before the Committee are, that he made out a "black list" of fifteen employees in the Appraiser's Department, and called on or "suggested" to Mr. McMullen, the Appraiser, to "recommend" their removal. One of these fifteen was Mr. Sherer, a sugar chemist of the highest standing in his profession, who had entered the service of the Government at its solicitation, and to his own pecuniary disadvantage, and whose removal without charges was therefore a distinct professional discredit. But no charges could Mr. Sherer succeed in obtaining. He was told that there was nothing against him. Mr. Maynard was distinctly informed, both by Mr. McMullen, the Appraiser, and Mr. Moore, the Assistant Appraiser, that the whole fifteen persons whose removal he had "suggested" were valuable officers, in whom their immediate superiors could find no fault, and whose removal would be a distinct loss to the service. Mr. Moore even said to him that if he was removing them as Republicans, he agreed that it was a good thing to do, but that if he was removing them as incompetent, he could tell him that they were in all respects most competent.

Mr. Maynard denied that he was removing them as Republicans, but still persisted that they must be removed. Two exceptions he made—one, that of Mr. Jacobs, whose name he struck from the list on hearing that he was a son of ex-Senator Jacobs of Brooklyn; the other, that of Mr. Leimbach, who took the precaution of going to see him and plead for his retention, in company with "Tim" Campbell, the Congressman from this city. On hearing from "Tim" that Mr. Leimbach was a constituent of his, Mr. Maynard struck his name from the list also. About the others he was inexorable, although as a matter of fact only four of them were actually removed; the remaining nine, as well as the two who were pardoned, were left in, probably owing to the fuss about the affair which began to be made when Mr. Maynard's appearance in politics, through his post-office circular, attracted attention. The pressure brought to bear on the Custom-house officers to effect these removals was sworn to in the most positive manner by its victims, Mr. McMullen and Mr. Moore, and their testimony was supported by Mr. Maynard's own letters, some of which it is not too strong to call shameful reading.

This was not all, however, nor the worst. It was proved that a man named McElwee was dismissed for insubordination and drunkenness. "Influence" went to work to get him restored. His restoration was actually ordered—that is, Mr. McMullen was ordered to recommend his reappointment, and he did it. It was then discovered that the reappointment was illegal, being forbidden by the Civil-Service Regulations, which provide that an officer dismissed for misconduct cannot be restored within a year. Nothing daunted by this, the brave Mr. Maynard got the rule modified to meet the case of this insubordinate drunkard, and had him put back, and he is in the service now. He is the son of the late Surgeon-General of the Confederate Army, and his "influence" is Mahoney, the Brooklyn Congressman.

We shall have more to say about this investigation hereafter. We merely wish now to call attention to the fact that Mr. Maynard has been proved guilty, not only of doing things which discredit the President, considering the promises he has made, and which degrade the public service, but of indulging in denials about it which ought to cause his prompt dismissal from his present place, and would cause it if he were in the service of any other civilized State, except France—for Boulanger's case unhappily proves that in France untruthfulness does not ruin a Government officer.

Secretary Fairchild has telegraphed, or caused or permitted to be telegraphed, from Washington an explanation of Mr. Maynard's doings in the Custom-house in this city, which unfortunately explains nothing. The only new contribution it makes to the subject is an acknowledgment that the Secretary knew of and authorized his subordinate's dismissals, removals, and restorations—something which those who have as much personal respect for Secretary Fairchild as we have will be very sorry to hear, because it is, though a generous sacrifice, a wholly useless one. Nobody—literally nobody—on whom the revelations made by the investigation on Thursday and Friday have made any impression will be in the slightest degree affected by it.

Mr. Fairchild appears to be living in that fool's paradise in which everybody, after three or four years of official life in Washington, seems to take up his abode. Two or three years ago, the apology he now puts forward for Mr. Maynard would have been accepted as, if not conclusive, at least weighty. But after the experience people have had during the last two years of the way the civil service has been managed, or rather mismanaged, in Maryland, in Pennsylvania, in Indiana, and Illinois, and of the indifference with which the remonstrances and protests of the Independents have been treated, of the coolness with which the public continued to be assured, in the teeth of notorious facts, that everything was going on as well as could be expected, and that there was nothing for any reasonable man to complain of, official "explanations" from Washington, whether they take the form of denials or lamentations, count for nothing. In other words, everybody connected with the Administration, from top to bottom, is discredited as an apologist touching Civil-Service Reform.

Therefore, if Mr. Fairchild, or any one else, wants to make it appear that his manipulations of the civil service have all had in view, not the fixing of caucuses and conventions, but the public good, he must go on the witness stand, papers in hand, and stand examination and cross-examination; and he must not take refuge behind "legal evidence" either. He must furnish us with human evidence—that is, the evidence on which men transact the ordinary business of life. For instance, when the Appraiser is ordered to ask for the dismissal of fifteen trusted and competent subordinates, without knowing why, and one of them is restored or exempted on the simple request of Congressman "Tim" Campbell, and another because he is the son of Senator Jacobs, it will not do to say that this was all along of those "sugar frauds," and that if we knew all about those "sugar frauds" we should see it was all right. It cannot be made right without telling all about those "sugar frauds," and convincing us that there are or have been any such frauds. Moreover, when a man of the personal and professional standing of Dr. Sherer is dismissed suddenly without cause assigned, and consequently dismissed with a stain on his reputation, it will not do for either Mr. Fairchild or Mr. Maynard to get rid of him and the public by mysterious nods and winks about "sugar frauds." Dr. Sherer's character is as high as Mr. Fairchild's, as high as Judge Maynard's, as high as President Cleveland's, or that of any member of the Cabinet; and people will never be content with seeing a stigma inflicted arbitrarily on such a man because he has had too much self-respect to get a "Tim" or a "Jake" to intercede for him at the Treasury.

Nor, when it is alleged on oath that Deputy-Collector Davis, and ten subordinates of his, all from Binghamton, N. Y., are allowed to absent themselves frequently from their duties here, in order to manage caucuses and conventions in Broome County, and that Davis got options

in real estate in Binghamton in order to sell a building site to the Government, and we ask is this true, and if so, how is it to be reconciled with the President's frequent pledges and promises about the political activity of office-holders, it will not do to answer us by crying, "Sugar frauds," and saying that Judge Maynard is a good man. We need a real explanation, not a sham one.

We might multiply these illustrations, but what would be the use? The painful truth is, that we doubt if a single independent voter in this State, of the thousands who supported President Cleveland in 1884, any longer attaches any importance to the utterances of the members of the Administration on the subject of Civil-Service Reform, or any longer refuses to believe that the President's promises and professions have been violated or disregarded on a great scale, with the utmost boldness, in sundry places and in divers manners, and that men like Judge Maynard and Surveyor Beattie have actually been detailed or told off to practise as much civil-service abuse as can be readily concealed or disguised when they are found out and exposed. Of course they must be shielded. It would be the worst kind of baseness to desert or sacrifice them.

We do not mean to say that anybody else has done better either in President Cleveland's or Secretary Fairchild's place than he has done. It will be a good while before we shall find men for high executive places who will be able to resist for a full Presidential term the influence of the purely official or political atmosphere at Washington in producing insensibility to the better sentiment of the country at large, even when it is that better sentiment which has given them their honors. Therefore, it is most desirable that the Senatorial investigation, such as is now pending in New York, into the operation of the Civil-Service Law, should be held annually. Nothing else will prevent its being evaded or nullified on a greater or less scale. Before its passage, the use of the offices as political spoils was a recognized and lawful practice, and there was, therefore, nothing for Congress to overhaul or inspect. Now, all this is changed. An annual visit from a Senatorial Committee to the leading post-offices and custom-houses would undoubtedly prevent such abuses as the present investigation is bringing to light, for they never would be perpetrated if exposure was certain within a year.

TWO NEW FIELDS FOR THE CIVIL-SERVICE RULES.

Secretary Fairchild in doubting, in his speech in Brooklyn the other night, whether the competitive system could be extended much further than it is at present, must have forgotten the Railway Mail Service and the Indian Service. Both of these are now exempt from the operation of the Civil-Service Law; both are, so far as the unofficial eye can see, just as fit fields for its operation as the Treasury or the Post-office, and both are suffering seriously, if not from their exemption from the rules, from the unchecked operation of the spoils system. We have never heard of any reason for exempting either of them. The work of the clerks in the Railway Mail Service is exactly like that of clerks in the post-offices. If there be any difference between them, it lies in the fact that the clerks in the Railway Service need better health, better eyes, defter fingers, and quicker perception and greater energy than the other Post-office clerks. They have not only to do much of their work at night, but have to contend, in sorting letters, reading addresses, and making up the bags, with the motion of the cars, and they have to display great promptness and despatch in putting out the mails at the various stations, and to be more than usually faithful and conscientious, because they are largely exempt from supervision or inspection and from the quick discovery of mistakes. If, therefore, the competitive system be a good way of discovering the best men for any department of the postal service, it is a good way of discovering them for this. If it be necessary in any department, it is still more necessary in this, because the duties are more wearing and responsible than in any other.

Nevertheless, the rules have never been extended to this branch of the service—why, we do not know. We have often inquired, but have never got any answer. In fact, this extension to the Railway Mail Service seems to be regarded in official circles at Washington as one of those things which it is elevating and ennobling to hope for and think about, but which it is useless to expect in a world as imperfect as this is. We believe Mr. Cabot Lodge some time ago introduced a bill in the House making the extension mandatory, but we have lately heard nothing of it, and fear it was intended rather to "make it hot for the Democrats," by calling attention to their enormities, than to curtail their powers of mischief. At present the general impression is, we fancy, both in and out of Congress, that the true reason of the exemption of this branch of the service from the rules was simply a desire, to use Tweed's expression, "to do something for the boys." That is, it was felt that it would not do to take the whole postal service away from the Congressional spoilsmen at once; that some residue of their old power would have to be left them, on the theory that they would not submit to total bereavement. But whatever the cause, the result is that the strain on the Railway Mail Service, considered as patronage, is greater than it was before there were any rules at all. That is, the fewer places there are left in which a Congressman can put his dependents, the more dependents he puts in each place. The situation is somewhat like that of a man who has been used to both whiskey and beer, and from whom the doctor has cut off the whiskey, and who accordingly trebles his consumption of the beer.

The same things may be said, *mutatis mutandis*, of the Indian Service. It, too, if any branch of the Administration needs the rules, needs them sorely. The duties are most responsible, and have to be performed where public observation or criticism of the manner of their performance is impossible. They need not only great intelligence, but very high character, and in some cases special training. In fact, the character and intelligence of men who represent a Christian nation in its dealings with helpless savages cannot be too high. If competitive examinations be a good mode of selecting men for responsible positions, the Indian Service is, in a peculiar degree, the place for it. If the surrender of any branch of the public service to Congressmen as spoils be objectionable anywhere, it is nowhere more objectionable than on the Indian reservations. All the arguments against it in any department apply to it with double force in this. Then why are Indian agents, farmers, and teachers not selected under the rules? We have never heard of any reason, and know of none, except the one we have suggested in the Railway Mail Service—a desire "to do something for the boys"—that is, leave some place where the Congressmen could revel in their old pastimes. The result has been that, owing to the fact that the Commissioner is a Tennesseean, the Indian Service is just now a sort of hunting-ground for the Congressmen of that State, as the Post-office Department used to be for the Indiana men in the old days of Morton and Brady. The Indians do not like it, and suffer from it, but the Indians do not vote or write for the press. Many of the results are discreditable and distressing, but the public does not see them, and has that fortitude under other people's woes for which even the meanest and weakest of us is distinguished.

THE INTERNAL REVENUE.

There is quite general agreement among the opponents of the Mills bill that instead of the reductions it proposes there should be a greater reduction in the internal-revenue taxes. This proposition is endorsed even by prohibitionists like Mr. Kerr of Iowa, and hence must be regarded by the party as its only escape, and may by outsiders be fairly held to be its settled policy. And it is to be further said that a number of protectionists have gone on the record, to which their constituents ought firmly to hold them, in favor of the total abolition of all internal-revenue taxes. The recent Congressional speeches in favor of such abolition are so numerous, and will be scattered so widely during the campaign, that we shall be obliged to pay some attention to them in order to keep abreast of the campaign.

Some indignantly deny that they propose free whiskey. What they do propose is, that the taxation of whiskey shall be left entirely with the States. They endeavor to win favor among their constituents by calling attention to the vast saving this would accomplish in local taxation of real estate and other taxable property. It affords them, in fact, no small bribe to offer to voters having heavy State taxes to pay. Herein lies its strength, but also its weakness, for there are several prohibition States where this bribe can have no force or value. Under their present laws Kansas, Iowa, and

Maine could get none of the surrendered whiskey revenue. Hence it is on other grounds and with other ends in view that such men as Kerr favor the abolition. Theirs is the high moral view, expressed in his speech, that it is a sin against heaven for any government, State, local, or national, to derive any revenue from the liquor traffic. So they will have nothing but absolutely untaxed whiskey.

Here, then, we have the two alternatives offered by the abolitionists—untaxed whiskey and State-taxed whiskey—offered by them; but what right have they to make the offer? The States must decide the matter, and the abolition of the national whiskey tax will place them under not the slightest legal or moral obligation to replace it with State taxes. If they did not do so, then prohibition would have hard sledding in the States where it has been adopted. With whiskey costing perhaps twice as much per gallon as it now costs per drink, and no Federal inspection, there would be no reason why any inhabitant of a prohibition State should go without it, or go far to get it; and especially since the Supreme Court, in the Bowman case, has opened wide the channels of inter-State transportation of such goods.

But suppose the States did undertake to appropriate the revenue lost to the Government by the abolition. How would that plan work? Could they agree among themselves, and make the tax everywhere equal? Think for a moment of the herculean task of bringing about this exact agreement between thirty-eight States, whose divorce laws, for an instance of something wherein they ought to agree, differ so widely. And remember that here there would be a heavy premium on bad faith in keeping the bargain. The State which first slightly reduced the tax, unless immediately followed by the rest, would gain in public revenue and in private manufacturing prosperity.

But suppose the agreement were kept. Suppose the State Government of each State collected as much tax on these articles as the Federal Government now collects within that State's bounds. What would be the share of each State in this mighty bribe which is offered them? Would there be any equality in the division? It is not hard to find out. Here are the internal-revenue collections in a few States for the fiscal year 1887:

Maine.....	$50,284	Mississippi.	$42,608
Illinois....	24,825,704	New York.	15,101,203
Vermont..	30,120	Alabama..	78,543
Kentucky.	12,417,530	Ohio.....	13,898,227

Illinois would get nearly 500 times as much as Maine, Kentucky 400 times as much as Vermont, New York 375 times as much as Mississippi, and Ohio 175 times as much as Alabama. Between these extremes the inequality would be as great as it possibly could be. How long would the States thus bled to gorge the treasuries of sister commonwealths cling to the arrangement? More than half the internal taxes of last year were collected in four of the States above named. The present Federal surplus is nothing to what theirs would be, and of course these hoards would be drawn from the States whose citizens consumed the goods—but not very long, for the simple reason that no such nonsense would be endured. It is bad enough to be contributing of one's hard earnings to a surplus of a common treasury; but pouring a surplus from one State into the treasury of another is certainly worse.

And there is no other way to avoid free whiskey, if the Federal tax is taken off. Unless the stuff is taxed in the State where it is made, it will flow unchecked and uncontrollable into adjoining States. There is no way to diffuse the tax geographically. At least, no advocate of the abolition has yet proposed one worth considering.

CHILI'S COMMERCE AND FINANCES.

THE last report of the Chilian Secretary of the Treasury serves to accentuate freshly the astonishing commercial advance of what is now, in many respects, the most vigorous and powerful of the South American nations. This advance may be summarily indicated in the statement that, during the last ten years, the country's revenues and foreign trade have each rather more than doubled. The Government, which in 1866 could count upon an income of but little more than $9,000,000, and in 1877 upon one of a little under $17,000,000, can now bring in estimates for 1888 of $32,439,736, and can point, at the same time, to a probable surplus of over $11,000,000. Foreign commerce has for some years reached a total of over $100,000,000 annually, as against $40,000,000 to $60,000,000 for the twenty years prior to 1872. Recalling the comparatively small population of Chili—probably still under three millions—the scale of commercial activity denoted by the figures now given is such as undoubtedly to put Chili at the head of all Spanish America, if not of the entire Latin race, in point of the proportion of foreign commerce to inhabitants. Indeed, we doubt if any nations except Great Britain, Belgium, and Holland surpass her in this respect.

The financial status of Chili is shown with sufficient clearness in the important operations of funding the foreign debt which have been recently consummated. Like most of the other South American republics, Chili had contracted a long series of foreign loans of various amounts and at varying rates of interest. These have now practically all been funded in a new issue of $30,000,000, taken by the Rothschilds, in February, 1886, at 96, with interest at 4½ per cent. The remaining foreign indebtedness brings the total up to $34,601,270, as the account stood at the beginning of 1887. To this must be added a domestic debt of $49,223,429, estimated in paper money, involving an annual interest charge of something more than $2,000,000. This is relatively a large debt, incurred, in great part, for the execution of the vast schemes of public improvements upon which Chili had already entered before the long war with Peru and Bolivia put new burdens upon her. That she will be able to carry them all seems to be the judgment of the money-market, always the best test of national credit.

The revenues of the Government are derived from customs duties, both import and export (the latter principally on saltpetre), from the railroads and telegraphs under public control, from taxes upon incomes, legacies, and land, from patents, sales of public lands, guano, etc. The complicated system of internal taxation is highly burdensome, and with the tariff laws calls urgently for revision, which the Government is anxious that Congress should at once set about. The estimated income for 1888 is $36,000,000, which, with a surplus of $8,000,000 carried over, will put at the disposition of the Government $44,000,000.

An analysis of the foreign trade of Chili, with an eye to determining our share in it, can only result in the same mortifying showing that we make in the commerce of all Central and South America. We have, in fact, had no part at all in the wonderful commercial expansion of Chili. Our trade with that country stands almost at the same figures which it had reached in 1860; and whereas our trade of about $4,000,000 then represented 10 per cent. of the total foreign commerce of Chili, now it stands for less than 4 per cent. In our studied indifference to all "abroad," we have sat idly by to see ourselves distanced even in those articles of manufacture in which we have boasted that we were unexcelled—Germany, for example, selling Chili, in 1882, $109,000 worth of sewing-machines to our $7,000, $112,000 worth of pianos to our $7,000, $234,000 worth of boots and shoes and $500,000 worth of candles, while we sold not a dollar's worth of either. The figures for 1886, as given in the 'Estadística Comercial' for that year, do not materially differ from those just cited. In all the great manufactures, in iron, cotton, and woollen, even in machinery and railroad materials, we are hopelessly beaten by England and Germany. In lumber we head the list, simply because our rivals have none to sell; as we do also in petroleum.

The current tariff discussions have made the reason for this state of things abundantly clear, as also its remedy. Roving commissions to "investigate" the state of our trade in South America can accomplish little. We observe that Mr. Hopkins, in his recent address before the Chamber of Commerce, asserted that the last one did American interests more harm than good. Nor can much be expected from Pan-American Congresses, in the line of the pending McCreary bill. This is clear from the nature of the references to that measure in the Spanish-American press. Its political aspects, its aim to promote a solidarity of feeling and community of aspiration among the American republics, meet hearty sympathy; its commercial bearings are looked upon with either disgust or ridicule. Indeed, the great republic of the North is regarded with a strange mixture of sentiment throughout all Spanish-speaking America. There is pride in her history and development, a desire to copy her institutions, and eagerness to keep step with the march of her civilization; but there is amazement at her commercial folly—seeking to get everything and give nothing—and laughter at the appeals we make to the

pockets of the Hispano-Americans in the name of their patriotism.

THE ENGLISH EXCHEQUER OF THE JEWS.

A LEARNED and interesting lecture on "The Exchequer of the Jews of England," which Dr. Charles Gross, a young American scholar, delivered in London last June, is published from the office of the (London) *Jewish Chronicle*. The Exchequer of the Jews was a branch of the great Exchequer of England, and was wholly devoted to the affairs of the Jews. It is referred to by Green, who mentions that Richard I. organized a mixed court of Jews and Christians for the registration of their contracts; and by Hume, who says that the revenue arising from exactions upon the Jews was so considerable that there was a particular court of exchequer set apart for managing it. Not quite so scant a notice may be found in an elaborate treatise on the modern history of the Jews, contributed in 1850 by Selig Cassel to Ersch and Gruber's 'Encyklopädie' (section 2, vol. xxvii, p. 117).

Dr. Gross derives his materials at first hand from researches in the Public Record Office, and even one of his printed authorities, Prynne's 'Demurrer,' is not mentioned at all by the writers named above. He is thus able to present many details which are not otherwise easily accessible, and which are full of interest to the student of history. He is led by his investigations to infer that the Jewish Exchequer was not established until nearly the end of the twelfth century, which would limit its existence to a hundred years, as the Jews were expelled from England in 1290, and were not permitted to return until the time of Cromwell. The position of the Jews in England in the Middle Ages was much the same as on the Continent. They had no legal status. As Green says, they were simply the king's chattels, and their lives and goods were at the king's mercy. Dr. Gross makes the surprising statement that the kings of England posessed greater power in this regard than the rulers of France and Germany. We read in Hallam that the policy of the kings of France was to employ the Jews as a sponge to suck their subjects' money, which they might afterwards express with less odium than direct taxation would incur. In like manner the German emperors, particularly Louis the Bavarian, and Charles IV., in public rescripts expressly declared that the lives and property of the Jews were theirs, to dispose of as to them seemed good. Any pretext was good enough to justify this pretension; but, however the pretexts may have varied in various countries, the practice was everywhere the same. The actual fact was, that the Jews needed the royal protection from indiscriminate spoliation, and had to accept the comparatively discriminating spoliation of the kings as the lesser of two evils. Whatever little was thus left to them was so much clear gain.

Although they were grievously oppressed and robbed, there was occasionally a monarch who took a little pity on their distress and showed that he felt some slight qualms of conscience. Hume relates that in 1255 the Jews, worn out with their sufferings, besought Henry III. for permission to retire with their effects out of the kingdom. The King replied, "How can I remedy the oppressions you complain of? I am myself a beggar. I owe above 200,000 marks; and if I had said 300,000, I should not exceed the truth; I am obliged to pay my son, Prince Edward, 15,000 marks a year; I have not a farthing, and I must have money, no matter where it comes from or how." He then sold the Jews to his brother Richard, Earl of Cornwall, in order, as Matthew of Paris says, that those whom the one brother had flayed the other might embowel. It is gratifying to know that Richard took compassion on their poverty.

The Exchequer of the Jews was an ingenious device for enabling the kings of England to levy contributions upon the property of the Jews. Its principal officials were stationed at Westminster, and were known as "Justices of the Jews," or "Wardens of the Jews." They varied in number from two to five. They were barons of the Exchequer, and were appointed by the king. There were also subordinate officers, such as a keeper of the rolls and writs, an escheator, and clerks. The "Presbyter of all the Jews of England," who seems to have held his office for life, was also an officer of the Jewish Exchequer. Dr. Gross conjectures that he scrutinized and verified doubtful Hebrew contracts, and would be appealed to by the Justices for information concerning disputed points of Jewish usage. All contracts between Jews and Christians had to be made in writing in the presence of two Jews, two Christians, (these being the four chirographers), two scribes and two clerks. The charters or acknowledgments of debt were in the form of a chirograph, *i. e.*, two duplicate deeds written upon one membrane, afterwards severed into two parts along an indented line, dividing horizontally the word *chirographum*. The part with the seal of the debtor remained in the hands of the Jew; the counterpart was deposited in the common chest or ark, which had three locks, the two Christians keeping one key, the two Jews a second, and the two clerks a third. There were also three seals distributed in like manner. When the debt was paid, the Jew wrote out a release or quitclaim, on presenting which to the custodian of the chest the debtor received the counter-chirograph duly cancelled. If the counterfoil of an obligation was not deposited in a chest of the chirograph, the Jew could not lawfully claim the money due him; if he released the debtor privily, *i. e.*, without giving notice to the chirographers or to the Justices of the Jews, the debtor could be called upon to pay a second time. In order to sell or transfer a debt, it was necessary for the Jews to secure permission from the King.

It will be seen that this system has some resemblance to our present system of recording deeds and mortgages and satisfactions of mortgages; and it may be that it was originally designed to serve a similar purpose, and to prevent Jewish creditors from claiming more than was justly due them, or Christians from evading the payment of their just debts. So far as it performed this function it was perhaps beneficial to both parties, and particularly to the Jews. But it developed two other very important functions: it enabled the kings to gauge the wealth of the Jews, and, secondly, to collect the contributions which they did not pay willingly.

The chief source of crown revenue from the Jewry consisted of tallages, which were arbitrary taxes levied at the pleasure of the king, and sometimes amounted to enormous sums. It is generally said that King John once wrested from the Jews a sum equal to a year's revenue of his realm. If any one refused to pay his tallage, or perhaps only the last instalment of it, it was the custom of the Exchequer functionaries to confiscate the debts that were due him. When a tallage was contemplated, delegates of the Exchequer went to the various towns where chests of chirographs were kept, and made an inventory of all the obligations found therein, which were afterwards entered in the rolls of the Justices of the Jews. Occasionally even the chests themselves were brought to Westminster. These lists served to give the King a clue as to the tallageability of the Jews, and afforded him a means of compensation in case they did not pay the impost. The chirographs of confiscated debts were sent from the local chests to Westminster, where the debtors came to liquidate them and to secure the cancelled obligation. A similar proceeding is not entirely unknown to a generation still upon the stage. In 1860 the Confederate States Government declared all debts due by Southern merchants to their Northern creditors confiscated, and called upon the debtors to pay the money into the public treasury, thus taking a leaf out of the book of the English kings of the thirteenth century.

Besides its fiscal functions, the Jewish Exchequer was the court that tried all civil and criminal actions in which a Jew was concerned. Its jurisdiction was exclusive, other courts being warned not to interfere with pleas belonging to the Justices of the Jews. Dr. Gross declares that on the whole it redounded to their benefit, and was the ægis of Israel against excessive popular and baronial violence. It accorded them more justice than they could have expected from the local civil and ecclesiastical courts. On the other hand, he says (and his view seems a correct one) that the constant confiscations by the Royal Exchequer of debts due to the Jews added greatly to the hatred of the Jews that culminated in their expulsion. It seems very likely, indeed, that the great barons who owed money to the Jews, much preferred to deal with a class of creditors whom they could browbeat or cajole by turns, and placate by a payment on account, rather than face the monarch whose need of money was pressing, and who had the means of enforcing his demands. In Magna Charta, King John agreed that, if a debt should happen to fall into his hands, he would not take more than the property pledged in payment of the debt. In 1257 the petition of the barons prays Henry III. to remedy the grievance that the lands of wards, pledged to the Jews for debts, fall into the hands of the great men of the realm, who will not give them up again, even when payment of the debts is offered.

Dr. Gross concludes with an appeal to the Jews of England to give to the world the still unpublished records of their past by printing a selected portion of the rolls of parchments in the Public Record Office containing the memoranda and transactions of the Justices of the Jews. Of these there are some 122 rolls, consisting of about 720 membranes, of which the average size is about two feet long and eight inches wide. His testimony to their great value as affording material for Anglo-Jewish history will be readily accepted by his readers, and it is to be hoped that his suggestion will be followed up. If an occasion of this kind presented itself to the public-spirited and wealthy Jews of New York, it would be improved without delay.

THE PAPAL RESCRIPT.

DUBLIN, May 11, 1888.

FOR many months it has been felt that some definite expression of opinion on Irish affairs was impending from the Vatican. British influence was evidently being exercised to this end. Few, however, were prepared for the rescript that has reached us, containing such a complete condemnation of the Plan of Campaign and boycotting, untempered by any expression of sympathy, which would have seemed so natural,

towards the Irish movement in its general drift and character. So momentous a step was not taken without full consideration. Monsignor Persico, on whose impressions the rescript was probably formulated, was in Ireland for some time; he associated with all classes, consulted men of every shade of opinion, and, I believe, made every effort to arrive at fair conclusions. Yet, if we are to judge by the rescript, he has not grasped the salient points of the situation, a failure which would not be surprising in any stranger after a few months of personal inquiry into the affairs of any country. A bare condemnation of some of the means used to advance the cause is a poor result of studying the enigmatical Irish question by an authority so deeply interested in its solution as the Vatican. This is but another, added to the innumerable instances that might be cited, of the mistakes made in supposing that difficult political and social problems can be best studied on the spot. Carried away by individual cases and experiences, the inquirer loses sight of those general principles and considerations which afford the only clue to a just estimate. Prof. Cairnes's conclusions regarding the principles really at stake in your war of the Rebellion, arrived at in the seclusion of Trinity College, Dublin, after consulting those who had devoted their attention to American affairs, and studying writers and thinkers on both sides, were far more correct than they would have been if derived from a brief sojourn at the seat of war.

The rescript virtually requires the Irish people to surrender at discretion. The Plan of Campaign might be abandoned—it never had Mr. Parnell's full approval, and has always been somewhat doubtfully accepted by thoughtful men; but to receive into Christian fellowship those "who in the exercise of their right take vacant farms," and those who support the Government in the present conflict, would be to abandon the very key of the position. That Monsignor Persico should arrive at any other conclusion was not likely. The envoy is an ecclesiastic. The Vatican regards everything from an ecclesiastical point of view. Men and nations are important to it only in so far as they affect the supremacy of the Church. Leaving his own country covered with the wrecks of suppressed monastic institutions, a country where ecclesiastics are fettered in many ways; where, if we are to judge by such books as Garibaldi's 'Memorie,' hatred of his order has deeply penetrated large classes in the community—Monsignor Persico comes to Ireland to be fêted by high and low; to find the progress of that order entirely unimpeded; to see splendid monastic institutions rising on all hands; to find industrial and reformatory establishments managed by ecclesiastics enjoying large and increasing Government grants, practically uncontrolled in their application; to find the Government, the representatives of the class in England hitherto most opposed to Catholicism, ready to promise anything if only agrarian and political turmoil were subdued; to find also the Irish people as Catholic as possible, and Catholicism in the dominant country—largely through the influence of men like Cardinals Newman and Manning—more respected than ever before since the Reformation. Perceiving all this, could he conclude otherwise than that a cessation of the present struggle would be desirable?

Probably neither he nor the Vatican was prepared for the spirit in which the rescript has been received. The bishops have not yet spoken, but, whatever attitude they take up, can hardly materially influence the situation. The Unionists have performed a complete volte-face regarding the Papal supremacy. "I am beginning to think that we Protestant home-rulers are the only Protestants left in Ireland," writes an Episcopal clergyman from the south. "Where am I at all?" said another of the same cloth in my hearing. "Am I a Catholic or am I a Protestant? Where am I to go to seek spiritual consolation—to Rome, to my Primate, or to the Presbyterians? I wonder could the Quakers give me any?" A portrait of his Holiness is advertised as exhibited by the chief Conservative print-seller in town. A Unionist comic paper has a cartoon this week in which Erin is depicted taking refuge on a chair from a swarm of cockroaches, "Dillon," "Davitt," "Parnell," "Gladstone," "Home Rule," etc., while his Holiness as St. Patrick, an aureole round his head, deluges them with scalding "Pope's decree vermin-killer," and comforts her with the words: "Have patience, Erin, and I will rid you of the wretched vermin."

On the other hand, the Catholic representatives of public opinion meet the rescript in a spirit of most determined opposition, which, in any other cause, would have the sympathy of all Protestants, supposed lovers of liberty and independence. The *Freeman's Journal*, after an elaborate inquiry into "What the decree really is," concludes that it is binding only in so far as the supposed facts on which it is based are true; that the Plan of Campaign is condemned by the rescript only where the rent objected to "has been fixed by mutual consent," and where the law courts have afforded an opportunity of their being fixed "within the limits of equity"; and that boycotting is unjustifiable only where it has proved "a new form of persecution and proscription, ruthlessly put in force against persons who are satisfied with, and are prepared to pay, the rent agreed on with their landlord." *United Ireland* is more emphatic:

"Their position [that of the Irish people] now is simple. They will regard this pronouncement of the Fathers of the Inquisition as a pious opinion founded upon grotesquely fallacious premises, and draw a salutary warning from it of the dangers of coming to conclusions upon imperfect and misleading information. . . . This circular will pass, like the one six years ago [that fulminated in vain against the testimonial to Mr. Parnell], without making more than a momentary ripple on the consciences of the Irish people, and yet without impairing in the faintest degree their respect for the authority and wisdom of the princes of the Church."

The last reservation is as puzzling to some Protestant minds as are the sentiments with which the paper begins the consideration of the subject:

"Divine it [the Church] is, and perfect, informed with the Wisdom and the Spirit of its Founder, the Rock of Ages, the Lamp of Truth, the Refuge and the Ark of fallen human kind. The Church never makes mistakes; its human engineers sometimes do. The Divine Inspiration cannot err; the clerks, the secretaries, the dignitaries, the individual human beings who man its bureaus, can err just as freely as any other men."

John Dillon is clearer:

"It does seem to me a curious thing that one of the great grounds on which we decline—and I think justly decline—to be ruled from Westminster is that we object, as every people in the world who have ever tasted of liberty, or who have any self-respect, object, to be ruled by men in temporal concerns who don't understand the circumstances under which they live. And are we to be told that while we struggle and make sacrifices, and have maintained for years the desperate strife against a foreign rule at Westminster, we are to submit or accept the foreign rule of a number of Italians in Rome, no matter how holy they may be? It is a monstrous doctrine; it is a doctrine which, I venture to say, the authorities in Rome will never attempt to maintain, and which, if they did attempt to maintain to-morrow, the Irish race would stand up like one man and refuse to submit to it. No, the Irish people have shown, as I contend, in the face of almost unparalleled difficulties and sufferings and dangers, that the sacred cause of liberty is as dear to them at least as to any other race of men who inhabit this earth. They have shown that they will submit to no foreign domination on the soil of Ireland. And while we have shown in the past, and shall show in the future, a devotion to the Head of the Church in whose doctrines we have been reared, and our fathers before us, which will compare favorably with the devotion of any of the great Powers of Europe, or of our friends the English Catholics, we will show also, I trust and believe, that we know what liberty means, and we know how to draw the distinction between devoted obedience to the Church in spiritual matters and absolute independence of everybody except the Irish people in temporal matters. . . . The people of Ireland would be idiots if they dropped these weapons. No one who has not lived among the people of Ireland, no one who has not Irish blood in his veins, and who has not been born and bred up among the circumstances in which we are placed, is fit to judge of the policy which the Irish people should follow and adopt."

These, and similar pronouncements from other leading Catholic speakers, have been received with vociferous applause by the assemblages addressed. They show the spirit in which the rescript will probably be regarded by the Irish people in the main, while there are, of course, many Catholics outside or on the borders of the National ranks inclined to say, "We told you so," and who will accept it much more literally and obediently. On the whole, the incident will be beneficial. William O'Brien and John Dillon meant only what was right and just in promulgating the Plan of Campaign; as worked by them directly it was used only in cases where a desperate remedy was needed for a desperate position. But the promulgation established a dangerous principle, and conduced to aggravate the tendency, already too rife here, to harry all landlords, good and bad, and to render as difficult as possible the collection of all rents, however moderate. So with boycotting. There is every difference between the social ostracism of those who take farms from which have been evicted tenants willing to pay just rent, and "boycotting" as practised in Kerry, where harmless men are shot down in the midst of their agonized families by cold-blooded ruffians, and where those who have helped in the slightest degree to convict the criminals are shunned like lepers. The rescript will compel the people at large to consider their ways more narrowly than they have heretofore done, and will prevent the clergy from following too blindly and invariably the prejudices and passions of their flocks. Moreover, it will further the cause of Home Rule in England, by tending to dissociate from it the idea of Rome rule. In the interests of liberty and independence of judgment all the world over, it will have good effects. While not rendering the Irish less Catholic in all that is best in Catholicism, it must help to undermine their theoretically implicit submission to the Vatican as a power in the ordinary affairs of life. John Dillon's indignant denunciation of foreign domination cannot be taken to apply only within the four seas of Ireland.

Seldom were the Irish people calmer, more resolute and determined than they now are. Their national cause has shed much that was base, and is being urged upon a distinctly higher plane, which facilitates its being further joined and influenced by the noblest and purest minds in the United Kingdom. This tendency was strikingly illustrated by the proceedings at the Eighty Club the other evening, and especially by Mr. Parnell's speech. D. B.

—Since the foregoing was written, a letter

has appeared from Archbishop Walsh, the most responsible Irish ecclesiastical politician. It is dated from Rome last Monday. In it he says (the italics are his own):

"The Irish people, whether at home or abroad, will, I trust, accept my assurance that neither the Nationalist movement nor the National League is in the smallest degree injuriously affected by the recent decree. Beyond this I do not wish to go. As no one would be justified in supposing that the Irish cause is even indirectly censured by the recent act of the Holy See, so neither should we be justified in asserting that the Holy See was influenced in it by a desire to hasten on the triumph of our great constitutional movement. *But that this will be the necessary result of what has taken place, I, for my part, have not the shadow of a doubt.*"

THE NEW GALLERY.

LONDON, May 11.

THE opening of the New Gallery on the 8th inst. by invitation to a very crowded private view, and on the 9th to the general public, has been anxiously expected by artists and lovers of art as an event of the greatest importance. All doubts and fears as to the success of this undertaking are now at rest, and have given place to the unlimited satisfaction of artists, critics, and society in general.

All praise is due to Messrs. Hallé and Comyns Carr, the directors, who, in the incredibly short space of three months, have erected the most delightful picture gallery we have yet seen in London, and they are to be congratulated on their courage in carrying on their work in the face of so many difficulties and doubts and such half-hearted support from many of the artists themselves. It is true that they had the entire sympathy of Burne-Jones, Watts, and Alma-Tadema, and the certainty of their sending all the work they could have ready and could dispose of to the new exhibition, although the latter two were under the obligation to send to the Academy also. J. E. Millais, Holman Hunt, W. B. Richmond, A. Parsons, Onslow Ford, Giovanni Costa, M. R. Corbett, H. Herkomer, and A. Legros also promised pictures, although they determined at the same time to give some of their work to the Grosvenor and to the Royal Academy. It was feared by the pusillanimous that the three exhibitions could not flourish at the same time, and that to compete with the well-established Grosvenor Gallery would be more than rash. Perhaps under better management the Grosvenor might have been a formidable rival, but now that the three exhibitions are open, the artists who chose to remain faithful to Sir Coutts Lindsay are very indignant at the want of courtesy and discrimination shown them in the hanging of their works, and also at the exclusion of certain pictures at the last minute which had been personally chosen and solicited by the director himself. Complaints are very general on those grounds, and not a little surprise is expressed at the lack of management and of common politeness, in such strong contrast with the treatment received in former years.

The entrance of the New Gallery is in Regent Street through a narrow passage (which we hear is to be converted into a more appropriate entrance), to a beautiful marble hall of *giallo antico*, round which runs a gallery supported by columns of cipollino marble; a fountain plays in the centre, and shrubs and plants in groups serve to set off the sculptures in marble and bronze here displayed. This hall is of very charming effect, both in color and arrangement: the balustrade running round it, at present gilt and ordinary in design, is to be changed for small columns of alabaster ornamented with gold. From below, one sees the water-color drawings, pastels, and silverpoint studies in the balcony, hung on a background of gold Japanese paper.

The chief pieces of sculpture are Prof. Legros's "Young Satyr," exquisitely modelled and executed with great knowledge and ease; Mr. Swynnerton's large design for a fountain; Mr. Bates's "Peace and War"; a dead Christ bas-relief in bronze by Miss Elinor Hallé; and a small statuette of the "Mower," by H. Thornycroft, with many interesting busts and medals.

On entering the west gallery the work of Burne-Jones faces us. Those who are in sympathy with his pictures are unanimous in declaring that he has surpassed himself in producing the most exquisite piece of pure bright color in his "Danaë and the Tower of Brass"; the most powerful of all his designs in "The Doom Fulfilled," besides the most perfect drawing of the nude in both the figures of Andromeda. In the first of the series, "The Rock of Doom," the maiden is chained to the rock near the shore, expecting her death, while Perseus, passing in the air with his winged sandals and helmet of darkness, first sees her. The action of Perseus exactly expresses that he is independent of any firm footing: he just skims above rock and sea, his feet nearly touching them—his handsome face full of surprise and devotion as he gazes at the maiden whose timid, resigned look answers his. Joppa is the background—very gray, with sober bits of green cliff between; the sea is blue-green; Perseus, in sombre armor beautifully designed, serves as a foil to the ivory pallor of the naked Andromeda. The idealization of the female form is very successful, and a study for this figure in the gallery above, and others for Perseus's armor, show how thoroughly this master prepares himself for every part of his design. There is no bright color anywhere, and yet the whole work is quite powerful and harmonious. In the companion picture, "The Doom Fulfilled," Perseus is slaying the monster after having fought with it. The long, dark-green, slimy dragon is a wonderful invention. In its coils Perseus is balancing himself while he is prepared to strike the cruel head still hissing defiance at him. The maiden, seen from behind, chained to her rock, which makes the background to the coils of the dragon, is anxiously watching the combat. The design and carrying out of every detail leave nothing to be desired, and the sombre color harmonizes perfectly with the character of the subject. Between these two Perseus subjects is placed the taller picture of "Danaë and the Tower of Brass." The slim, fair-haired maiden, clad in a closely pleated inner garment of purple, with a drapery of bright crimson wrapped round her, stands beside a dark cypress tree. Her pale face looks startled and full of foreboding of a disastrous future, as through an open bronze door she sees past the cool courtyard a troop of workmen erecting a brazen tower, already well advanced. King Acrisius stands among them urging them to activity. It is in this picture that we have all the magic power and intensity of color of the earlier work of this great painter, combined with all the delicate, sensitive workmanship of these later years. Every inch of canvas is exquisitely finished: the deep-blue flags in the foreground, the paving-stones of the yard beyond, the cypress tree, and the blue-green bronze door—all are treated with minute skill, forming as a whole a delightful harmony.

Immediately opposite to Burne-Jones is Legros's "Femmes en Prière," a very perfect work, and we greet with delight the appearance of this painter after several years of absence from exhibitions. Here we have austere tints of gray, black, white, and flesh-color in the kneeling figures of the praying women, of whom the one in front holds a lighted taper. Their faces, framed in white caps, have the innocent, healthful charm of village life. The painting is throughout very masterly, especially in the treatment of the masses of warm black in the women's cloaks. There is also a "Dead Christ" by Legros in this same room, less interesting as a subject, but, for its knowledge of anatomy and in its appropriate realization, equally fine. Holman Hunt exhibits a portrait of a gentleman, careful and hard and metallic in execution, as most of his recent work is. In G. F. Watts's "Angel of Death," No. 30, we see a grand, powerful figure in slaty gray, with head swathed in white, the figure encircled by strong black wings, holding in her lap a dead baby, whose face her hand hides from our view. The angel, in her whole attitude, expresses consolation and tenderness rather than relentless power. The execution is in Watts's best manner, with the peculiar charm of suggestiveness which he considers appropriate for allegorical subjects, though the baby seems scarcely enough carried out, its hands being hidden in the angel's lap without sufficient reason for their disappearance. Although not one of his best works as a whole, this is a very characteristic one, and bears the magic touch of true genius.

Among the imaginative works must be mentioned Mr. J. M. Strudwick's little picture of "Acrasia." The knight, in beautifully designed armor, sleeps in the "bower of bliss." He has been pelted with roses, and is lying in the shade of an apple-tree, through whose branches beautiful girls, in closely pleated white draperies, are seen watching his slumbers. One, who plays on a lute, is probably intended for Acrasia, the "false enchantress" of Spenser's tale. This work of Strudwick's carries perfection of finish and design to the very highest point, and yet, although each leaf of the apple-tree is most carefully drawn and studied, as also each plant among the grass, the whole is perfectly in keeping, and has a misty feeling of dreamland in its wan color, a perfume of romance and the ideal world, strongly differing from its impressionist neighbor, "Homewards," by E. Stott of Oldham. Nothing could illustrate better the unsatisfactory nature of exhibitions than the proximity of these two works, as different in aim as in manner. Mr. Stott's early spring-green landscape, with a rosy-cheeked ploughboy driving calves beside a stream, makes Strudwick's work look colorless, while Mr. Stott's study looks too crude and sketchy beside this highly finished picture. Even the best intentions to hang everything most advantageously must fail somewhere, and I only mention this instance as an example of the disappointment a painter feels at an accident which lessens for the time the value of his work.

Sir John Millais sends two female studies, the one, No. 99, "Forlorn," very garish in color. A maiden, leaning on a balcony on which is thrown a Persian rug, looks far away towards an evening sky, with distant country. Her dress is red, and hastily painted in streaks; her face is of a chalky white, with carmine cheeks, quite out of harmony with the background. "The Last Rose of Summer" (No. 157), in the same room, is more carefully painted, though lacking any definite intention, as do most of the works of this master of late years. A girl in a dark-red cloak over an orange-colored skirt, with a broad-brimmed black hat, stands before us, holding a rose; the background is distant

gray sky. It is a pleasing and forcibly painted portrait of the model, and that is all.

Tadema has sent five works, but of these only one (No. 131), "He loves me, he loves me not," gives an adequate idea of his skill. This artist always seems to us at his best in his smaller canvases, and this one, for freshness of detail, clever painting, and grace of arrangement, leaves nothing to be desired. Two girls, in their clinging draperies, are lounging on a couch, while one of them pulls a marguerite to pieces. The window behind them is open, and between the blind and the window-sill one sees the tops of temples and palaces and bits of gardens and trees. In the room all is cool and subdued, but beyond the fierce light of a southern summer touches everything. In "Venus and Mars" we have a small child in a pink-red shirt, holding a toy; behind him is the inevitable white marble balustrade, beyond which is a vividly blue sea. The oyster-shells on the ledge are very perfectly painted, but the *tout ensemble* is decidedly unpleasant. The sketch for the "Heliogabalus" now at the Academy, and two portraits, which look true enough to nature, but have no living quality, complete his contributions.

Mr. C. E. Hallé, the director, exhibits a large picture of "Paolo and Francesca," a well-worn theme, which he has treated with more movement and expression than we are wont to expect. The lovers are in a garden, the book is falling to the ground; Paolo, on his knees, is clasping Francesca's hands; her face is full of ecstasy. The draperies are harmonious in color; in the foreground a tiny fountain plays, and we cannot help finding fault with its miniature dimensions, which must strike the most unpractised eye as serving neither for use nor for beauty. Mr. Hallé sends also a portrait of the late Stephen Heller, the delightful pianist and composer, and a lady's full-length portrait, as refined and graceful as his portraits of women always are.

There is no lack of portraits at the New Gallery. Herkomer, Holl, E. A. Ward, Fairfax Murray, John Sargent, Shannon, John Collier, Mrs. Swynnerton, and W. B. Richmond, all have exhibited, and most of them more than one. They are generally good examples of their different manners, but no one has shown so many and such thoroughly good works in this line as W. B. Richmond. His portrait of Miss Gladstone (for Newnham College) is admirably painted. The lady looks austere and dignified; the color of the dress is a subdued dark red. Sir Edward Malet, in full court dress, is also a very interesting work by the same artist. Mrs. Andrew Lang and Mrs. Cunningham Graham are excellent, both in tasteful arrangement and in the care with which all the detail is painted and chosen; but most delightful of all is the portrait of Mrs. Drummond. This lady wears a dress of dull heliotrope-colored brocade, the background being dark blue. The movement of figure and hands is very graceful, and the pale, expressive face turning towards the spectator seems about to speak. No wonder that Mr. Richmond is so popular as a painter of fine ladies, for he spares no pains to make each portrait a picture which will always be interesting even when the likeness will count for nothing.

I pass by many large compositions filling up spaces on the walls, because they seem deficient in interest and ordinary in treatment. The landscapes are very good and of every variety. The poetic school is well represented by Giovanni Costa of Rome, No. 77, "The First Smile of Morn," by M. R. Corbett, who also sends a morning effect of sunlight striking a pine wood —an Italian landscape of great beauty. Mark Fisher sends spring effects, with the exquisitely dappled sky which is his specialty. G. H. Boughton's "Harvest of the Dawn" represents him fairly well: the mushroom gatherers are rather dull-like in action, but the landscape has more color than most of his later work. William Padgett and David Murray send many canvases of merit, and Arthur Lemon, compositions with centaurs of remarkable imaginative power. In "A Struggle," No. 48, two centaurs are wrestling near the sea on a dreary cold wave-beaten shore; in "A Vendetta," the scene is in a forest glade beside a pool: the centaur has been struck by an arrow, and is this time struggling with death. The composition of the landscape and its color are very fine.

There is no space to write of the water-colors in the balcony and the silverpoint drawings and studies for pictures, although they form an interesting feature of the exhibition. I hope that imaginative art may have found encouragement and a just appreciation in the New Gallery, and that this new venture may prove as successful as it promises to be. The system of hanging each picture with a space between it and its neighbor, which has been adhered to, is much to be commended. The walls are covered with National Gallery red flock paper.

Correspondence.

A SWISS POPULAR ASSEMBLY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Some time since you published an interesting account of some researches made at the City Library of Trèves by Mr. George L. Burr, Instructor in History in this University.

I now send an extract from a letter recently received, giving an account of his visit to the Landesgemeinde of Canton Appenzell, thinking it may interest your readers, as giving an example of democratic procedure, pure and simple.—I remain very truly yours,

Andrew D. White.

Cornell University, May 22, 1888.

"We were welcomed at the home of Oberrichter Sturzenegger, and given a window which looked out directly into the great square, into which the twelve thousand odd voters were closely packed. All came *anständig gekleidet*—as the law provides—in solemn black, and with the swords of their ancestors at their sides. At the appointed hour of eleven, the Landammann (no longer Colonel Roth, who has claimed the exemption from the burdens of office to which every functionary is entitled at the end of six years), the six other members of the Regierungsrath, and the Land-Weibel, or crier, were escorted with great ceremony to the platform which stood near one end of the square. The proceedings were opened by a moment of silent prayer, and by a national anthem which was sublimely sung. Then the Landammann delivered an address which, judging by its reception, must have been eloquent, though at our distance I could hear only occasional sentences. Thereupon the assembly proceeded to its first order of business—the auditing of the year's accounts. The question was upon their acceptance as correct, or the appointment of an auditing committee, and they were accepted outright by an enormous majority. Never have I seen a more curious sight than the coming up of all those white hands out of that black crowd. Next came the election of officers. The question was first put always upon the *re*election of the present incumbent; and in every case the reëlection was almost unanimous—a fact which is perhaps less surprising when one remembers that the highest salary paid to any public official in Appenzell is two hundred francs a year—the judges of its Supreme Court get six francs a day, but only during the session. As Judge Sturzenegger laughingly said, it is the way the canton manages to lay a tax on brains—for every man elected is bound to accept or move out. He added that there is at present in the canton only *one* regularly educated lawyer, and he has to eke out an existence by keeping a *Wirthschaft* besides.

"Funnily enough, only over the unimportant but noisy office of Land-Weibel was there a sharp contest. As the chief qualification is a stentorian voice, each of the candidates was required to recommend himself to the voters in a short speech, and you can think of nothing more comical than this competition; for, whether the aspirant piped or roared at the outset, he always ended in a squeak.

"The manner of taking the votes is singularly fair to minorities. We had occasion to note this, especially in the filling of the two vacancies in the Regierungsrath. A mass of nominations were made, and taken down in writing. Then the question was put separately on the name of *each* candidate. From these the *two* who had received the fewest votes were now eliminated, and the question taken on each of the remainder, and so on until only two were left, when the decision was, of course, apparent, though more than once the vote had to be taken over and over before the Landammann would trust his eyes to declare it. On the announcement of the final vote, the position of the successful candidate in the crowd was shown by the thrusting up of all the swords in his vicinity, and the band sallied forth to escort him to the platform. For the second vacancy the question was then put again, as before, upon all the candidates but the elected one.

"After the elections came the legislation. Only three bills were submitted. The first, the repeal of a practically obsolete law for the guarantee of cattle, met with no opposition. The second, the proposed forcible closing of the *Wirthschaften* at twelve at night, was rejected by a considerable majority. The third, providing that even *resident* peddlers should pay a license, and that a license—not yearly, as with us, but once for all, at the opening of the business—should also be required of the keepers of *Wirthschaften* (a bill, that is, to abridge the right of every citizen to peddle or sell wine as he pleases), was in both its clauses voted down overwhelmingly. The defeat of these measures was explained to us, and I think justly, as proceeding far less from any opposition to the ends they sought than from suspicion and impatience at their encroachment upon personal liberty.

"The business being ended, there remained only the oath. It was read solemnly by the venerable clerk, and taken first by the Landammann. Then, with bared heads, and three fingers lifted high in air, that army of freemen listened to its terrible clauses of vow and imprecation, unchanged from the Middle Ages, and rumbled with one voice its repetition of them. No man dared be silent in that throng. Then came another anthem, and the Landsgemeinde was over. It had lasted three hours.

"Never have I seen such perfect order, such perfect quiet—not even in a body of a tenth its size. Yet there were no police, not so much as a constable. Once or twice, after the most exciting votes, a slight murmur passed through the host, but a cry or two of 'Quiet!' (*Ruhig!*), as the business began again, brought a hush, as of death. The only break in the gravity of the proceedings was during the comical scene of the Land-Weibel competition. Did you ever hear twelve thousand men smile? It was like the ripple, dash, and vanish of a wind-blown thunder-shower.

"We dined with our Oberrichter, saw with him the modest splendors of the cantonal capital, and under his escort were off over the mountain on our homeward tramp."

CLEAR, THE ADJECTIVE, USED SUBJECTIVELY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Upwards of forty years ago, during my early days in India, I transmitted to the late Dr. Worcester a large quantity of materials supplementing his Dictionary published in 1846. Among the things which I then remarked on, as overpassed in it, was the subjective sense of the adjective *clear*, a sense for which I furnished him with excellent and abundant authority. This, to my surprise, when he brought out a new edition of his Dictionary in 1860, I found to be unrecorded there, though he had availed himself of hundreds of the particulars supplied by me. Nor has any other dictionary that I am acquainted with recognized it. That, however, it has been in our language close on three centuries, and that it has the practical counte-

nance of numerous authors of repute, will appear from the quotations and references which follow:

"I am *cleere* in it, that many then in that darkness did (as the proverbe is) 'See day at a very little hole.'" "I am so *cleere* in this, as in any of the two former, that there is no such difficulty in the faculty of reading," &c. Rev. Samuel Hieron (1604), *Works* (1624), Vol. I., pp. 500, 513.

"Some Preachers . . . published that Doctrine, affirming that Saint Austine had said so only in heat of disputation against the Pelagians, and not because he was *clear* in that opinion." Sir Nathanael Brent (1616), translation of *Father Paul's History of the Council of Trent* (ed. 1676), p. 168.

"For my own part, I am *clear*, without scruple, that what we have resolved is according to law." Sir Benjamin Ruddierd (1628), in Dr. Thomas Fuller's *Ephemeris Parliamentaria* (1654), p. 155.

"Yet we know, that, at the same time, there were Philosophers at Rome that were most *clear* and full in their Belief and Faith of it." Dr. Richard Burthogge (1674), *Causa Dei* (1675), p. 316.

"But this the lawyer was *clear* in, that his client might move his lodging." John Asgill, *Apology*, &c. (1713), p. 21.

"His disciples themselves were not so *clear* in their belief of him," &c. *Id.*, *The Metaphorphosis of Man*, &c. (1727), p. 27.

"In all the things I nam'd I am very *clear*." Dr. Bernard Mandeville, *An Enquiry into the Origin of Honour*, &c. (1732), p. 238.

"The Event can only determine my Judgment in this matter; but [I] am *clear* in this, . . . I am *clear* in his having my vote to be Captain of the Band." W. Horsley (1746), *The Fool* (1748), Vol. I., p. 6. Also in Vol. I., p. 86, and Vol. II., pp. 214, 297.

"And doth he pretend to the Gift of discerning the Spirits, so as to be *clear* which, or whether any, of them had it?" Bp. George Lavington, *The Enthusiasm of Methodists and Papists Compared*, Vol. II. (1751), p. 5 (ed. 1754). Also at p. 57.

"I am *clear* in it, that a play must be his next undertaking." Miss Catherine Talbot (1754), in *Letters between Miss Elizabeth Carter and Miss Talbot*, &c. (ed. 1809), Vol. II., p. 190.

"Your being so very *clear* that he was made on purpose for me." Miss Elizabeth Carter (1765), *ibid.*, Vol. III., p. 255.

"I am not *clear* as to the particulars; but there was a prodigious riot," &c. Mrs. James Harris (1769), in *Letters of the First Earl of Malmesbury*, &c. (1870), Vol. I., p. 179. Also in Vol. I., p. 186 (1770).

"Why, he is *clear* that his client never gave such a note." Samuel Foote, *The Lame Lover* (1770), Act II., Scene I.

"Of this I am *clear*, that, if it stood over to another year," &c. Arthur Murphy (about 1776), in George Colman the Younger's *Posthumous Letters*, &c. (1820), p. 204.

"Both Count Goertz and myself, however, were not *clear* of the manner and time in which he was disposed this alliance should take place." James Harris, First Earl of Malmesbury (1782), in his *Diaries and Correspondence* (1844), Vol. I., p. 521.

"I am by no means *clear* that I might not have been a wealthy merchant, or an eminent lawyer, at this very moment." R. B. Sheridan (about 1784), in Thomas Moore's *Memoirs* of him (1825), Vol. I., p. 145.

"I am not *clear*, from this information, that the profits arising from the entertainments at the Pantheon are included." *The New Spectator* (1784), No. XX., p. 5.

"I am *clear*, without doubt, that my sons' concert is after the will and order of Providence." Rev. Charles Wesley (before 1788), in Southey's *Life of Wesley* (1820), Vol. II., p. 544.

"We were, by a great majority, *clear* for the experiment." James Boswell (1791), *Life of Johnson* (ed. 1826), Vol. IV., p. 77.

"Are you *clear* that this haste will not mar, instead of make, an understanding?" William Godwin, *Caleb Williams* (1794), p. 36 (ed. 1849).

"Both think that a son ought to obey his father, and both are *clear* that a good man is better than a bad one." Rev. Sydney Smith (1804), *Elementary Sketches of Moral Philosophy* (1850), p. 20. Also at p. 25.

"I am not perfectly *clear* that the word 'little' ever occurs, in Scripture, in the sense of 'morally worthless.'" Rev. G. S. Faber (1805), *A Dissertation on the Prophecies*, &c. (1806), Vol. I., p. 125.

"Of all my friends, Coleridge is, perhaps, the only one who thinks with me upon this subject; but I am *clear*, in my own mind." Robert Southey (1807), in the Rev. C. E. Southey's *Life and Correspondence* of him (1850), Vol. III., p. 68.

"About the middle of July—but I am not *clear* of the date—the news was assured," &c. Madame D'Arblay (1815), *Diary and Letters*, Vol. VII., p. 181 (ed. 1846).

"I am *clear* that . . . is much the more elegant Latin expression of the two." Henry Hallam (1818), *Middle Ages*, Vol III., p. 567 (ed. 1829).

"I am not at all *clear* that they are not right." Lord Byron (1821), *Works* (ed. 1832, &c.). Vol. V., p. 115.

"On the whole, I am quite *clear* as to my original position." Dr. Thomas Arnold (1837), in Stanley's *Life and Correspondence* of him, p. 428 (ed. 1846).

"In the first place, I am not *clear* that the object is a good one. In the next place, I am not *clear* that," &c. Lord Macaulay (1841), *Biographies* (1860), p. x.

"You may be *clear*, in future, with whom it is fitting to hold communion." Cardinal Newman, *The Church of the Fathers* (1842), p. 106. Also in the same author's *Apologia*, &c. (1864), p. 124.

"I am not at all *clear* that I shall not have to claim," &c. Prof. Augustus De Morgan (1846), in Sir William Hamilton's *Letter*, &c. (1847), p. 16.

"And clearness of view as to regeneration, conversion, and justification will enable us to be *clear* as to all the remaining stages of the spiritual life." Bp. Samuel Wilberforce, *Addresses*, &c. (1860), p. 46.

Additional relevant quotations, which are at hand, but which it must be needless to copy out, are from Hartley Coleridge, Mr. Charles Dickens, Mr. A. H. Clough, Mr. Thomas Carlyle, Mr. James Spedding, Mr. Charles Reade, Lord Strangford, "George Eliot," Dr. W. G. Ward, Mr. John Ruskin, Miss Charlotte M. Yonge, Mr. Leslie Stephen, Mr. Richard Congreve, Mr. William Minto, and other well-known writers, to the number of from twenty to thirty.

Many of the foregoing quotations I have had by me half my lifetime. Among them, under the date of 1770, is that from Foote, which Mr. T. L. Kington Oliphant brings forward, as if he thought it a striking novelty. See his *New English* (1886), Vol. II., p. 184.

As contributing to illustrate the matter under treatment, the subjoined passages are noteworthy:

"Now, for the integrity of Moses, for us Christians, wee are sufficiently *cleared* and satisfied by the authority of the Holy Spirit of God," &c. Dr. John Donne (before 1631), Translation of *Aristeas's Auncient History of the Septuagint* (ed. 1633), p. 214.

"Sure, I confesse I grow dim-sighted, and, in this point, so *darke*, that I cannot, with helpe of my spectacles, see your inference, except," &c. Dr. William Sclater (1621), *The Quæstion of Tythes Revised* (1623), p. 85.

"The great mass of the population are either stark unbelievers in it, or deplorably *dark* about it." Cardinal Newman, *Essays, Critical and Historical* (1871), Vol. II., p. 341.

As in Dryden and Lee's *Œdipus* (1679), so in Charles Coffey's *The Devil to Pay* (1731), Act I., Scene II., a blind man is called *dark*. In its subjective acceptation, *dark* has, further, the sense of "reticent." Meanings of two classes attach to *close*, also, and to a whole host of adjectives besides.

Transferred, as a qualification, from the object perceived to the percipient, *clear*, primarily "apprehending distinctly," has come to denote "certified," "convinced," "confident," "unwavering," "positive," "sure," "determined." It will be found that one or other of these definitions equates *clear*, in all the instances of its use which are cited above.

The fact being, that the omission here dwelt on has to be multiplied by hundreds, and even by thousands, in order to represent the deficiencies of old-school dictionaries, the call for such a work as that of Dr. Murray, the fruit of enormous coöperation, cannot but be obvious.

F. H.

Marlesford, England, February 4, 1888.

THE VETO POWER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The speech of Senator Stewart is very apropos to a discussion of the President's power. It is not a mere partisan speech—Republican against Democrat—but a stroke in the great battle of legislature against executive, with which probably more than half the Democratic members of both houses sympathize at heart, though party discipline compels them to suppress the feeling. If there is one thing, apart from his tariff message, which ought to, as I thoroughly believe it will, secure for the President the support of the country, it is his moral courage in the use of the veto power. Yet how unfair it is that such an attack should be made upon him without the power of reply. For the President can hardly take the ground, as he well might, that Congress is far more dangerous to the liberties of the people than he is. Will there be a single member of either house to raise his voice in defence, on other than party grounds, of the rights of the Presidential office? How many speakers in the autumn campaign will take the side of the President squarely against Congress? I know of one, at any rate, who proposes to exercise that privilege.

Observe the old cry, which has served the purpose of demagogues since the world began—"No man ever lived who could be safely intrusted with the liberties of the people, and no people had ever surrendered their liberties to one man without losing them eventually. If the people desired liberty, they would have to preserve it in their own keeping." What a pity there was not some one to ask the Senator what had become of the liberties of nations when intrusted wholly to a representative body; what was the history of the Long Parliament in Great Britain, of the French Convention of 1792, of the Chambers in 1848, or what is the outlook in France to-day? It would not have been amiss to glance at the history of the Continental Congress and the Confederation which succeeded it, and to balance the amount of good and evil to this country which resulted from intrusting power to one man by the name of Washington, or to have reviewed the course of Congress in the ten years preceding the civil war, and its management after that war broke out, and what were the results when the people of the United States, by tacit consent, gave a practical dictatorship to Abraham Lincoln. An appeal might then have been made to the candor of the Senator to state whether he thinks the present Congress shows itself particularly suited for the guidance of the destinies of a great nation.

The only way to achieve great things, whether military or civil, is through power intrusted to one man, the important question being to *what kind* of man it is intrusted; and safety lies not in checking and hampering his power, but in taking care that it is rightly exercised. The real trouble is not that the President has too much, but that he has too little, power as well as responsibility. There can be no question of the utter absurdity of Mr. Cleveland's position in standing, like Hercules with his club, and beating down, to right and left, the hydras that emanate from the so-called deliberations of Congress. But the very last remedy that should be adopted is to reduce the vote required for overriding his veto to a bare majority—in other words, to deprive him of it

altogether—and so leave Congress to launch upon the country whatever vagaries or political jobs may be lobbied through that body. The only effective relief from the present false situation is to give to the President, through his Cabinet officers, a voice in the guidance of legislation, so that the views of the executive, as well as of the legislature, of the responsible national authority as well as of private interests, may be heard before it takes final shape, and so that, if it finally comes to a veto, the merits of the case and the contestants may be thoroughly understood by the country.

Meantime it is greatly to be feared that Senator Stewart's anxiety about the liberties of the people may be seriously increased by the results of the autumn election. G. B.

Boston, May 26, 1888.

Notes.

Mr. Lowell's address before the New York Reform Club will terminate a volume of political essays derived principally from the *Atlantic Monthly* and *North American Review* during the past thirty years. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. will be the publishers.

'The Poets of Maine,' compiled by Geo. B. Griffith, is almost ready for delivery by Elwell, Pickard & Co., Portland.

The Palestine Exploration Fund announce the publication of three important works: 'The Survey of Eastern Palestine,' by Captain Conder, R.E., with all the author's original drawings, maps, and plans, and with the results of Herr Schumacher's work in the same district; 'The Results of the Archæological Mission of M. Clermont-Ganneau,' with all the original drawings of M. Lecomte; and 'The Natural History of the Wâdy Arabah,' by H. Chichester Hart, with illustrations. The edition will be limited to 500 copies, and the subscription price will be three guineas for the first volume, and two guineas for each of the other two. The agent for these publications is Mr. A. P. Watt, 2 Paternoster Square, E. C., London.

Mr. E. Towry White, 31 Charing Cross, London, S. W., announces the publication of a list of the kings of Egypt, giving in hieroglyphic characters their names and titles, and the names of their wives and children so far as at present known, with an index giving the ordinary name, and also the literal reading of the hieroglyphics. To this will be added a list of the names of the Roman emperors and of the Ethiopian kings as they appear in cartouches. The work will consist of 175 plates, printed only on one side of the paper. The subscription price is one guinea.

Mr. Ferdinand Ongania, Venice, having completed the work of years in his 'Basilica of Saint Mark in Venice,' with a commentary, historical and artistic, by Venetian writers, offers new terms of subscription to this extraordinary illustration of one of the world's most precious monuments. Payment may be made in the course of three years in quarterly instalments, the first on delivery of the entire work. The total cost is a little more than £93.

To "Bohn's Select Library of Standard Works" (London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Scribner & Welford) has just been added 'Selected Plays of Molière'—"The Miser," "Tartuffe," and "The Shop-Keeper Turned Gentleman"—a little volume of two hundred pages.

A useful arrangement, by the way, of the plays of Molière has been made by M. Maurice Albert, son of the late Paul Albert, the well-known *professeur de faculté* and very clever writer on French literature. This 'Théâtre choisi de Molière' (Paris: Armand Colin; Boston: Schoenhof) contains in full the six plays demanded in the official programmes for higher public instruction: "L'Avare," "Le Bourgeois Gentilhomme," "Les Précieuses ridicules," "Les Femmes savantes," "Le Misanthrope," "Le Tartuffe." To these six plays M. Albert adds extracts from most of the other comedies, connecting them by abstracts of the omitted scenes. A very fair and sufficiently complete impression of the author is thus presented in a 12mo volume of 520 pages. The work is completed by an excellent biographical introduction, historical notices of each play, abundant explanatory foot-notes, and a valuable "literary explanation" of "Les Femmes savantes," given as an example of the kind of work that should be required in the school study of Molière, or any other dramatist. It may be seen from this summary how useful the volume would be to any one beginning the study of Molière.

M. E. M. de Vogüé's well-known work, 'Le Roman russe,' until now only to be had in the large octavo edition, has been published by Plon & Nourrit in the convenient 18mo form.

Two more volumes have also been issued of the same publishers' edition of the complete works of Dostoyevsky (Boston: Schoenhof)—'Les Pauvres Gens,' his earliest novel, which, when it appeared, at once established his reputation, and 'Les Frères Karamazov,' the work in course of publication at the time of his death. M. Victor Derély is the translator of the first of these, and the second, which has been in progress for several years, is done by MM. Halpérine-Kaminsky and Charles Morice, a literary partnership which seems to have produced the most satisfactory results, judging from a long episode which appeared in 1886 in the *Revue Contemporaine*.

Prof. Kluge's interesting tract, 'Von Luther bis Lessing,' which we have already described at some length, has reached a second edition, without material alteration, but with a colored language-map of Germany (Strassburg: Karl J. Trübner).

In the annual report of the Provost of the University of Pennsylvania, we remark Prof. Dolley's account of a biological excursion to the Bahamas in June, 1887, with a view to establishing there a zoölogical station like that at Naples. The University wisely took a table at the Naples station, Prof. Dolley being its representative for a year, and will reap the fruit of its liberality if, as is to be hoped, he is able to set up at Nassau a marine laboratory in connection with his department at the University on the Schuylkill.

Turner's habit of embellishing and composing, rather than imitating, the natural landscapes to which he attached a definite name and locality, is well exemplified in the May *Portfolio* (Macmillan). Here, side by side, are shown an original drawing of the Reichenbach by J. R. Cozens, and a copy of it made by Turner, who has much improved upon it, artistically speaking. There are several interesting facsimiles of Turner's pencil drawings in the same article ("The Earlier English Water-Color Painters: Turner and Girtin"). Mention should also be made of at least two of the full-page illustrations, viz., the etching by G. M. Rhead after H. Sorgh's "Card Players," and the mezzotint by F. Short after Cotman's "St. Mary Redcliffe."

The May Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society opens with an interesting paper on the ruby mines near Mogok, Burma, by Mr. Robert Gordon, who has recently visited them to survey the region in which they are situated. This ruby-bearing region is an area of about ten miles long by five wide, and consists of groups of small valleys, lying some sixty miles north of Mandalay. The population is divided into two classes, the mining numbering about six thousand souls, and the agricultural about half as many. The people are of several distinct tribes, who, though they have lived for centuries side by side, never intermarry, and so preserve their peculiar tribal characteristics. Their houses are well built and comfortable, and there is a general appearance of wealth throughout the district. Three different methods of mining are employed. The first, and that of the least importance now but probably the most valuable in the future, is by working in fissure veins. The second is by washing, and on a very insignificant scale. No attempt has yet been made to wash the hillsides by water under pressure. The third and most important method is by digging pits. The rubies are rarely found in the crystal form. When flawless and beyond a certain weight they are worth ten times as much as diamonds of the same weight. In the discussion which followed the reading of the paper, Mr. Streeter stated that two Indian-cut rubies had recently been received in London, one of which, after recutting, weighed 38½ carats and was sold for £20,000, and the other, 32¼ carats, sold for £10,000.

The *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for May contains the second and concluding part of Mr. J. Y. Buchanan's paper on "The Exploration of the Gulf of Guinea." While his ship was anchored off Ascension in an unusually heavy sea, which prevented their landing for several days, a series of measurements of the waves were made, with the following results: The height of the highest roller was twenty feet from trough to crest; the medium length from crest to crest was 625 feet, the largest measuring 770 feet, and the waves travelled at the uniform rate of 23.4 nautical miles an hour.

The *Revue Scientifique* for May 12 contains a paper read before the Paris Geographical Society on the "Geographical Distribution of the Population in France," by M. Victor Turquan, Chief of the Statistical Bureau of the Ministry of Commerce. He fixes the mean density of the whole country at 72 inhabitants to the square kilometre, the mean density of the earth being 10. This puts France in the sixth place among the European nations, Belgium leading with 201, Netherlands 133, Great Britain 119, Italy 105, and Germany 86. He dwells upon the striking solitude of large tracts in Champagne, the hills of the Côte d'Or, the great central plateau, the Landes and Berri. The country for a great extent about Paris also is very sparsely populated. The present groupings of the people he regarded as being largely dependent upon the nature of the soil that nourished them, and therefore comparatively stable and permanent. The paper was illustrated by maps, one series of which was so colored as to represent the population of the different communes. A section of this map is reproduced in the *Revue*.

M. Victor Develay's slippered view of the late Désiré Nisard in *Le Livre* for May is brief and unsatisfactory, and the portrait of this professorial light of the Second Empire which it accompanies may be thought a better vindication of his public character by his private. One still recalls Béranger's inuendo—

"Pour moi Nisard sera-t-il l'éloquence?"

In another part of *Le Livre* we read that Nisard left memoirs for posthumous publication. M. Julien Lemer comes nearer the personality of his subject in "Quelques Autographes in-

times de Charles Baudelaire," which ends with censure of the poet's family for suppressing certain unpublished works referred to in this correspondence, after his death. Opinions will differ on this point, accordingly as one esteems Baudelaire's productions as "pourriture" or otherwise. M. Lemer approves Hetzel's idea that after a certain period the state should abridge the property right of an author's heirs or successors, and, as in Mr. Pearsall Smith's plan, throw the works open to all publishers, on the sole condition of paying a fixed percentage on the selling price, which the state would return to the heirs. M. A. Quantin pays an affectionate and reverent tribute to a veteran publisher lately deceased, Henri Fournier, who began an apprentice of Didot and ended an associate of Mame at Tours, and had, between, an honorable career on his own account at Paris. His establishment in that city eventually fell to M. Quantin himself.

Any one who has read Tolstoi's 'Physiology of War: Napoleon and the Russian Campaign,' will be repaid by following M. Albert Sorel in his discourse before the École des Sciences Politiques on Tolstoi as an historian. A somewhat condensed report of it was given in the *Revue Bleue* for April 14. The critique is the work of an admirer unable to accept the theory of the uselessness of great men in determining the course of history. M. Sorel, without feeling, exposes Tolstoi's treatment of Napoleon and his generals in 'War and Peace,' and consoles himself for the anti-French bias by remarking that if Tolstoi is "très sévère aux Français—il l'est incontestablement—il l'est aussi, sans aucun doute, et plus encore aux Allemands; il professe pour eux, en toute occasion, un dédain colossal." The most suggestive part of the paper, however, is M. Sorel's showing how Tolstoi makes a Shaksperian use of Thiers's history, as in the episode of the Cossack who talks freely with the Emperor, not recognizing him; and the hardly fortuitous parallel between his views on war and those of Joseph de Maistre, notably in the latter's 'Soirées de Saint-Pétersbourg.'

We have received the seventh instalment of the Codici Palatini of the Florence Central National Library in the "Indici e Cataloghi" issued by the Italian Ministry of Public Instruction. Like the foregoing, it contains a highly interesting description of the several MSS., with an array of first lines in the case of the poems. Dante, Petrarch, Boccaccio, and many lesser luminaries stud the pages.

We print on another page the last of the late Michael Heilprin's critical contributions to the *Nation*—the review of Sayce. It was delayed in getting into type till his fatal illness overtook the writer.

—*Harper's* for June continues the papers upon the West which were promised as one of the features of the magazine for the current year. Of the extremely favorable view which Mr. Warner takes of the city of Chicago we have already spoken, but his discovery that it is a modest city in his first article hardly prepared us for the announcement in the second paper this month that it is an uncommonly moral city. The opposite view, which has not been hitherto opposed, is the prevalent one, and certainly one does not need to go far to find grounds for it. Mr. Warner ascribes it to the influence of the press of the city, which he thinks is not representative of the real facts; on the other hand, he gives no reasons for his own conclusion that Chicago is more wholesome morally than other cities of its size, and than many much smaller. A less doubtful distinction of the city is its attention to education, in which, like the entire West, it is eminent; but, notwithstanding Mr. Gunther's collections, to which Mr. Warner gives much space, Chicago libraries and museums must be regarded as things of the future. The other article in this field is upon Kansas, of which State a comprehensive account is given, so far as its soil, climate, and material progress are concerned. We observe in it a new word, which has certainly sprung from the soil, "urbiculture"; and as an American equivalent for what the Greeks called "colonization" it is not without a meaning, but it will probably be some time before it becomes established as a branch of human activity and is taught in the universities of the prairie. Mr. Bowker finishes his survey of "Literary London" with notices of the novelists and portraits; but it is the latter that make the article. A sketch of Capri, which does not lose its attraction as a subject, is not very good, nor are the views those which give the island its peculiarity; and the paper upon life with the Arabs is equally unsatisfactory. In the Easy Chair Mr. Curtis defends the American press with skill, and says a good deal which is worth remembering by those who look for a virtue in it which does not exist in the community, of whose interests and tastes it is the expression; disinterestedness is perhaps really greater in it than in any other business enterprise.

—*Scribner's* begins its series of railroad papers with a number of beautiful illustrations, by means of which a view of engineering is given to the eye that is an effective aid to the text. The characteristics of American railroading, in the department of construction, are very clearly pointed out, especially the substitution of other modes of surmounting the difficulties of the lay of the land for the method of tunnelling, which is so much more resorted to in Europe. It is an advantage, too, that the writer begins at the beginning, with the planning of a line, and dwells on the great importance of this to the cost and the success of a road. He defends the American system of building rapidly and cheaply, and then, as the business of the line develops, rebuilding with better material, and he remarks upon the good fortune of the West in having the railroad to go first and determine direct and inexpensive lines of communication on which the grouping of the population afterwards depends. There are other features of the article, showing the development of railroading in the change from iron to steel and such particulars, which contribute to make it an excellent introduction, though it must be said that in attributing the amelioration of all things in this century and *in futuro* to the railroad, the writer gives to one element in modern civilization a primacy which has been unrivalled since the days of Aaron's rod. An article upon life in the hospitals will be of interest to the many who are concerned indirectly in charities; Prof. Hall's "Story of a Sand-Pile" is for social philosophers; Mr. Birrell's notice of Cardinal Newman, with two excellent portraits, is welcome, but very inadequate; Mr. Stevenson's discovery that Fielding was a gentleman deserves to be chronicled; and of Mr. Aldrich's pastoral we have only to say that it is in the most finished form of the popular, piquant, society school of verse, and bears comparison with anything in its vein.

—Halliwell-Phillipps writes to an American friend: "This winter has been a season of sore disappointment to me. I was greatly in hopes to have made good progress in the arrangement of my still very large stock of unpublished materials illustrative of the life of Shakspere, but a succession of minor illnesses has sufficed to limit my work for months past to the composition of a few controversial letters. All this is rendered the more disappointing by my publishers' notice, just come to hand, that they have sold out all of the last edition [the seventh] of my 'Outlines.'" No one who has read a page of the Life of Shakspere, which Mr. Phillipps still modestly terms 'Outlines,' though the last edition has swelled to 848 pages, will wonder that a new edition is called for every year. It is hard to believe that any one can read through that work and still remain unconverted from the Baconian heresy. Whoever recalls how Mr. Phillipps, when first putting his hand to the 'Outlines,' deplored that "the time he had occupied in gathering together the necessary artistic and literary material had practically excluded him from making an effective use of his accumulations," will not easily believe that he will not still bring forth fruit up to the old age of Gladstone.

—The activity of our State legislatures is strikingly shown in Mr. Raymond L. Bridgman's little book, 'Ten Years of Massachusetts' (Boston: D. C. Heath). Under a dozen general heads—Public Administration, Labor Legislation, Education, and the like—he has grouped the substance of the most important statutes passed by the General Court since 1878; and in a number of cases he has added instructive comment on the growth of legislation, and on the influences which have brought about particular acts. In nearly every field of legislation there has been an honest attempt to correct abuses and to advance civilization; many of the acts are models which other States would do well to copy. The significance of the book is, however, its unconscious testimony to a change which seems to be coming over the popular conception of government. Year by year the Legislature has entered upon new fields. The record shows a large number of acts on forests, foods, the water supply, and public health. Additional protection is provided for passengers on railroads and employees of railroads and factories. Children are protected from cruelty, from acting in theatres, from roller-rinks, and from toy-pistols; and they are instructed in temperance hygiene. The Commonwealth has gone to the point of putting mufflers on "pop-up" safety valves. Moreover, the State more and more assumes the administration of local laws, either by creating commissions or by limiting the police, taxes, and debts of municipalities. Another striking feature is the number of new laws which are notoriously not executed. Such are the provisions for a secret ballot; against betting and gaming, the selling of "police" illustrated papers, the selling of cigarettes to boys; and the saloon-screen law. The influence of "labor" is plainly seen in acts on convict labor, the regulation of factories, and weekly payments, and in the proposal, which was almost carried, that the State should build small houses to be paid for in instalments.

—Library catalogues are seldom of interest, unless to specialists. One noteworthy exception is the earliest 'Catalogue of the Library of the United States,' published in 1815, pp. 170, xxxii. This work was the production of Jefferson, and the only one of the kind that can boast a President or ex-President as its author. The Congressional Library had been burned by the British on August 24, 1814. Within a month Jefferson wrote, offering to sell his library to Congress on its own terms, and forwarding a catalogue which, in its plan, dated from his first study of Bacon, but which in details had grown with the growth of his collection. His proposal was

at once accepted by the Senate, and unanimously, as it was felt that the Jeffersonian gathering contained more books specially needed in Congress than were elsewhere within reach, and also that, having been accumulated with much pains, day by day, during Jefferson's Parisian residence, it would form a good nucleus for future accretions in all departments. In the House, however, the bill for making the purchase encountered steady opposition. At the outset a motion to postpone indefinitely was only defeated by a vote of seventy-three to sixty-nine. It was then proposed to purchase only such a part of the Jefferson books as were suitable for Congressional purposes. When it was ascertained that the books must all be bought or none of them could be had, there was talk of "selecting such books as might be useful to members and selling the rest at auction." But the most memorable motion was made by Mr. King of Massachusetts, who moved "to instruct the Library Committee, as soon as the Jefferson volumes should have been received in Washington, to select therefrom all books of an atheistical, irreligious, or immoral tendency, if any such there be, and send the same back to Mr. Jefferson without any expense to him." "The debate," says the chronicle, "became rather too animated, and was checked by the Speaker." The purchase was at last voted by a majority of ten.

—The threefold division of the Catalogue was no doubt suggested by these words of Bacon: "The parts of human learning have reference to the three parts of man's understanding, which is the seat of learning: History to his memory, poesy to his imagination, and philosophy to his reason." Under these three heads the books are classed in forty-four chapters. The volumes were reckoned by their owner about ten thousand, and the price paid was less than $25,000. It is unlikely that any American library of its size was more valuable, or better selected. It is a shrewd saying: "If you would find out what a man's character is, get a sight of his personal account-book." Jefferson's book catalogue is suggestive of secrets regarding his life, and so it ought to be bound up with his works, and if possible in facsimile. In a book published at Boston in 1712 John Wise, a Puritan parson, wrote the following words: "The end of all good government is to promote the happiness of all, and the good of every man in all his rights, his life, liberty, estate, honor," etc. This and others of his utterances gave Wise fame as the first American Democrat. Two editions of his work were republished at Boston in 1772, for no pre-Revolutionary writer was such a master of style. The similarities in Wise to phrases in Jefferson's Democratic Declaration have wakened curiosity as to whether Jefferson had read the work of Wise. Much fruitless search has been made. The catalogue has an entry which may serve to thicken other proofs, in an index of the surnames of authors which Jefferson himself made, as he expressly states. Among them is the name Wise. The reference there made to chapter xv is erroneous. But the occurrence of the name tends to show that he had the book, and the more as the work of Wise was a pamphlet of not more than a hundred pages. In the chapter on Politics are many volumes of Political Tracts without authors' names. No. 183 is an octave of Tracts from 1769–73, which includes the year when John Wise was republished. It is worth search to discover whether John Wise is not now sleeping in the Congressional Library after inspiring Jefferson.

—The rise of the earliest Christian art has left its tide-mark still traceable in Irish art, while subsequent advances have mostly obliterated it from the continent of Europe. The interest of the art itself is narrow, though real. Its excellence is in its manuscripts, and in its less known metal work, forms of art which were quietly cultivated in Ireland when the rest of Europe was given over to invasion and decadence. St. Patrick was converting the Irish and laying the foundation of their monastic church while Genseric's pillage of Rome went on. When the period of invasion was over, and the arts began to revive on the Continent, Ireland followed, *haud pari passu*, but in the same track, till her season of invasion set in, and permanently stopped her advance. We see in her, therefore, a curious example of arrested growth, whose interest is greatly in the light which it throws on its continuation elsewhere. We find on the Continent the complete development, while the early stages have disappeared. In Ireland the early stages are left, and the development has never followed. Every study that tends to connect Irish antiquities with the main history of Art in Europe is welcome, and this is the virtue of Miss Margaret Stokes's work, for which her knowledge of Christian antiquities and her association in the special studies of the late Lord Dunraven have given her special qualifications. Her little volume, which is freely illustrated, is not only valuable, but readable. It bears title—'Early Christian Art in Ireland' (London: Chapman & Hall; New York: E. & J. B. Young & Co.).

LEA'S HISTORY OF THE INQUISITION.—I.

A History of the Inquisition of the Middle Ages. By Henry Charles Lea. 3 vols. Harper & Bros. 1888.

Mr. Lea needs no commendation to the students of mediæval history as the most learned living guide to their studies in certain phases of mediæval life and thought. He has chosen for his themes the more obscure forces which were acting on the minds of men in the middle period, and which were training them for those more striking exhibitions of activity in politics and war which make up the narrative of the ordinary historian. He has little concern with the growth of kingdoms, with struggles for personal or family aggrandizement, least of all with the mere biographies of kings and prelates. His former works on 'Superstition and Force,' and on the 'History of Sacerdotal Celibacy,' showed the tendency of thought which is here carried out to a still greater extent. These earlier volumes contained studies in the great legal and social institutions on which mediæval life was based. They led the student into that strange middle world where men moved like the half-demented victims of terrible delusions. It was Mr. Lea's special interest to show that the singular manifestations of this mental condition were not, in fact, outbursts of fanatic madness, but were deeply rooted in the legal and social ideas of the time. Law, as the embodiment of racial instincts, has been the starting-point and the sure basis of his studies.

In beginning the history of the Inquisition he has been guided by the same principle. He expressly declares his conviction that "the surest basis for the investigation of a given period lay in an examination of its jurisprudence." We are thus able to feel that he has solid ground beneath his feet, and, no matter how incredible the instances of human weakness and credulity which he presents, we must believe that he has not borrowed one particle from his own prejudice, nor drawn ever so slightly upon his historical imagination.

The whole period of the Inquisition Mr. Lea divides at the Reformation into two distinct parts, of which only the former is treated in these three considerable volumes. It will thus be seen that some of the most terrible and dramatic portions of the history, especially those relating to the Spanish Inquisition and its dealings with the Low Countries, still remain to be considered. It must be the wish of every scholar that the author may be spared to complete the work according to his present plan.

As in his previous work, so here, Mr. Lea takes his subject in its widest meaning. By the history of the Inquisition he means not merely an account of the institution itself, but an exhaustive examination of the social, intellectual, and political conditions which produced it. He means, further, an array of illustrations of its working and of its effects upon society, such as make any serious doubts as to the general accuracy of his presentation impossible. The survey of the conditions which made the Inquisition possible, we might almost say inevitable, occupies one-half of the first volume. It is a masterly summary of the process by which the Church rose to be the absolute dominating power over the minds of men. That process is shown in the gradual development of the idea of heresy, and its extension to include every form of departure from the usages of the Church. The awful episode of the Albigensian Crusade is treated as the natural outcome of the duty of the organized Church to insist upon uniformity of belief and practice as essential to true Christianity. It would be too much to say that Mr. Lea has made perfectly clear precisely what the heresy of the Albigensians was, whence it came, what was its relation to the other forms of mediæval divergence from orthodoxy, and the basis of its hold upon the population of southern France. These are still, and are likely to remain, obscure problems.

The description of the Catharan heresy, drawn from many sources, makes it very clear why the policy of persecution became a necessity. The very existence of Catholicism was endangered by a theory of the true Church which made it consist of a select body of saints, instead of being the natural home and refuge of all mankind. This doctrine was spreading very rapidly, and the dominant Church was forced to defend itself or perish. Singularly enough, the rescue of the Church came from an impulse strangely like that which was threatening its very life. There was no more potent cause of heresy than a sense of the insufficiency of the Church organization for its proper work in the world; this same sense of insufficiency produced the mendicant orders, who were to be the chief weapon of the Church against heresy. The fanatic devotion of Dominic and Francis, if it had been rejected by the Papacy, as at one time it seemed likely to be, might very easily have been turned into a critical and furious opposition. As it was, the means for the destruction of heresy were put into the hand of the Papacy almost against its will, and from that time onward persecution developed itself with resistless force.

In describing the Holy Office, Mr. Lea departs from the tradition which would represent it as a new creation, and shows that it was a development out of perfectly well-recognized principles of legal process. The "inquisitio" was a form of procedure well known to the Roman law; its peculiarity consisted in its use as a means of hunting down the offender, and it was the gradual application of this process to the trial for heresy which produced

that frightfully effective machinery known as "The Inquisition." Mr. Lea's account of the Inquisition proper, its organization, its legal process, and its relation to other authorities, forms the most important and at the same time probably the least popular part of his work. It occupies but one-half of one volume, a space altogether disproportionate, one must think, to its real value. The accumulation of horrors which fills the later volumes is tame reading compared to this calm, lawyer-like presentation of the devilish ingenuity with which the forms of law were applied to meet the ever-new forms in which the persistent heresy of the Middle Ages presented itself. At first the power of inquisition rested in the regular ecclesiastical courts, and the inquisitors were only the regularly employed agents of the courts. But here appeared the danger which the Papacy was always forced to combat. Local courts were all too sensitive to local influences. The ecclesiastical judge, a man among men, would have too many human weaknesses to make him the blind servant of the Papal will. The inquisitor must be set free from all personal allegiances, except to the one dictating force at the centre. We are shown here how this emancipation of the inquisitor went on, step by step, in the face of every protest, until he finally stood as a man practically without limits to his action. Even a pope, if he were, perchance, too humane or too timid to suit the demand of the Holy Office, might well tremble before it. The Papacy had raised a spirit which it could not itself control.

Throughout this examination of the inquisitorial process Mr. Lea is calm and dispassionate. He resists with exceptional courage the temptation which any lover of the light must feel, to treat his subject with indignant contempt. He is enabled to do this by his thorough understanding of the spirit of mediæval Catholicism. He sees clearly, as a superficial student cannot see, the enormous stake for which the Church was playing, and he sees also what there was of good for humanity bound up with its very life. The forms of heresy combated by the early Inquisition were undoubtedly full of dangers to the moral and religious condition of Europe. Their holders were not uniformly men of light. They too were victims of the darkness of the time; and on the whole, if one had to choose, one would rather trust the dangers of ecclesiasticism, with its great germ of living truth, than these wild offshoots of Oriental fanaticism, even though they did point out with unerring finger the plague-spots on the surface of the body of the Church.

It may be safely said that no presentation of the story of the Inquisition by previous writers can be at all compared with this for its clearness of vision, its comprehension of the problem, and its thoroughness of research. We reserve for a second notice the detail of the working of the institution presented in the second and third volumes.

SAYCE'S HIBBERT LECTURES.

Lectures on the Origin and Growth of Religion, as illustrated by the Religion of the Ancient Babylonians. By A. H. Sayce. London: Williams & Norgate; New York: Scribner & Welford. [The Hibbert Lectures, 1887.]

THE Preface to this work—one of its author's most extensive and most elaborate productions—opens with "a word of apology . . . for the numerous repetitions in the following chapters, which are due to the fact that the chapters were written and delivered in the form of lectures." The explanation is inadequate, for there are also repetitions in single divisions. In the first chapter, for instance, we read in a note to page 72:

"The name of Sin, the Moon-god, is met with in an Himyaritic inscription, and a god who thus found his way to southern Arabia would be equally likely to find his way to northern Arabia";

and again (p. 50):

"Sin was the Babylonian name of the Moon-god. We learn from a Himyaritic inscription that his name had been carried into southern Arabia, and there is therefore no reason why it should not have been imported into northern Arabia as well."

On page 45:

"Josephos has preserved an extract from the Egyptian historian, Manetho. . . . In this it is stated that the earlier name of Moses was Osarsiph, and that he had been priest of Heliopolis, or On. Here it is evident that Moses and Joseph have been confounded together. The name of Joseph, who married the daughter of the priest of On, has been decomposed into two elements, the first of which is the divine name Jeho, and this has been changed into its supposed Egyptian equivalent, Osar, or Osiris."

And in a note to page 51:

"Manetho (ap. Joseph. . . .) states that the original name of Moses was Osarsiph, and that he had been a priest of Heliopolis, or On. Osar-siph is simply Joseph, Osar or Osiris being substituted for Jeho (Jo) or Jehovah. Joseph, it will be remembered, married the daughter of the priest of On."

Besides, another word of apology ought to have been inserted for the extensive repetitions in these 'Lectures' and the appendices to them of expositions made by the author in various previous publications.

We are far from inclined to make it appear that Prof. Sayce is apt to repeat himself from lack of fresh matter for new lectures or dissertations. His learning and fame shield him against such an imputation. No other archæologist is more often before the public with discoveries, or observations on discoveries, in his fields of study. And what he has to say always betokens ample familiarity with the latest research, and often ingenuity. What we object to in him, as in some of his fellow-laborers in Assyriology, is an excessive propagandist zeal in the interest of that science, from which springs an irresistible habit of inculcation. In the 'Lectures' before us, everything picked out of the monumental rubbish of Babylonia and Assyria which can throw the least flicker of light, however evanescent and calculated to deceive, upon the gods and goddesses of Babylon, Borsippa, Nipur, Larsam, Eridu, etc., is pressed upon the reader with as much persuasive effort as if the salvation of Christian souls depended on a true recognition of Ea, Mullil, and Ninip, Zarpanit, Davkina, and Ninkigal, and their like. And a very large part of what is thus offered as knowledge of a high order—though not without reservations as to entire accuracy, made in view of daily fresh light—rests, in reality, on a frail network of conjecture. The conjectures are surely of interest to the scholar, and worth the trouble of examination—as are the problems of Etruscan or Basque etymology—but they should be dealt with as topics for the learned, without missionary ardor. The subject, on the whole, is not worthy of enthusiasm; for Chaldean mythology, as revealed to us by the pedant scribblers on clay tablets, is as completely devoid of poetic charm and primitive naïveté as the Assyro-Babylonian history of the monuments is devoid of all traits of nobility or naturalness.

A study of "the religion of the ancient Babylonians" is, it is true, not without interest in regard to Biblical inquiry. It imparts to us, for instance, information about Nebo, Merodach, Bel, Babylonian divinities mentioned in the Old Testament—the first in Isaiah, the second in Jeremiah, and the third in both. But how much does that new information amount to? Before cuneiform decipherments had been made, we believed with Gesenius that the gods mentioned were divine embodiments of the planets Mercury, Mars, and Jupiter, respectively. Now we have learned that "Nebo must have once been an elemental god," that "Babylonian astronomy made him the presiding deity of the planet Mercury, just as it made Merodach the presiding deity of Jupiter," and that "the Merodach of the historical age" was "the great Bel or Baal of Babylon," though different from "the older Bel of Nipur." According to this, Gesenius was right when he identified Nebo with Mercury, and Bel with Jupiter, and mistaken in regard to Merodach, in not identifying him with the great Bel of Babylon, but deriving his name, which, in Jeremiah (l, 2), is coupled with Bel's, as Nebo's is in Isaiah (xlvi, 1), "a stirpe *Mord*, *Mort*, quæ et *mortem* et *cædem* significat," just as "*Mars*, *Mavors*, et *mors* ejusdem originis esse videntur" ('Thesaurus,' *s. v.*). And the gain is a different meaning, without a new rendering, for a line in Jeremiah. Whether King Merodach-Baladan or King Evil-Merodach bore the name of Jupiter or Mars, is, of course, wholly indifferent.

Incomparably more important to Biblical students would be the remarks concerning the names of Joseph, Moses, Saul, David, and Solomon, if they were sufficiently substantiated. Collectively they would greatly impair the value of the Scriptural narratives of all early Hebrew history, even if considered merely as reflections of popular tradition. The story of Joseph would cease to be a recollection of Egyptian life, and become something like a Babylonian myth—because it appears "probable that the name of Joseph was originally identical with the Babylonian *asipu*," which may be the designation of "the god of the oracle," especially as among the names of the cities captured by Thothmes III., in Palestine, there is one which is read *Iseph-el*, and may be translated "Joseph, the God." The name Moses would be a reminiscence of the Babylonian *māsu*, "the hero" or "leader," "an epithet applied to more than one divinity," but "in a peculiar sense associated with the sun-god"—the character which represented the idea of hero also representing "the idea of a 'collection of books,' . . . 'a scribe' or 'librarian,'" terms so appropriate to the lawgiver "to whom Hebrew tradition referred the collection of its earliest documents, and the compilation of its legal code." Besides, Moses was said to have died on Mount Nebo, which bore the name of "the prophet-god of Babylon, . . . the patron of writing and literature," as a star "accounted one of the seven 'heroes' or *māsu*"; and in the story of him we also meet with the name Sin, which was that of another Babylonian god, and "Sinai itself," which Moses reached after traversing the wilderness of Sin, "can scarcely signify anything else than the mountain sacred to the Moon-god." Saul and Solomon also bear the names of Assyro-Babylonian gods, popularly bestowed on them instead of their original names. For the former, "the one asked for" (Heb. Shāūl), the people wisely discovered the "singularly appropriate" mythological name Savul, or Sawul, by which the sun-god was known at Babylon, whence if "Rehoboth of the river" designates that city, the Edomites also receiv-

ed a King Saul (Gen. xxxvi). The successor of David they named after Sallimanu, "the god of peace," probably a fish-god, "honored particularly in Assyria," in a list of whose gods "mention is made of 'Sallimanu the fish, the god of the city of Temen-Sallim (the foundation of peace)'"—so strikingly reminding one of Solomon of Jerusalem.

The argument as to the name of the son of Jesse is fuller. Condensed, it runs thus: "That David's first name was Elhanan (or Baal-hanan) has long been suspected, since it is stated in one passage that Elhanan, the son of a Bethlehemite, 'slew Goliah the Gittite, the staff of whose spear was like a weaver's beam,' while the feat is elsewhere ascribed to David; and at the head of the thirty mighty men of David is placed Elhanan, the son of Dodo of Bethlehem, where we should probably read 'Elhanan, who is Dodo,' or David." This name is identical with that of the Syrian supreme Baal, or Sun-god, Hadad. In an abbreviated form, Shalmaneser speaks of the god Dáda of Khalman, or Aleppo. Be-dad, or Ben-dad, "the son of Dad," was the father of the Edomite, Hadad. David, "or Dod, as the word ought to be read," or Dodo—"the beloved one"—is the male corresponding to the Phœnician goddess and presiding deity of Carthage, called Dido by the writers of Rome. And a recent thorough examination of the squeeze of the Moabite stone by Profs. Socin and Smend, which resulted in some new readings, shows that King Mesha "tells us that he had carried away from Ataroth 'the *arel* (or altar) of Dodo and dragged it before Chemoth,' and from Nebo 'the *arels* (or altars) of Yahveh,' which he likewise 'dragged before Chemoth.'" From this parallelism "it is quite clear" "that the Israelites of the northern kingdom worshipped a Dodo or Dod by the side of Yahveh, or, rather, that they adored the supreme God under the name of Dodo as well as under that of Yahveh." It is even "suggested that Dod, or Dodo, was an old title of the supreme God in the Jebusite Jerusalem, and that hence Isaiah, when describing Jerusalem as the tower of the vineyard the Lord had planted in Israel, calls him Dôd-î, 'my beloved.'"

To us "it is quite clear" that all these identifications, however specious some of them may appear, are extravagantly forced. Let us examine them briefly. Prof. Sayce himself evidently knows only an epithet *asipu*, but no such name of a god, for a mention of which we have in vain searched the books (on our shelves) of Schrader, Delitzsch, Hommel, George Smith, Lenormant, the Oxford professor himself, and other Assyriologists. The city name read by our author Iseph-el, and translated "Joseph, the God," is read by Brugsch, the best authority on the subject, Ishpar, and identified with Micah's Shaphir. Nor have we been able to discover a trace of a god Māsu, into which the epithet *māsu* is twisted, or of Savul, or Sawul. Now we should have to believe that the Hebrews of those olden times were wonderfully learned in the mythological lore of Babylon and Nineveh, with which, as the Bible and the monuments concurrently show, they had not the least connection in those periods, if we were to assume that such recondite and obscure designations could have any popular meaning for them, as substitute names for their heroes. If surnames like "the one asked for," "the beloved one," or "the peaceable" were assumed, or bestowed on kings—as the Egyptian Ptolemies were called Soter, Philadelphus, Euergetes, etc.—the purely Hebrew appellations Shāūl, Dāvīd (or, say Dōd), Sh'lōmōh, were excellently chosen, and there was surely no need for the names of foreign idols. Nor were the Israelites in the habit of bestowing on a man the simple name of a divinity. They would couple with that name—Jah (or Jehovah), El, Baal—a verb or a common noun, thus: Jedediah, Jehovah's favorite; Elkanah, God-made; Jerubbaal, Baal-fighter. The list of the thirty mighty men of David which is cited to prove the identity of that King's name with Hadad and Dada, contains nine such compound names—Asael, Elhanan, Elika, Eliahba, Jonathan, Eliphalet, Eliam, Uriah (besides the incidentally mentioned Joab and Zeruiah)—and no name of a foreign god. "That David's first name was Elhanan has long been suspected," is true, but the conjecture has just as long been considered easily refutable by the texts (II. Sam. xxi and xxiii) on which it was grounded. Thenius ('Die Bücher Samuels') showed its hollowness, Wellhausen ('Der Text der Bücher Samuelis') completely ignored it. And the supposition that "the Israelites of the northern kingdom worshipped a Dodo or Dod"—not the least allusion to which can be found in the Bible—is extremely far from being made "quite clear" by Socin and Smend's examination of the squeeze of Mesha's inscription. These professors themselves, in their joint monograph on the subject ('Die Inschrift des Königs Mesa von Moab für akademische Vorlesungen,' 1886) say: "Allerdings könnte man in Dodo . . . vielleicht ebenso gut den Namen des Stifters wie den einer Gottheit (Liebesgottheit?) suchen." That is to say, Mesha's "Dodo"—if correctly read—may designate a man, and, if a divinity, a goddess of love—the Dido of the Phœnicians. (What an appropriate name for King David!) Besides, the *arel* in question was "deutlich Moabitischen Ursprungs," carried as "spolia opima" to the border-town Ataroth, and back to Moab by Mesha. On so frail a basis is reared the hypothesis that the Israelites "adored the supreme God under the name of Dodo, as well as under that of Yahveh," and that even Isaiah spoke of the Lord as Dod!

After all this evidence of the learned author's fondness for bold conjectures, it is hardly necessary to state that his faith in the extravagant speculations of "the brilliant and gifted François Lenormant," of "Dr. Fritz Hommel, one of the ablest of the younger band of Assyrian students," and others, as to the relations of Accado-Sumerian to Semitic Babylonian and of Accadian and Sumerian to each other, has not been shaken in the least by the more than half accomplished desertion of Friedrich Delitzsch to the side of Halévy, who knows only Semitic-Babylonian inscriptions. We will conclude our notice of the 'Lectures' with an extract showing the author's offensive-defensive attitude in this question:

"Far be it from me to disparage . . . the work which has been accomplished by Professor Delitzsch and his pupils. We owe it in great measure to him that the decipherment of Assyrian stands at its present level of scholarship. . . . But the Leipzig school has, with one or two striking exceptions, been far too one-sided. Archæology, history, religion, mythology, have been neglected in favor of the almost exclusive study of words: words, too, not as bound together in the sentences of untranslated texts, but isolated and apart. . . . This excessive devotion to vocabularies has been too often accompanied by a misconception or forgetfulness of the real nature of the 'bilingual lists.' They are for the most part commentaries upon older texts, made we know not when, and intended to explain the meaning of rare or obsolete words, ideographs, and expressions. The original text was sometimes in Accado-Sumerian, sometimes in an older form of Semitic Babylonian, while at other times texts in both languages were commented on together by the scribe. In the so-called non-Semitic column of the 'bilingual lists,' accordingly, we must expect to find not only Accado-Sumerian, but also Semitic words as well as ideographs, which may be either of Sumerian or of Semitic origin. . . . The mythological lists, which contain a medley of divine names and epithets drawn from sources of all kinds and ages, partly Accado-Sumerian, partly Assyrian, partly purely ideographic, partly even Elamite or Kossæan, afford a good example of the difficulty and danger of trusting implicitly to such guides. It is from this cause that Assyrian has been taken for Accadian, Accadian for Assyrian; while ideographs have been read phonetically, and phonetic characters as if they were ideographs."

NEW ASTRONOMIES.

Unfinished Worlds: A Study in Astronomy. By S. H. Parkes, F.R.A.S., F.L.S. James Pott & Co.

Half Hours with the Stars: A Plain and Easy Guide to the Knowledge of the Constellations. . . . Maps and Text specially prepared for American Students. By Richard A. Proctor, F.R.A.S. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

The New Astronomy: By Samuel Pierpont Langley, Ph.D., LL.D. Boston: Ticknor & Co.

Outlines of Physiography: The Movements of the Earth. By J. Norman Lockyer, F.R.S. Macmillan & Co.

The Asteroids, or Minor Planets between Mars and Jupiter. By Daniel Kirkwood, LL.D. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.

Astronomy for Amateurs: A Practical Manual of Telescopic Research in all Latitudes. Edited by John A. Westwood Oliver. Longmans, Green & Co.

Old and New Astronomy. By Richard A. Proctor. Longmans, Green & Co. [Part I.]

SUCH a book as 'Unfinished Worlds' is deserving of very little notice. The author writes like a mere dabbler, making frequent exhibitions of his ignorance, and bad use of English besides. The disappearances of Saturn's ring are phenomena he has not mastered; Struve's hypothesis of the closing in of this ring is accepted as fact; and Darwin's famous researches into the tidal evolution of satellite systems are all in vain for him, for the satellites of Mars are an unaccountable enigma, unless allowed to be asteroids in captivity! The "size" of a star and its "magnitude" are one and the same thing to Mr. Parkes, and the plumb-line is an instrument for measuring distances.

Amateurs and tyros in star-lore have to thank Mr. Proctor for another means to their end in his 'Half Hours with the Stars.' It is very easy, as he says, to gain a knowledge of the stars—that is, star names and sky places—if the learner sets to work in the proper manner. Of course, the attempt to use a set of the ordinary star maps, which give no direct indication of the position of the stars and constellations in the sky, is a very improper manner—first, because it is at times even a little difficult for the astronomer to pick up particular asterisms from such maps, and the beginner could not be expected to do better; and, second, because of the perpetual recurrence of the same difficulty in the perennial change of relation of constellation lines to the horizon plane. Mr. Proctor has sought to overcome all troubles by showing in twelve circular maps all the visible stars of our latitudes. Each has the zenith for its centre, and the horizon for its periphery, and shows, thus, at some hour each night, the position and direction—the names, too—of all the stars readily visible to the average eye. More may be gained than is lost by crowding these maps with many a line and symbol; but it makes much difficulty in imagining how the sky looks from the confused fulness of the map. Non-stellar

matter might at least have been less prominent. Appropriate letterpress description faces each map. The book is well got up, and cannot fail to afford valuable help to the child in ouranography.

In 'The New Astronomy,' by Professor Langley, we find omission of little or nothing of the physical processes of to-day: photometry, dry-plate photography with its marvels, spectroscopy—all are there. Nor does he end with the bare results of the new research; all is thought out philosophically, and the ultimate bearings indicated. The author shows his culture, without obtruding it, and his book is charming reading, in spite of minor faults in style and polish. The question of the industrial relations of the sun to man is felicitously dealt with, and Professor Langley shows himself a firm believer in the future of sun-power. The sun-machines and solar engines so far built are sometimes thought of as mere playthings. "If toys," he says, "they are the toys of the childhood of a science which is destined to grow, and in its maturity to apply this solar energy to the use of all mankind." Again, p. 116:

"Whoever finds the way to make industrially useful the vast sun-power now wasted on the deserts of north Africa or the shores of the Red Sea, will effect a greater change in men's affairs than any conqueror in history has done; for he will once more people those waste places with the life that swarmed there in the best days of Carthage and of old Egypt, but under another civilization, where man shall no longer worship the sun as a god, but shall have learned to make it his servant."

The publishers have given Professor Langley's work the handsome setting it deserves—with an abundance of illustrations, fine paper, and a rich binding. For the most part, the aptly chosen and well-executed illustrations are not less new than the astronomy to which they relate. We find some fault with the printer's scattering of them among the subject-matter—drawings and text hitch along together, at times with marked inconvenience to the reader, who has frequently to turn many leaves before finding the cut under description. The engraver's work is generally beyond criticism, but the drawing of the milky way (p. 225) is very faulty, while Common's superb photograph of the Orion nebula is utterly ruined by the coarse cutting of the gravers. The typographical accuracy is noteworthy—we have observed a single error, p. 233, where the initials of the well-known discoverer of double stars should be transposed. The reader familiar with the original researches of other workers in like fields with Professor Langley will not fail to observe the pleasing fulness of his notice of what they have done. Now and then his own painstaking investigations are only touched upon—or entirely passed over—with a grace of modesty which comes near depriving the reader of what he has a right to expect. A copiously full index, with cross-references, is a great help in recalling special passages. Professor Langley has made a thoroughly fascinating book—fascinating in the matter to which it relates, and no less fascinating in the way the story is told. We may justly expect it to arouse an interest in the "new astronomy" no less than the personality of Mitchell nearly half a century ago aroused in the old.

In the 'Outlines of Physiography,' Mr. Lockyer will essay a survey of Nature with strict relation to the Earth's place therein, especially, though not exclusively, from the standpoint of modern physical astronomy. Such a theme calls for breadth of view and philosophic treatment. With the steady progress of physical science, the Earth has dwindled in significance as man has grown older: it began as the centre of the universe; it is now reduced to a small mass of matter revolving round a small star. But proportionally as the Earth's place in nature has thus been subject to continual degradation, so has man's mental horizon been extended. For the purpose in view, exhaustive treatment of "the movements of the Earth" is not required. Prefacing his work proper with useful chapters on the measurement of angular space and the measurement of time, the Earth's axial rotation is first discussed, and then its orbital revolution: while, finally, the results of both rotation and revolution are considered. There is no lack of general balance, and the whole work is written in Mr. Lockyer's clear and easy style. He excels in the apt choice of subjects for illustration, of which there is an abundance.

In his little treatise on 'The Asteroids,' Dr. Kirkwood, the American "authority" on small planets, if we may so say, makes on behalf of this unique system of bodies a fair claim for more particular attention than it has hitherto received. Their number is undergoing rapid increase. The rival discoverers are still at work—Peters of Clinton, who has found nearly fifty new planets, and Palisa of Vienna, whose string now counts three score and over. If present indications are to be trusted, the total number of small planets known in 1890 will reach 300. Much tabular and statistical matter regarding the group is clearly presented in part i of this book, while part ii deals with the very interesting questions of the origin of the ring, and the relations of its various zones to the comets of short period. If ultimately established, this latter connection will more than compensate astronomers for the deal of drudgery, observational and calculative, imposed by the growing multitude of known bodies between the orbits of Mars and Jupiter.

A late President of the Royal Astronomical Society, in presenting the gold medal of the Society to an amateur astronomer a few years since, directed attention to the fact that the amateur who can provide himself with sufficient instrumental means for original research need fear no professional rivalry; it is, indeed, from this class of workers that the most striking advantages in astronomy are to be expected. It was a good idea to bring together in a single manual such information as the amateur is most in need of—to show him what work is worth doing, to guard him against wasting time on work not worth doing—in fact, to indicate clearly the most effective methods of using such instrumental means as he may possess. One has only to read such "reports of observatories" in America as were issued by the Smithsonian Institution seven or eight years ago, to become astonished at the vast amount of well-made astronomical apparatus scattered throughout the country, and at the utterly aimless manner in which a good deal of it is used. The many-authored little volume before us, 'Astronomy for Amateurs,' is intended to relieve this false relation. Among the writers who contribute special chapters are Sir Howard Grubb, Burnham, Maunder, and Denning, well-recognized specialists.

With a dozen authors it is not remarkable that some important points should have been passed with insufficient treatment, while others are omitted entirely. Had each writer set out to make plain the precise relation of the known to the unknown, or of the known to that which is worth trying to find out, the result would have been better adapted to the end in view. As it is, the work as a whole is too little different from previous manuals for the telescopist. Perhaps the amateur is not supposed to know more than he usually does, but he is surely presumed to have more of the astronomic sense than he usually has. We cannot enter upon detailed criticism of the individual chapters, but we notice at the outset, in Sir Howard Grubb's treatment of the telescope, the omission of Lord Lindsay's clever device for converting the usual form of alt-azimuth stand into an effective equatorial mounting, knowledge of which is of prime importance in manipulating such telescopes as amateurs are most often provided with. After informing the hopeful reader that the small planets are mostly beyond the reach of his telescope, what sense is there in filling up a half-dozen pages with a mere enumeration of these bodies, such as may be found anywhere? We cannot say whose fault it is, if not the editor's, that the different parts of the work show a lack of relative balance. Impertinent details occupy pages when mere lines would have done. Misprints and misstatements are few. If the almost entire absence of illustrations is unfortunate, the lack of an index is more so.

The time has long since gone by when a new astronomical work by Mr. Proctor was likely to create any surprise. With his 'Old and New Astronomy,' of which part i has come to us, he has taken possession of a field from which no Anglican harvest has been garnered for many a year, and much good seems like to come from his reaping.

"The meaning of the stupendous celestial mechanism, the beauty and harmony of the celestial architecture, it is not for the Flamsteeds, the Maskelynes, and the Airys—useful, nay, essential though their work may be—but for the Newtons and Herschels of astronomy, to investigate. It is the celestial scene as viewed and studied by philosophers such as these, not merely as surveyed in Government observatories, that I propose to contemplate in the present volume; for astronomy, regarded as a means of philosophic training, owes almost all its value to men of the former type, scarcely any (though commerce owes much) to those of the latter" (p. 9).

If the style of the introduction smacks a little of Dick, Chalmers, *et al.*—astronomical authors slightly off color nowadays—we readily pass by on the other side when we reflect that a little of this sort of thing, now as in their day, is wholesome for inspiration's sake; while there is more than enough of compensation therefor in the high place the author assigns to Huxley's "first commandment of Science" (p. 3). Mr. Proctor makes no error in going well into the ancient astronomies. "We cannot," he says, "rightly apprehend either what ancient races achieved, or what they failed to achieve, in astronomy; we cannot rightly understand the edifices they erected or the labors they undertook in pursuance of astronomical observations, unless we perceive and admit that, among them all, astronomy was the servant of astrology, and astrology the high priest of religion" (p. 17). So he gives the prominence he ought to the pyramid of Egypt—"observatory, tomb, and temple"; to Sir Robert Barker's account of the massive stone instruments of the ancient observatory of the Brahmins at Benares; and to the Gentur Muntur (Royal Observatory) of Rajah Jeysing built at Delhi near the beginning of the eighteenth century. Oriental research shows the significance of such structures more and more; and the day may come when discoveries in the astronomy of the ancient peoples of the earth will contribute to the further refinement of the modern theories of the celestial motions, and thus possess far more than merely archæologic interest. Entire absence of the mediæval astronomy, Arabic and other, seems to us too prominent an omission, but that may well come in later. The relations of

the ancient instruments to the modern are duly emphasized, and the fact clearly shown that, in so far as abstract principles go, the instruments of centuries ago were quite the equals of our own. With few exceptions the cuts are well chosen, and nearly fulfil the publisher's promise in the prospectus.

Flora of the Hawaiian Islands: A Description of their Phanerogams and Vascular Cryptogams. By William Hillebrand, M.D. Annotated and published after the author's death by W. F. Hillebrand. B. Westermann & Co. 1888. 8vo, pp. 673, with maps.

THIS archipelago has peculiar charms for the naturalist, owing to its extreme isolation. We expect to find islands which lie near the mainland or in close proximity to other large islands, clothed with vegetation borrowed from their neighbors. But, in the case of islands which are remote from all other land, the naturalist is forced to ask whether there might not have been, in geological times, some path from a now distant shore by which plants could have made their way; failing this, he is obliged to note the direction and force of ocean currents on which seeds and fragments of branches might have been borne. These questions have a remarkable degree of interest in regard to the Hawaiian or Sandwich group. If we except a few islets and reefs, the group stands alone. The nearest large islands are a trifle less, and the western shore of the American continent a little more, than two thousand miles away. Hence the Hawaiian vegetation affords an exceptional field for the examination of the question of variation within a limited geographical area.

The plants of the islands have been examined by a good many explorers, and large collections are to be found in all the principal herbaria, but, up to the present year, the results of the systematic studies have been widely scattered through journals and occasional publications. Now, however, these *disjecta membra* are gathered together by one who knew what place each part should properly take, and from the well-arranged material can be obtained many answers to questions of variation.

Dr. William Hillebrand, a German physician with a marked taste for the study of natural history, and with special qualifications for the pursuit of botany, resided for about twenty years in the islands, collecting and cultivating the plants around him, devoting to this work, as did our lamented Engelmann in his study of our flora, the scanty leisure left by the exacting practice of his profession. But, alas! also like Engelmann, he was not permitted to see his works brought together in a published form: the task of collating and revising has been done by other hands. Further, like Engelmann, Hillebrand has been fortunate in his editor: the 'Flora of the Hawaiian Islands,' which he had nearly finished, has been brought to completion by the loving care of a devoted son, who unites sound judgment with minute accuracy. The younger Hillebrand has wisely left unchanged in any great degree certain general and incomplete notes from which the lamented author would doubtless have framed a full account of the geographical botany of the islands. Although fragmentary, these notes are of high value, and in their unmodified form serve to indicate how great is our loss in the death of Dr. Hillebrand. It will be interesting to examine briefly some of them, because they throw considerable light on the general problem of variation.

First, as to the relations of the islands to the main land. Soundings show that there extends northwest a narrow band of raised sea-bottom, with an average depth of less than 1,000 fathoms:

"This line of reefs follows exactly the trend of the fissure in the globe's crust on which the Hawaiian volcanoes have been built up; and as there is abundant evidence that the age of the different islands of the group increases from east to west, it is fair to conclude that these islets, rocks, and reefs lie on the same fissure, and are only the coral-covered peaks of submerged older volcanoes, or, in other words, that the volcanic action commenced at the northwest extremity, thirty degrees of longitude northwest from the Island of Kauai, and gradually moved on to the island of Hawaii, with subsidence of the older formations while it progressed. But the western extremity of this raised sea-bottom land is separated by a great distance and enormous depths of sounding from the nearest high land, Japan, and the circumstance that the present flora of the Hawaiian Islands has less affinity to that of Japan than to any other warm or temperate country on the borders of the Pacific Ocean, forbids altogether the assumption that this submerged chain of islands can at any time have formed a road for the migration of plants."

A study of the ocean currents has convinced the author that the case does not stand much better with them than with respect to the other question. But even if the currents flowed in such directions as to carry plants towards the islands from either the lower coast of America or from the Moluccas, the transference by such currents is attended with many perils which very greatly diminish the number of actual survivals.

Second, the climate and the soil of the islands give us a wide scope for variations. "A single day's march will carry the traveller from the tropical heat of the coast to the region of perpetual snow; and in crossing the breadth of an island he may pass from a climate with an annual average of 180 inches of rainfall to one of 30 inches or less." Although the soil is generally uniform, there is one striking exception: the valleys have a heavy retentive clay, but the ground is for the most part pervious.

Now, lastly, in such a climate, and under conditions where foreign intruders could be so few, what are the native plants? "Deducting 115 species introduced by man since the discovery, and 24 which probably came in before that period, there remain 860 species of flowering plants and ferns as original inhabitants of the Hawaiian Islands, distributed over 265 genera, and of these 860 species 653 are peculiar to the islands." Well may the author say, "Nature here luxuriates in formative energy." This he illustrates by a clear statement of the facts in regard to the ferns, which in the islands reach a marvellous degree of development.

Owing to the innumerable intermediate forms, the author has been forced to abandon the conventional limits of description, and although he apologizes for this, as if it might indicate a certain tendency to prolixity, he has, by his detailed descriptions of varieties, furnished most interesting material for the study of variations. Again we say that the editor has done wisely in not changing in any essential features the nature of his father's plan. The work is a noble monument.

Select Pleas of the Crown. Vol. 1. A. D. 1200-1225. Edited for the Selden Society by F. W. Maitland. London: Bernard Quaritch. 1888.

WE have already briefly referred to this important first volume of the publications of the Selden Society. The cases here reproduced and translated occurred at a very important period in the history of the law. In Mr. Maitland's 'Pleas of the Crown for the County of Gloucester,' in 1221 (Macmillan, 1884), he says:

"This was the first eyre held in Gloucestershire since the abolition of the ordeal. We thus catch sight of trial by jury at a most interesting and critical moment of its development. A greater number of remembrances may be called up by saying that this was the first eyre in Gloucestershire after the grant of the Great Charter. The charter, it will be remembered, was sealed on 15th June, 1215."

And of the contents of that book, he added:

"It is a picture, or rather, since little imaginative art went to its making, a photograph of English life as it was early in the thirteenth century. . . . We have here, as it were, a section of the body politic which shows just those most vital parts of which, because they were deep-seated, the soul politic was hardly conscious—the system of local government and police, the organization of county, hundred, and township."

All this has its application to the contents of the present volume. These are made up of selections from eyre rolls in the reign of John, from 1201 to 1203 inclusive, and in the reign of Henry III., from 1221 to 1225 inclusive; and from other plea rolls, of the King's chief court (whether at Westminster or following the King in his wanderings)—in John's reign, from 1200 to 1214 inclusive, and in Henry's reign during the four terms of 1220. The distinctive character of these rolls—both those of the "central" and "what we may call the visitatorial courts"—as well as of the tribunals themselves, are pointed out by Mr. Maitland in a very clear and simple way, and with an engaging but unobtrusive charm of style that is very seldom found united with so much learning.

The "eyres" were the iters or circuits of the King's itinerant justices. But the King himself in these early times was also itinerant, and wherever he went, went also, in a pretty literal sense, the fountain of justice. It was only by the Great Charter of 1215 that it was first fixed that common pleas should no longer follow the King; but even then a court of judges and pleas of the crown still followed the monarch wherever he went. What this meant to judges and suitors may be seen by looking at the "Itinerary of King John," from which Sir Henry Maine quotes in chapter vi. of his 'Early Law and Custom.'

"I take," he says, "almost at a venture May of 1207. On the 1st of May the King is found at Pontefract; on the 3d at Derby, on the 4th at Hunston, on the 5th at Lichfield, on the 8th at Gloucester, on the 10th at Bristol, on the 13th at Bath, on the 16th at Marlborough, on the 18th at Ludgershall, on the 20th at Winchester, on the 22d at Southampton, on the 24th at Porchester, on the 27th at Aldingbourn, on the 28th at Arundel, on the 29th at Knep Castle, and on the 31st at Lewes."

Maine gives further equally surprising illustrations of this wandering habit, and observes that these are no exceptional instances of activity.

"This was practically his life during every month of every year of his reign. King John passes for an effeminate sovereign, but no commercial traveller of our day, employed by a pushing house of business, was ever, I believe, so incessantly in movement, and for so many successive years, with all the help of railways."

All this wandering is regarded as a survival from a much earlier day.

"These ancient kings were itinerant, travelling or ambulatory personages. When they became stationary they generally perished. . . . With the sealing of the Great Charter, the early history of the relation of the English King to civil justice comes to a close, and the modern English judicial system is established." "He sealed Magna Charta at Runnymede on June 15, 1215, and before July 15 he had been over the whole South of England, and again northwards as far as Oxford. Meantime the judges of the Common Pleas were sitting—as they did ever since till the Court of Common

Pleas was absorbed the other day in the High Court of Justice—at Westminster, and at Westminster only."

By the Assize of Clarendon in 1166, the mode of trial in the principal pleas of the crown was fixed as the ordeal of fire or water; compurgation, the older form of trial, was, by construction, abolished. Then in November, 1215, the fourth Lateran Council, in effect, abolished the trial by ordeal by forbidding any ecclesiastic, which was as much as to say any judge, to take part in allowing it; and this was accepted and recognized in England in the third year of Henry III. (1219), in royal writs addressed to the itinerant justices, which suggested no substitute for the ordeal, and commended all that was left unsettled to the sound judgment of the justices themselves. They seem thereafter, in the exercise of this discretion, by consent of the accused and otherwise, gradually to have introduced the trial by jury in the chief classes of criminal cases. This system of trial, in certain civil cases, had lately come in, and had worked well. In criminal cases, also, it had been sometimes resorted to, by the King's special license. And now it offered a way out of the singular difficulty which had just befallen the administration of the regular criminal justice of the country. It is here that we seem to find the origin of our wholly peculiar system of a double jury in criminal cases—the prototype of the grand jury being found in the accusing inquest which had been provided for in the Assize of Clarendon and was still continued.

The cases in this volume, as we have already said, illustrate the law of criminal trials during the very grave and important transition period when these great events were coming on and happening and passing by. We are sitting at the cradle of trial by jury in criminal cases, an institution which English-speaking people have always accounted sacred. Here also we find the ordeal in force; as in a case before John, at Wells. Early in his reign, "William Trenchebof was said to have handed to Inger of Faldingthorpe the knife wherewith Inger slew Wido Foliot. He is suspected [*malecreditus*] thereof by jurors. Let him purge himself by the water. . . . He has failed and is hanged." Mr. Maitland remarks that this is the only case of a failure at the ordeal that he has found. "Success seems common." Of the old criminal appeal and the award of trial by battle there are many instances. The cases are full of quaint and circumstantial narrative, opening a window into the every-day life of the times.

Indices of persons and places are given, which have a value of their own. Appended to the volume are several important circulars of the Selden Society describing the character of the work which it has undertaken; we commend these to the attention of our readers. It should be added that the volumes of the Society can be obtained of Quaritch, but only at a price considerably above the annual subscription of a guinea, which secures membership in the Society and a copy of its publications for the year.

Tenting on the Plains. By Mrs. E. B. Custer. Charles L. Webster & Co. 1888. 8vo, pp. 702, with illustrations.

Mrs. Custer has broken open and lavishly exposed her memories of military life in Texas and Kansas during the two years immediately following Lee's surrender. Again, as in 'Boots and Saddles,' we are taken directly into her home, and share her daily hopes and fears, see the courage and adroitness with which she repressed all ills, great and small, that might interfere with her presence near her husband, and witness, if not partake of, the felicity that crowned her life when he was by her side. The book is as open as the sky. The dark clouds and the bright stars are not plainer than her trials and her joys, while there is always the central figure whose presence makes day, and whose absence is night. So plenary a revelation would not be pleasant were it less ingenuous; but it is the spontaneous unfolding of a young wife's devotion, as unaffected and as natural as the development of a flower. The wonder is how, in all their fresh detail, the features of those long-past wandering years can be reproduced. She well may exclaim, "Blessed be our memory, which preserves to us the joys as well as the sadness of life!"

All the characters presented are real, but after the two central figures, decidedly the most attractive is Eliza, the General's colored cook, well known in the field in his cavalry division and beyond, and now introduced to a much wider circle, where there is no doubt she will be duly appreciated. Eliza's practical sense and strong individuality make her an important personage in the kitchen and in the book, and it is a pleasure to observe that prosperous, but still enthusiastic, in her maturer years she is a substantial co-laborer in the preparation of this volume. What Eliza said and did comes next to the doings of the heroine.

But the book is not meant to be a mere chronicle of the small beer of domestic pleasures and trouble and nothing more. It is a record of marches through Southern swamps and forests, of northers on land and a hurricane at sea, of perils by Indian warfare, by cholera, by floods—all serious and sometimes disastrous. Its public value consists in its presentation of the constant trials and privations, as well as of more heroic adventures, that befell the troops when "there was no wild clamor of war to enable them to forget the absence of the commonest necessities of existence." It also commemorates the hardships, personally observed, of those pioneers who, pressing back the savage and redeeming the desert, have made Kansas within so short a period a land of wheat and corn. This unvarnished but very true account of daily life on a frontier that is now contracting, but has not disappeared, is instructive to those to whom "the army in peace" is a contradictory, if not a meaningless, phrase.

With her extreme frankness, the author exposes some of the social infelicities of her earlier garrison life, due to the heterogeneous material of which the new regular regiments were organized in 1866. When bravery under fire and political influence were the chief determinants in securing commissions, it is obvious that other sterling qualities, to say nothing of the graces of life, were to be found chiefly by good luck. But we believe we are justified in saying that the crooked sticks and odd fish that appeared in those earlier scenes have been fairly eliminated long since, with a corresponding elevation of the social tone following.

The book is an odd mixture of grave adventure and minute family detail, and its occasional lapses in style, in English, and in syntax, with its sprightly unconventionality, only emphasize the real vigor of much of the original matter. Among the various incidents selected for quotation, space barely allows reference to one: the flood by night on Big Creek, when their own lives and many others were in danger, when seven men were drowned, and when Mrs. Custer, Eliza, and a clothesline rescued one nearly perished wretch. Mrs. Custer paints the setting, but Eliza tells this tale most dramatically. Although somewhat overgrown, this volume may fairly take its place by its chronological successor, but actual precursor, 'Boots and Saddles.' It is published in a style similar to Grant's memoirs, from the same press.

Ethics of Boxing and Manly Sport. By John Boyle O'Reilly. Boston: Ticknor & Co.

One-third of this book is devoted to boxing and collateral questions of diet and training; and if Mr. O'Reilly had omitted twenty-five pages of padding, about Olympic games and Roman gladiators, in regard to which the classical dictionaries contain ample information, this part of the book, in spite of some faults, would have been quite satisfactory. The illustrations are very clever, the scientific exposition of the mysteries of the manly art is sufficiently clear to satisfy the most exacting critic and the chapters on "Diet" and "Exercise for City Dwellers" are of real value, both to young men and maidens. Mr. O'Reilly is an enthusiast on the subject of boxing, although he condemns the brutality of fighting with bare fists, and he claims for his favorite sport that it is the most perfect of all exercises, and that "the knowing how to fight makes common men self-reliant and independent." These virtues have often before been claimed for boxing, and it is worth while to consider the justice of the claim. It is undoubtedly true that in boxing a man brings into play almost every muscle of his body; but those who are opposed to boxing, on the ground that its tendency is almost inevitably to brutalize, may fairly claim that rowing, wrestling, base-ball, foot-ball, and swimming are very nearly, if not quite, as good exercises, while, from the ethical point of view, they are distinctly superior. The second virtue claimed for boxing is open to grave doubt; for the fighting that is done on modern battle-fields is of a kind that has little in common with boxing, while, on the other hand, there is always a risk that the youth who becomes a clever boxer may become a quarrelsome bully. In this connection, it is worth while to note that whereas boxing was very popular among the athletic clubs of New York ten years ago, it is now entirely neglected, so much so that it is only practised by amateurs of doubtful standing, and by semi-professionals. But whatever may be the conclusion in regard to the general merits of boxing, Mr. O'Reilly has certainly said all that can be said in its favor.

The remaining two-thirds of his book have nothing to do with boxing; nor does the second section, which consists of a long and very uninteresting account of the ancient weapons of Ireland, wielded by Cuchullin and other unpronounceable heroes, bear any sort of relation to the rest of the book. This mythical discourse has, to all appearance, been thrown in as an afterthought, either to round out the book, or from an economical desire on the part of the author to turn to some account materials collected for other purposes.

In the last hundred pages Mr. O'Reilly returns to the present day, and gives an admirable account of several canoeing trips on American rivers. His descriptions of scenery and of the charms of camping out betray the poet, and to most readers these last chapters will appear decidedly the best in the volume. They are more carefully written than the pugilistic part of the book, which shows signs of having been put together in haste—possibly to take advantage of the recent revival of Sullivanism. In one of the early chapters, for instance, Mr. O'Reilly writes: "The games were opened to all Greeks. There was no *exemption*—except for women"—a sentence which does not seem

to convey any clear meaning; while a little further on may be found the remarkable statement that "in 1877 a Turkish iron-clad moved at the terrible speed of thirty miles an hour." This is haste indeed!

If Mr. O'Reilly had cut out about 125 of his 350 pages, and had taken a little more pains with the remainder, the result would have been a very enjoyable book instead of an uneven and, on the whole, a disappointing one.

Our Republic: A Text-Book upon the Civil Government of the United States, with a Historic Introduction. By Prof. M. B. C. True and Hon. John W. Dickinson. Leach, Shewell & Sanborn. 1888. Pp. vii, 264.

THE publishers' circular accompanying this book announces that it is "ample in its treatment, . . . scientific in its methods, . . . accurate in statement." The best commentary on their opinion may be found in a few extracts. A book on Civil Government can hardly be called "ample" which gives but two pages to a description of local and municipal government (pp. 43–45); and four more to the State governments (pp. 39–42). For grammar-school instruction, it is not "scientific" to introduce, without definition, such legal terms as "committee-delegates" (p. 20), "common law" (p. 33), "presentment" (p. 53), "sold upon execution" (p. 64), "conveyances" (p. 69), "Act of God" (p. 74). The degree of accuracy may be judged from the following statements: "Pennsylvania. This State was granted to William Penn in 1681" (p. 13); "The adoption of the Constitution [1787–88] changed the colonies into States" (p. 22); "The Convention adopted the Constitution, September 17, 1787, and its members from all the colonies, except those from Rhode Island, signed it" (p. 25); "The district attorney is the prosecuting officer of the county" (p. 43); "To have the privilege of suffrage, a person must be a citizen of the United States" (p. 45); "The district attorneys and other marshals" (p. 128); "There is little reason for any regulation of commerce between the States" (p. 105); "Inside its own territory the State authority is supreme" (p. 128). The book is full of similar inexcusable and misleading errors.

Society in Rome under the Cæsars. By William Ralph Inge, M.A., Fellow of King's College, Cambridge, and Assistant Master at Eton. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1888. 12mo, pp. 276.

MR. INGE'S essay obtained the Hare prize at Cambridge in 1886. It consists of ten chapters, headed "Religion," "Philosophy," "Morality," etc., and may be recommended as containing an accurate, well-digested account of the subject under consideration. All sources of information appear to have been diligently used, and the view of society is fair and truthful, equally removed from the undiscriminating denunciation indulged in by too many moderns, and the opposite fault, of extenuating the evils and immoralities of the times. It is rather a description than a picture—certainly a safer undertaking, and perhaps more generally useful; but we should say that the best treatment of such a subject, if it were a possible one, would be a graphic presentation, with abundance of illustrative incident, such as should give the treatise something of the characteristic of a good novel. Mr. Inge has had a different aim, and has succeeded where, if he had tried the other method, he might have failed.

A real defect is the failure to look below the surface. Society as it was in the first centuries is very truthfully delineated, so far as was possible with the materials at hand; the author laments that the accessible materials make it necessary to confine his view for the most part to the upper classes of society. But there is one kind of evidence of which he has not made the most—the drift and tendencies of society, which were, of course, concealed from contemporaries, but which we, looking back from a distance, can discern clearly. The second century shows vast changes in society, on the whole for the better; Mr. Pater has thoroughly entered into the spirit of this in his 'Marius the Epicurean.' Now, the fault we find with Mr. Inge is that he does not make us feel that society was in *movement*—it is described too much as a fixed condition of things to be analyzed and catalogued, and not enough as a current of human passions and forces, leading to a well-known and, on the whole, improved state of society.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bell, A. M. World-English: the Universal Language. N. D. C. Hodges. 25 cents.
Benedict, Anne K. My Wonder Story. Boston: D. Lothrop Co.
Benedix, R. Doctor Wespe. Macmillan & Co. 75 cents.
Besant—Rice. By Celia's Arbour: A Tale of Portsmouth Town. Library ed. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Besant—Rice. The Monks of Thelema: A Novel. Library ed. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Besant—Rice. This Son of Vulcan. Library ed. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Besant—Rice. With Harp and Crown: A Novel. Library ed. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Bishop, J. P. Common Law and Codification; or, the Common Law as a System of Reasoning. Chicago: T. H. Flood & Co. 50 cents.
Buchanan, Rachel. A Débutante in New York Society: Her Illusions and What Became of Them. D. Appleton & Co.
Carr, L. Missouri: a Bone of Contention. [Commonwealth Series.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Case, Jules. Bonnet rouge. Paris: Victor-Havard; Boston: Schoenhof.
Cawein, M. J. The Triumph of Music, and Other Lyrics. Louisville: John P. Morton & Co.
Christianity in the Daily Conduct of Life: Studies of Texts Relating to Principles of the Christian Character. Thomas Whittaker. $1.50.
Connelly, Emma M. Tilting at Windmills: A Story of the Blue Grass Country. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.50.
Dowling, R. Ignorant Essays. D. Appleton & Co.
Fawcett, E. Olivia Delaplane: A Novel. Boston: Ticknor & Co. $1.50.
Fish, G. T. A Guide to the Conduct of Meetings; Being Models of Parliamentary Practice for Young and Old. Harper & Bros.
Frank, Félix, and Chenevière, Adolphe. Lexique de la langue de Bonaventure des Périers. Paris: L. Cerf; Boston: Schoenhof.
Hall, J. G. Shakespeare versus Ingersoll. Cleveland: The Burrows Brothers Co. 25 cents.
Hardy, T. Wessex Tales. Strange, Lively and Commonplace. Harper & Bros. 30 cents.
Henderson, G. J. Lingua: An International Language for Purposes of Commerce and Science. London: Trübner & Co. 25 cents.
Hillingdon Hall; or, the Cockney Squire. A Tale of Country Life. Illustrated. Scribner & Welford.
His Way and Her Will: A Novel. Belford, Clarke & Co.
James, H. Partial Portraits. Macmillan & Co. $1.75.
Jewett, Sarah Orne. The King of Folly Island, and Other People. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Journal des Goncourt. Mémoires de la vie littéraire. T. III. (1866–1870). Paris: Charpentier; Boston: Schoenhof.
Kluge, F. Von Luther bis Lessing. 2d ed. Strassburg: K. J. Trübner.
Kostyák, H., and Ader, A. Deutschland und die Deutschen. Modern Language Pub. Co.
Mackay, Dr. C. A Dictionary of Lowland Scotch. With an Introductory Chapter on the Poetry, Humor, and Literary History of the Scotch Language. Boston: Ticknor & Co. $3.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 7, 1888.

The Week.

THE controversy in the House on Monday over the question of pension legislation serves to emphasize the recklessness with which the Republicans support every scheme of extravagance. Among the bills which they wanted to push through, the most important was one proposing to repeal the arrears limitation, and in this attitude they were only living up to the Republican national platform of 1884, which said: "The Republican party pledges itself to the repeal of the limitation contained in the Arrears Act of 1879, so that all invalid soldiers shall share alike, and their pensions begin with the date of disability, and not with the date of application." The lowest estimate of the amount which such a change would call for is three hundred millions of dollars, and the probability is that it would prove to be a great deal more. Yet there is no doubt that if the Republicans had carried the election of 1884, this immense job would have been carried through, and they are already giving fresh pledges to vote away these hundreds of millions if the people will restore them to power in 1888.

The Prohibition party perceived the fitness of making mention of the tariff in their national platform. It is instructive to observe that the Platform Committee, being under no partisan bias, took the common-sense view of the question—the view that is undoubtedly held by nine-tenths of the unprejudiced people of the country, viz., that the Treasury surplus ought to be reduced by repealing duties on the necessaries of life. The resolution reported by the Committee was as follows:

> "That an adequate public revenue being necessary, it may properly be raised by import duties and by an equitable assessment upon the property and the legitimate business of the country; but import duties should be so reduced that no surplus shall be accumulated in the Treasury, and that the burdens of taxation shall be removed from food, clothing, and other comforts and necessaries of life."

This is what the average citizen believes and is ready to vote for. If the platform of the Prohibitionists had been left as it was reported and unanimously adopted, it would have been complete and satisfactory. But at the evening session a Pennsylvania delegate proposed an additional paragraph which was adopted in these words:

> "And imposed on such other articles of import as will give protection both to the manufacturing employer and the producing laborer against the competition of the world."

The platform as thus finished is a concession to protectionism, but is by no means sufficiently so to meet the requirements of the tariff Republicans, whose record as made up in the House of Representatives is against any reductions of protective duties whatever, whether on the necessaries or on the luxuries of life.

There was a long letter in the *Times* on Monday, apparently inspired by somebody in the Treasury, which was doubtless intended to explain "the sugar frands," but, unhappily, explains nothing. It is simply a very verbose plea that it is a shame to suspect such excellent men as Mr. Maynard and Mr. Fairchild of making mistakes. Some of its statements are really astonishing. But supposing them to be all true, how are we to account for the fact that only three or four underlings in the Appraiser's Department were removed, while the Appraiser himself, Mr. McMullen, and other chiefs who approved of these subordinates and vouched for them, were left untouched? And what about Deputy-Collector Davis, the Broome County politician, and his ten Binghamton "heelers"? Was it all along of those "sugar frauds" that these gentry were allowed to leave their work to run caucuses and conventions and speculate in post-office sites in Binghamton?

The defeat of Mr. J. B. Eustis for re-election to the United States Senate from Louisiana is a matter for congratulation, and carries with it some instructive lessons. Mr. Eustis was, we think, the first leading Democrat in the country to denounce the civil-service policy which President Cleveland adopted at the beginning of his Administration. In an interview to which he subjected himself in April, 1885, before the President had been in office two months, he spoke as follows: "You can say for me—and you cannot say it too strong—that in my judgment Mr. Cleveland, from a Democratic standpoint, has been a conspicuous and humiliating failure. . . . The fact that a horde of unscrupulous, ignorant, dyed-in-the-wool, and offensively partisan radical leaders are permitted to remain in office all over the country under Democratic rule, and in direct violation and contradiction of the very principles of Democracy and the wishes of a majority of the people as expressed at the ballot-box, is a shame and a disgrace, and a reflection on the competency, capability, and character of those whose suffrages placed Mr. Cleveland in the White House. . . . The Democratic element will see to it that this Administration is Democratic in the full significance of the term, or that Mr. Cleveland and his Cabinet shall fall and be buried in the ruins they have made." This talk was eagerly reproduced by the *Sun* and similar advocates of the spoils doctrine, and pointed to by them as the beginning of the revolt that the President was preparing for himself. In private conversation Eustis did not hesitate to say that he cared nothing for the doctrine of the thing, but that he meant to make himself "solid" with the Louisiana legislators. Instead, however, of seeing the President and his Cabinet "buried in the ruins they have made," he finds himself retired to private life by the very legislators whom he thought his demagogism would please, and this only a week in advance of the date on which the President was to be unanimously renominated. The defeat of such a man as Eustis ought to give the President a good deal of information as to where his real strength in his party and throughout the country lies.

The most interesting and encouraging feature of the message submitted to the Louisiana Legislature by Mr. McEnery, the retiring Governor, was the passage devoted to education. It opens with the statement that since the last session of the General Assembly there has been a greater interest manifested in the cause of education throughout the State than at any time in the previous history of Louisiana, and declares that "the people will approve of any legislation that will promote this great interest." Mr. McEnery recalled the fact that in previous messages he had urged legislation in behalf of an enlarged and enlightened system of public education, and insisted that "to effect this the hard fact of local taxation must be resorted to." This is recognized as a necessity in the Constitution of the State, but unfortunately that instrument restricts the amount of taxation and does not permit the parishes (which correspond to counties in the North) to levy so large a local school tax as is required. Mr. McEnery therefore recommended that the Constitution should be so amended as to permit each parish to levy a tax sufficient, with the State tax, to keep the public schools open eight months in the year, and an act proposing such an amendment has since been introduced in the Legislature. The only thing Louisiana has ever lacked to secure good schools was a readiness on the part of the people to tax themselves enough to provide such schools; and the most hopeful feature of the present situation is the evidence that they are at last showing a willingness to put their hands in their own pockets, instead of trying to get them into the Treasury at Washington.

The change in St. Louis journalism which occurred during the week is of far more than local interest. The *Republican*, a Democratic paper which dates back to the early years of the century, and whose name has grown a misnomer during the last generation, has become the *Republic*, and it has a new management as well as a new name. The incoming editor, Mr. Charles H. Jones, has proved his quality by building up the *Florida Times-Union* into one of the most influential papers in the South, and he is excellently fitted to improve the wider opportunity which now opens to him in the West. The policy of the new management, as outlined in the first number, commits the *Republic* to the advocacy

of tariff reform, civil-service reform, and reform in liquor legislation, and the paper promises to be a great power for good. The change is the more noteworthy and hopeful from the fact that the old *Republican* had come to be a Bourbon sheet, while the position which it occupied is one that ought to be filled by a thoroughly progressive journal, such as the *Republic* is sure to be.

"The excitement" in Memphis, Tenn., "is intense," we learn, and "further trouble is feared," which is not surprising, considering that Kennedy Porter, a son of ex-Gov. Porter, who was severely shot some weeks ago by Will Edmunds, for paying attention to Miss Edmunds, having recovered his health, determined on Monday to murder Will on sight. He accordingly "opened fire" on him in the street, and they exchanged nine shots in all, Edmunds being badly wounded and Porter escaping on horseback. Two hours later Alexander White, the cashier of the Commercial Bank of Paris, Tenn., was telling about the fight to a friend in the street, when Dudley Porter, the brother of Kennedy, happening to pass by and overhearing what he was saying, was dissatisfied with his version of the affair, and sought to amend it by informing White that a certain passage in it was a "damned lie." White refused to accept this amendment, and determined to murder Porter for offering it, and accordingly shot him dead. We ought to add that the relations between these two gentlemen were already strained, owing to Porter's having murdered White's brother on a previous occasion. We need hardly say that all the combatants belong to the first families in Tennessee, and that the affair is greatly deplored.

The action of the two Presbyterian Assemblies on the question of organic union has the appearance of a game at cross purposes. The Northern body went to the very extreme of concession and conciliation, adopted a report which had been beforehand freely condemned as giving the whole case away to the Southern Church, and appointed an enlarged committee to renew negotiations. But the Baltimore Assembly dashed the entire scheme by voting by a large majority that organic union was impracticable. This leaves the Northern Church in the very awkward position of having confidently held out a hand only to have it refused. The decision of the Southern Assembly in the Woodrow case certainly lends color to the belief that the Presbyterians of the South are much more sensitively conservative than those of the North. We do not believe that the astounding deliverance on evolution could have been put through the Northern Assembly, even under the spur of theological terrorism with which ecclesiastical bodies are so often ridden. At any rate, with an acknowledged evolutionist at the head of one of its committees, the Philadelphia Assembly would have seemed rather more absurd in passing such a resolution than did the Baltimore gathering.

The Massachusetts Ballot-Reform Bill has been presented for enactment in the Rhode Island Legislature, and its passage is earnestly recommended by the leading journals of both parties in the State. As the quality of the new Legislature is unusually good, there appears to be an excellent prospect for the bill to become a law. Certainly there is no State in the Union where such a law is more urgently demanded, for there is none in which the use of money in elections is carried on more openly, or one in which its influence has been more demoralizing and degrading. Even in the South it would be difficult to find a community in which the moral sense upon the crime of corrupting the ballot-box is more torpid than it is in the intelligent and virtuous State of Rhode Island. The argument that the Republicans must use money because the Democrats do, since that is the only way by which to keep the wicked Democrats out of power, has for years carried all before it. The proposed law would put an end to this style of reasoning, for under it no party would use money to buy votes, for the simple reason that it would be impossible to follow the bribed voter to the polls to see if he voted in accordance with the sale.

The substitution of electricity for hanging in the infliction of capital punishment, in the bill which the Governor has just signed, will put an end to a great deal of revolting barbarism. There never was a word to be said by anybody for execution by hanging, except that it gave a chance for the infliction of torture on the culprit through the vigor of his constitution, or the unskilfulness of the hangman, and afforded the spectators a very brutalizing show. In fact, it was its spectacular possibilities which first commended it to English jurisprudence. The criminal was hanged because he could be seen dangling by thousands when the drop fell or the cart moved away, or could be left hanging as a warning to wicked passers by. The preservation of this mode of execution since executions have become private has been a cruel absurdity. Its horrors have been aggravated in this country, however, by our practice of making the criminal a sort of hero, and surrounding him with a savage pomp, after sentence has been passed. His cell has been open to all comers. Reporters interviewed him every day, and took down his observations on his trial, his denunciations of his prosecutors or jailers, and his maudlin reflections on his situation, and reported the flowers he received and the names of his "callers." All this is now to come to an end. There is to be complete seclusion after sentence. The day of the execution is not to be announced beforehand, and the infliction of the sentence to be witnessed by very few, and, although the body is to be delivered to the friends, wakes and public funerals are not to be allowed.

The most exasperating part of the Fishery Treaty to good Republicans is the *modus vivendi* under which American fishermen are allowed shore privileges by taking out licenses for which they pay $1.50 per ton per year. Any *modus vivendi* is bad, because there is danger that the fishermen will avail themselves of it, and thus get through the season without any other grievances than the payment of the money. But the worst kind of a *modus* is one which proves the falsity of the oft-repeated statement that we want nothing of Canada except what the Treaty of 1818 gives us. The Treaty of 1818 did not give us the right to buy bait, but expressly excepted that privilege. And now comes the schooner *Druid* from Newfoundland with a catch of 180,000 pounds of cod, and reports that both the American and the French fishing fleets had put in to Newfoundland for bait, and that the Americans had taken out licenses and procured all the bait they wanted, while the French were not allowed either licenses or bait. How much happier the condition of the Frenchmen must be, for they can go home with a grievance even if they have no cod. We have not heard of any retaliation bill in the French Chambers in consequence of this discrimination in favor of Americans, but perhaps it is too early to look for one.

The controversy still raging in England and Ireland over the Papal Rescript is one of the oddest of the many odd things which the Irish question has brought to the surface. The first queer thing about it is the eagerness with which the Rescript has been received by the Ministry and the Tory press as a means of putting down "the Plan of Campaign" and boycotting, in the presence of Mr. Balfour's repeated declarations that the Crimes Act has actually been successful not only in stopping the Plan of Campaign and in suppressing boycotting, but in extinguishing the National League itself, at least in a large part of the country. If this boast is justifiable, the Pope's assistance has very little if any importance. The second queer thing is the fierceness with which even the Unionist press in England maintains that the Rescript is sure to be obeyed both by the clergy and the people, against the vehement assurances of the Irish politicians that it will not be so obeyed. To rejoice over the strength of Papal influence in Irish politics is to run counter to all the strongest traditions of English politics. We believe it would be impossible to name an English statesman or publicist of the last eighty years who has not held that the strength of the Irish allegiance to the Catholic clergy and the Pope constituted the greatest difficulty in the government of Ireland by England. The spectacle of a large and respectable portion of the English public, therefore, chuckling over the continued obedience of the Irish people to the Church in secular matters, and denouncing those Irish laymen who oppose it, is undoubtedly one of the strangest spectacles of modern times. It surpasses in many ways even the spectacle of Horace Greeley running for the Presidency as the candidate of the Democratic party, the report of which, according to Mark Twain's

amusing burlesque, led Dr. Livingstone in the heart of Africa to denounce his discoverer, Stanley, as a liar, in very profane language.

Another very odd spectacle nearer home is the appearance of Mr. Chauncey Depew as a Blaineite candidate for the Presidency with all the appropriate fittings and furniture, considering that in 1872, when there were some remnants of rationality about the "bloody shirt" and other Republican properties, he ran as Democratic candidate for Lieutenant-Governor in this State, but came out 3,533 behind his ticket. It may of course be said, in explanation of this poor show at the polls, that he had not then fully displayed his remarkable powers as an after-dinner speaker, but we maintain, and we are sure that many gentlemen will corroborate us, that his stock of stories was better then than it is now; that the earlier editions of many of them were the best; and that, in short, his place as a humorist was higher about 1872 than it has ever been since. To those who maintain that humorous anecdotes go further in the Republican than in the Democratic party, and that Lincoln owed much of his influence to his "little stories," we answer that even Lincoln could have accomplished but little with his stories in a period of tariff controversy; that jokes in defence of the tariff are all but impossible; and that the only one of the least weight which can possibly be made on that side has already been made by Mr. Evarts, and is known as "The Three-Cent Joke," showing that the tariff only costs us three cents apiece. Mr. Depew may edit this, and put foot-notes to it, but he cannot improve on it, or utilize it for himself.

The complete failure of Gen. Boulanger in the French Chamber on his first appearance with his plan will not necessarily close his political career, but it must greatly discredit him. A Cæsar, or "saviour of society," who discusses is lost. None of the others, Julius Cæsar, Cromwell, or Napoleon, ever put themselves in positions where they could be answered or inveighed against publicly. The part which Boulanger played on Monday was, in fact, that of a parliamentarian, or "avocat," as the French love to call the glib-talking politician whom he denounces so much; and in a game of this sort, although he has made one or two good hits in debate in times past, he was sure to get the worst of it. Floquet mauled him badly, ruined his "dignity," a very serious matter in France, and presented him to the public in the attitude of a feeble, helpless man, in fact, anything but the stuff for a dictator. He still continues, however, to be the outward and visible sign of a discontent which is stronger in the country at large than in Paris, and which nobody seems quite able to explain further than that the low price of cattle and the failure of the vineyards have something to do with it. The French farmers have not, in fact, been so badly off since 1815, and have not got over the old habit of blaming the Government for low prices, and the doings of the Chambers have certainly not been calculated to make the Republic seem much of a providence.

Unusually full details of the dream of an era of universal peace may be found in recent numbers of the Munich *Allgemeine Zeitung*, which gives up twelve of its pages to an attempt to prove that the neutralization of Turkey would be the long-looked-for remedy for the political evils comprised in the term "the Eastern question." The writer proposes the abrogation of the Treaty of 1841 closing the Dardanelles to the vessels of war of all nations alike, and the adoption of an international agreement granting free access to the Black Sea to war ships of all flags. This measure would, in his opinion, be but the prelude to the neutralization of Turkey itself, that is to say, to an international control of the financial, judicial, and religious administration of its European provinces. The throwing open of the Dardanelles, or rather of the Black Sea, to the navies of Europe would be an insuperable barrier to Russian aggression in the Balkan Peninsula, while Turkey, deprived of the control of the straits, would cease to be alternately courted and threatened by the diplomacy of England, Austria, and Germany. The precedent for this kind of neutralization is found in the recently proposed convention relative to the Suez Canal, by which the freedom of the canal is to be guaranteed, through the joint action of the great Powers, to the navies of all nations, in time of war as well as in time of peace. The waters of the Congo Basin were similarly neutralized by the Berlin stipulations of 1885. The author of these suggestions fondly hopes that Russia, having abandoned her designs on Constantinople, would devote herself to the promotion of liberty in Warsaw and Moscow, and that Turkey would console herself for her loss of power in Europe by her new mission as a civilizer of Asia and Africa.

A very curious meeting of the new and the old occurred the other day in Turkey near the Servian frontier, on the opening of a continuation of the line from Belgrade which is eventually to connect with Constantinople. Before the Turkish train on the Turkish side of the line started, there was a delay to enable some Mussulman Imaums to sacrifice three sheep; and as sacrifices are not things which can be done in a hurry, the delay was a long one. The passengers, however, all took it very calmly, and, when the sacrifice was over, got into the cars and went their ways. We suppose the sacrifice was intended to give the train a good send-off, and at the same time to provide some mutton for the sacerdotal families.

In a recent address before the Royal Colonial Institute on "The New Industrial Era in India," Sir Wm. Hunter sounded a new note of alarm to the English farmer and manufacturer. After a rapid sketch of the growth of the foreign trade of India, from £9,500,000 sterling of exports in 1834 to £88,000,000 in 1884, he dwelt upon the progress made in the culture of wheat, of which the amount exported has increased tenfold since 1873, while the whole area under wheat in Great Britain is less than half that in the Punjab alone. With improved methods of agriculture, which are sure to come, he believes it impossible to set any limits to the ultimate dimensions of this crop. Oil-seeds show a similar increase. As regards manufactures, India's cotton and jute mills, having in 1884 2,000,000 spindles, and employing over 110,000 people, are already formidable competitors of the Lancashire manufacturers. Even iron-smelting has advanced to a stage at which its commercial success seems almost assured. In view of these facts he believed "that the world seemed now to be entering on a new era of competition — the competition between the productive powers of the tropics and of the temperate zone." One of the great economic questions for the coming "commercial Viceroy," who was what India, having had "conquering Viceroys and consolidating Viceroys," now needed, was in respect to the railways, which are a Government monopoly. Should the rates be kept high for the sake of revenue, or would the Government "content itself with the actual interest on its outlay, and thus give an enormous impulse to Indian agriculture, commerce, and manufactures by low charges of carriage? The reduction of railway rates in India meant a cheaper loaf for England." He did not, however, conceal from his audience the conviction that this "development of India as a manufacturing and food-exporting country would involve changes in English production which must for a time be attended with suffering and loss." Still, he was equally sure that it would in the end be a gain to England and to the world.

The British Government is almost at loggerheads with the Australian colonies on the Chinese question. They have for some time past levied a poll tax of $50 on every Chinese immigrant, and restricted the number to one for every 100 tons of the ship's burden. They now propose to prohibit Chinese immigration altogether, and ask the Imperial Government to follow the example of the United States by negotiating an exclusion treaty with China. This the Ministry thus far has declined to do, and even threatens to veto Australian legislation for the same object; the result is, great excitement in the colonies. Lord Carrington, the Governor of New South Wales, has sent home a despatch at the instance of the Colonial Premier, Sir Henry Parkes, in which the latter makes known that if the proposed treaty be not promptly negotiated, "the Australian Parliament must act from the force of public opinion in devising measures to defend the colonies from consequences which they cannot relax in their efforts to avert." As there is not the smallest interest in the matter in England, the probabilities are that the colonists will eventually have their own way.

MR. BLAINE'S LAST WITHDRAWAL.

When Mr. Blaine's letter to Chairman Jones, from Florence, dated January 25, was published, we said that whether it were sincerely intended to withdraw him from the list of candidates or not, it would have that effect and produce that result, because it would detach a large body of his supporters in every State, who would forthwith make new alliances and committals. We believed that a man of Mr. Blaine's experience as a political manager must have foreseen this, and hence that there were fair presumptions of an intention on his part to withdraw. Nevertheless, the language used in his Florence letter was ambiguous, since it did not say that he would not accept the nomination if tendered to him, but merely that his name would not be presented to the Convention. It was quite within his power to say that he would not accept the nomination. It was not within his power to say that his name would not be presented to the Convention, because any delegate could present it regardless of Mr. Blaine's wishes, and if one delegate could do so, a majority might do so.

Further doubt was cast upon the seriousness of the Florence letter by what followed immediately after the statement that his name would not be presented, for he proceeded to show what a magnificent gain the Republican party had made in 1884, when he was a candidate, over the result in the Congressional and State elections of 1882, laying especial emphasis on the result in New York, where Cleveland had been elected by 192,000 majority in the latter year, whereas he had won by less than 1,100 majority in the Presidential fight. The implication of this reminder was that his own name was a tower of strength to the party.

The Blaine men and the Blaine newspapers were at first stunned by the Florence letter, and for two or three days they said that it had taken their candidate out of the field. But when they had had time for critical examination of the text, they began to say that it was not a withdrawal, but merely a general declaration that, while not a candidate, he was "in the hands of his friends," and was "subject to draft," etc., etc. On this basis of false pretences his own State of Maine elected delegates in his favor, and, according to the claim of the Philadelphia *Press*, 377 delegates were chosen in his favor, a goodly number of whom were under positive instructions for him. All these proceedings went on without a word of remonstrance from him.

But now, after all the delegates, or all except an insignificant number, have been chosen, he writes from Paris expressing the surprise with which he learns that, notwithstanding his Florence letter, his name may yet be presented to the Convention. So, after ringing many changes on his astonishment that his valued friends could have so misinterpreted his Florence letter, he says: "Assuming that the Presidential nomination could by any possible chance be offered to me, I could not accept it without leaving in the minds of thousands of these men the impression that I had not been free from indirection, *and therefore I could not accept it at all.*" There are a few of the Blaine faction who think that there is still room for doubt. They point to the similar language used by Gov. Seymour in 1868, and speculate upon the chances of an interminable struggle in the coming Convention which shall make Mr. Blaine a necessity. We beg to remind these enthusiastic squires of the Plumed Knight that this is not the year 1868, and that Mr. Blaine is not Gov. Seymour, and that the Republican party is not the Democratic party. Mr. Blaine is "out" now. By whatsoever means he got out, he is out for good and all.

We are thankful for this, because we can now look forward to a campaign upon principles. There is reasonable assurance that the next President of the United States will be one upon whose personal character no stain rests. He may be a spoilsman in the party sense. He may be a high-tariff man or anything politically obnoxious to our conceptions of what is best for the country. But he will not be the author of the Mulligan letters, or of any letters that need to be burned in order to qualify him to receive the votes of his fellow-citizens. The country has made that much gain. When we look back at the twelve years' struggle to keep Blaine out of the White House, these letters all the time staring us in the face, we are bound to say that it is a great gain.

The question, Who comes next? is the momentous one for the Republican party. Judge Gresham is, in our opinion, the strongest man in the party. He is strong because he represents the opposite of Blaine both in personal character and in public aims. We believe that his candidacy would give Mr. Cleveland and the Democratic party more trouble than that of any other man who can be named. We say frankly that we hope he may be nominated, not that we should expect to support him—we could hardly do so on the procrustean tariff platform that his party in Congress has made up—but because we desire to see both parties and all parties put the best foot foremost. In this way only do we see the path of true progress, advancement, and enlightenment for the republic.

While our hopes and best wishes go with the supporters of Judge Gresham, we do not see much prospect of his nomination. The Blaine men are still the strongest force in the Convention, and although their first choice is out of the field, their second choice will in all probability be the winner. That second choice may be Harrison, or Alger, or Allison, possibly Foraker, but will not be Gresham. It will not be Sherman, because Sherman stopped the Blaine movement last year in Ohio and furnished a rallying point for opposition, just as he stopped the third-term movement and furnished a rallying-point against it in 1880. Moreover, Mr. Sherman, when holding the reins of power, is not a man of complaisance. When he drives he follows his own way. He is no Garfield, to take another man on the box-seat and let him drive part of the time. The Blaine strength at Chicago will be given to the candidate whose immediate representatives will offer the best terms to the Blaine cohort of the past twelve years, and that candidate will be nominated unless the cohort shall look upon success at the polls as of more importance than continued control of the party organization. We do not anticipate any such display of the spirit of self-abnegation on their part.

THE "HORDE OF OFFICE-HOLDERS."

There was no point in Mr. Curtis's address on Tuesday week which was so loudly applauded by the great audience whom he both charmed and instructed, as his suggestion of a constitutional amendment lengthening the Presidential term, and making Presidents ineligible for reëlection. Of course, this is not a new suggestion. It has been often made before, and it is based on the same experience of human nature in politics to which we were indebted for Mr. Cleveland's emphatic condemnation of a second term in his letter of acceptance. It happens just now, however, to receive fresh point from the verification of his own views which Mr. Cleveland is unhappily furnishing to the country. What he said was:

> "When we consider the patronage of this great office, the allurements of power, the temptation to retain public places once gained, and, more than all, the availability a party finds in an incumbent whom a horde of office-holders, with a zeal born of benefits received and fostered by the hope of favors yet to come, stand ready to aid with money and political service, we recognize in the eligibility of the President for reëlection a most serious danger to that calm, deliberate, and intelligent action which must characterize a government of the people."

We are sure he must himself regret, even more poignantly than any of his supporters, that he should have so soon furnished that striking illustration of his own doctrine which the civil-service reformers lamented in their meeting on May 30. But when his argument is examined, it is found to be really an argument not against a second term, but against a particular mode of securing it. We doubt if there be anybody in the country, spoilsman or reformer, who questions the desirableness of being able to keep a good President eight years in office, if the interests of the country seem to require it. Nobody thinks eight years a dangerously long period for anybody to fill the highest executive place in this country, particularly if he have, when half-way through it, submitted himself afresh to the popular judgment. What everybody means, and what President Cleveland himself meant, when denouncing a second term, was that it was a bad thing to get a second term by using the Executive patronage to reward party workers and pack nominating conventions. If this practice could be abolished, second terms would really have no opponents. If it had been abolished four years ago, President Cleveland's reëlection to-day would, we think, be assured beyond any manner of doubt. What puts his reëlection in peril, if in peril it be, is simply the fact that he has allowed his superserviceable managers to use the public offices, which he said were public trusts, to purchase the support of the delegates to the nomi-

nating conventions. It is true that his predecessors did exactly the same thing; but then he preferred stronger guarantees than any of his predecessors that he would do nothing of the kind.

It is not surprising that, under these circumstances, the idea that we must have only one term, and make that six years, gains ground, and will probably continue to gain ground. Thousands are now convinced who were never convinced before, that the American man, as at present constructed, does not furnish virtue enough both for a second term and the control of the patronage. It has been said that we cannot tell what a banker's credit really is until we have seen him go through one financial panic, or what any man's morals are until we have seen him exposed to one first-class temptation. In fact, no man knows himself thoroughly until he has passed through this ordeal. The young Christian whom Tertullian tells of, thought a visit to the amphitheatre would be useful in deepening his horror of gladiatorial shows; but when he got there—"spectavit, exarsit, clamavit"—he was as eager to see, and got as excited and yelled as loudly as anybody. He was not so good a Christian when he came away as when he went in, but he was better acquainted with the secrets of his own nature. There is a good story of a colonel in the late war who was in command at an outpost, and suddenly deserted and did not turn up for several weeks. He then confessed, with shame, that the cotton speculators were getting so near the breaking strain on his virtue, by their offers of money for permits, that he felt he must run away in order to avoid the greater disgrace. So also, it is said that no pledges can bind a candidate for reëlection as long as he has the control of the offices, no matter how sincere he may be in making them, and that, as we cannot take away from him the control of the offices, we must wholly remove the temptation to prostitute them either for his own benefit or that of his party.

Is this really true? Must we alter the Constitution in order to protect Presidents against their own frailty? Perhaps so, but before making the change we should have to bear in mind the temptation to which every President would be subjected to help to keep his party in power, even when he himself was going out of power. Making him ineligible for reëlection would fortify him against appeals to his vanity or personal ambition, but not against the still more insidious appeals to his party fidelity, and to his sense of the value of his party to the country, and to his sense of the importance of the policy it was seeking to carry out.

In truth, the horde of office-seekers would probably, as they would say, "put in their best licks" by painting pictures of the ruin which would follow the expulsion from power of the party which had had penetration enough to single him out for the highest honor in the nation's gift. In short, prohibition of second terms would do something towards abating the great and, to our shame be it said, silly and childish abuses known under the general term of the spoils system, and accomplish, perhaps, by far the greater part of what is necessary to establish the reform, but the whole work can never be done without a change in our political usages. We must eradicate from the popular mind the idea that the public officers are the servants of the party and not of the nation, and that while it is theft to steal money from the Treasury and goods from a bonded warehouse, it is not theft to pay over national money to an idle, loafing political "worker" for trying to get you nominated for an office. One is really as dishonest as the other, but the public has not yet learned to look at the matter in this way. The work the civil-service reformers are doing in the press and on the platform is the education of popular opinion to look on all abstractions of public money from the Treasury for other than public purposes, whether it be paid out in salaries or stores, as essentially dishonest, as disgracing both the giver and the receiver, and as, therefore, something to be persistently watched and punished. That this change is being brought about, nobody can deny. The indignation of the Republicans to day over the "hypocrisy" of the Democrats, the injured air of the Democrats when anybody accuses them of office jobbing, the eagerness of all officials to show that they owe their places solely to their virtue and capacity, are signs, and very remarkable signs, of the growth of an immense popular conversion—but slow, because habits of mind cannot be changed any more readily than habits of body. This conversion, when it comes, may not make a constitutional remedy for the evil unnecessary, but without it no constitutional remedy can be thoroughly effective.

THE THIRD PARTY.

"The mission of the Prohibition party is to break down the Republican party," said a prominent Prohibitionist of Massachusetts a few days ago. Mr. St. John, the Prohibition candidate for President in 1884, said, in the presence of the Convention of his party which adjourned at Indianapolis on Thursday: "Cleveland will be elected in 1888. The Prohibition party will elect its candidates in 1892." Other members of the Convention put the same idea in another way: "We'll destroy the Republicans first, after that the Democrats." "Our mission is to destroy the saloon power in politics. A party must be built up strong enough to control the politics of the country against the saloons and the bars."

Here we get what is undoubtedly the real meaning of the assembling of a convention of 1,800 delegates, representing every State and Congressional district in the Union, and the nominating by it of a Presidential ticket which none of the delegates expects to see elected, but which all of them will support with great enthusiasm and unanimity. Stronger evidence of the faith that is in them could not be furnished than was given when the delegates, before leaving the Convention hall, raised among themselves a campaign fund of nearly $30,000. There is something remarkable in this spectacle of men giving so generously of their money to sustain a cause which has no hope of present success. Not a man of them has any chance of getting his money back again directly or indirectly by means of office, for nobody on the ticket will get an office. They give because they have faith in their cause, and they have faith in it because there is a moral purpose behind it. Nobody can deny the great public good which could be accomplished by destroying the "saloon-power in politics." Nobody can deny, either, that the surest way by which to turn the two great political parties against that power would be to build up a greater power.

Can the Prohibitionists build up such a one? So far as concerns the Republican party, the answer is plain. They have already built up a party strong enough greatly to lessen the chances of the Republicans for carrying all the so-called doubtful States. If they had not had a Presidential ticket in the field in 1884, the Republicans would, in all probability, have carried New York, New Jersey, and Connecticut, and elected their candidates. We say in all probability, for though it is a fact that the Prohibition vote in each of these States was much larger than the Democratic plurality, yet it is by no means certain that the vote cast for it would all have gone for Mr. Blaine if Mr. St. John had not been in the field. Thousands of votes were cast for St. John by Republicans who would never have voted for Blaine under any circumstances. In fact, the Prohibition party represented then, as it does now, the spirit of unrest in politics. The platform adopted at Indianapolis shows this very plainly. While it gives the first place to a demand for prohibition, it demands also that "import duties shall be so reduced that no surplus shall be accumulated in the Treasury, and that the burdens of taxation shall be removed from food, clothing, and other comforts and necessaries of life." It calls also for thorough reform of the civil service, for woman suffrage, for the abolition of polygamy, and the prohibition of Trusts. The declarations upon the tariff and against Trusts, coming from men who were nearly all former members of the Republican party, furnish one more sign of the dissatisfaction which is causing such steady disintegration in the Republican ranks.

There is every reason to believe that the third party of dissatisfaction and political unrest will poll a larger vote in November than it has ever polled before. The demoralized condition of the Republican party, and the general Bourbonism of the principles which it is daily being forced more hopelessly into adopting for its creed, will inevitably send thousands of recruits to the Prohibitionists. Instead of being afraid of the charge that they are ruining the Republican party, the Prohibition leaders are now jubilantly declaring this to be their main object. They would not have dared to do this four years ago, but the election of a Democratic President, with no ensuing damage to the country, has given them

courage. The figures of the last national election were very significant on this point. In every previous Presidential election the Prohibition vote had fallen far below what it had been in the off-year elections immediately preceding. Thus, in the State elections of 1871 the aggregate Prohibition vote in the whole country was 16,000, but in the Presidential election of 1872 it dropped to 5,600. In 1875 it had increased to over 42,000, yet in the Presidential election of 1876 it had dropped to 9,700. It recovered its strength partially in 1879, aggregating nearly 20,000, yet in 1880 it dropped to 9,600. After 1880 it mounted steadily and rapidly, reaching nearly 59,000 in 1883. In the Presidential election of 1884, for the first time in its history, it exceeded the vote of the preceding off-year election, going to nearly 151,000, which was the highest point it had ever touched. This is what Mr. Blaine's candidacy had done for the Prohibition party—it had made it impossible for the Republican managers to scare Prohibition voters back into the Republican camp by holding before them the horrors of Democratic rule.

Since 1884 the total Prohibition vote has nearly doubled, being in 1886 about 295,000. The party has never held a national convention at all approaching in numbers and enthusiasm the one of this year, and has never entered upon a campaign with such a determined spirit. It has funds, it cannot be scared, it is satisfied that the overthrow of the Republican party is a high and laudable mission, and neither threats nor ridicule will have any effect to turn it from its purpose. The Republican managers may well look upon it with dismay, but they should not pour out upon it imprecation and abuse. If they had not abandoned all principle, and given themselves up entirely to Blaineism, the Prohibition party would be scarcely more formidable now than it was in 1872, 1876, and 1880.

DESCRIPTIVE NAMES.

We have perceived with regret from time to time that our practice of giving to several public men the names by which they are best known to all their friends and acquaintances, and by which they are invariably spoken of in the circles which they adorn, is giving them more or less dissatisfaction. Our estimable friend "Tom" Platt, for instance, showed, in an interesting interview in the *Tribune* on Friday, that he is extremely dissatisfied because he is known and mentioned among Mugwumps by the name by which he is known and mentioned among Republicans, and intimates that this is one reason why he and other "genuine Republicans" always, when they find out what Mugwumps want, "decide to do the opposite." We cannot help thinking ourselves that this policy is hardly worthy of a statesman of "Tom" Platt's standing, for if followed persistently, it must certainly occasionally place him in positions of great perplexity. He is too much of a man to play pig to the Mugwump's Irishman—for he has doubtless heard of the Irishman who directed the course of an erratic pig by pulling it by the tail in the direction opposite to that which he wished it to follow. We are, of course, interested to a greater or less extent in "Tom's" movements, but we should never think of controlling them by any species of caudal traction. We like to see him follow the promptings of his own nature, and now that we know he will not be true to himself if we let him know what we should like, we promise to keep our wishes about "genuine Republicans" as private as possible.

But there is one point on which we cannot accommodate him. We cannot relinquish our practice of calling him "Tom." He can never be to us the "Honorable Thomas C. Platt," or even "Thomas Platt," first, because nobody who knows and loves him ever calls him anything but "Tom Platt"; and secondly, because these familiar names which we use in the *Nation* in speaking of various public men, are not only their real names, but they are descriptive terms—that is, they not only designate particular individuals, but they connote certain traits of character. In fact, among the politicians of whom we are in the habit of speaking as Mikes, Jakes, Tims, and Barneys, Michael, Jacob, Timothy, and Bernard are, it is true, the names given them by their unfortunate godfathers and godmothers in baptism, and under which they are indicted or bailed; but to their friends and associates they are titles of courtesy, such as are in England given to the sons of dukes, earls, and marquises, rather than names in the ordinary sense of the term. If any friend of "Tom" Platt, or "Barney" Biglin, or "Bill" Chandler were suddenly to call him Mr. Platt, Mr. Biglin, or Mr. Chandler, it would be at once inferred by the bystanders that a coolness of some kind had grown up between them, or that their relations had in some way undergone a serious change, or that, in short, to the friend, Mr. Platt or Mr. Chandler was not the same person as Tom Platt or Bill Chandler.

Our second reason is, however, the more important. That the familiar name of a prominent man, or indeed any kind of man—that is, the one by which he is generally known—contains, as we have said, a description of character, is one of the most familiar facts of daily life. No cold, or proud, or haughty, or serious, or reserved, or punctilious, or studious man was ever known as Tom, Dick, or Harry, Mike, Jake, or Barney. The bearers of these appellations always, or almost always, are in the category popularly known as "Hail-fellows, well met." They are the men whom you slap on the back, punch in the ribs, and around whose neck you put your arm, with whom you share a bed, from whom you borrow or to whom you lend trousers, shirts, collars, or pocket-handkerchiefs, whom you can hardly look at without wishing to "take a drink," to whom you can at any time lay bare a scheme of doubtful propriety in love, politics, or business, with the full assurance of tender sympathy, and whom you always convince in argument by "laying two to one" on the soundness of your contention.

We do not mean to say by any means that this is a description of all Toms, Dicks, and Harrys, Mikes, Jakes, and Barneys; but assuredly nobody who answers to it was ever known except as a Tom, Dick, or Harry, Mike, Jake, or Barney. Nor do we mean to say that all Toms or Dicks are really confiding, simple-minded, devil-may-care persons. On the contrary, they often conceal a considerable amount of guile under a very hearty, impetuous, and harebrained exterior, which has a very saddening effect on the social philosopher. Any one, for instance, who acted on the supposition that "Tom" Platt was a typical Tom, or "Bill" Chandler a typical Bill—that is, a rash, candid, impulsive, generous, nobody's-enemy-but-his-own sort of man—would be cruelly deceived. What we maintain is simply that there is a certain general external resemblance between all members of the class—an outward softness and good nature, and familiarity, an absence of airs, or "frills," or "dignity of tone," which puts the plain man at his ease, and makes him feel that he is in the presence of a real son of Adam, a creature familiar with all the minor weaknesses, at least, of our race, and far from too exacting in the matter of virtue or propriety.

This being our position, it may be imagined with what surprise, mingled with pain, we have from time to time observed expressions of irritation or disgust from the various members of the class over our habit of speaking of them in our columns by the names by which they are universally known—names which, if tested by the rule of Catholic orthodoxy—"quod semper, quod ubique, quod ab omnibus"—must be considered correctness itself. Under this rule, in fact, the use of such expressions as "Mr. Chandler," or "Honorable William E. Chandler," meaning thereby "Bill" Chandler of New Hampshire, would be a gross impropriety. To speak of our local Boys, Jake, Barney, Clint, Steve, Sol, and Johnny, by any other names would not be simply improper, but misleading. They are the only appellations by which they are known in the sphere in which they shine—politics. In their own homes they may possibly treat these appellations as what the French call "war names," and lay them aside in the recesses of their domesticity. But into these sacred precincts we do not follow them. To us they are simply statesmen actively engaged in making places for themselves in history. As husbands or fathers we know nothing of them. To us, as to the whole population of this great city, they are Boys, and must always be Boys, with all that the name implies.

COÖPERATION AND ITS PRACTICAL DIFFICULTIES.

It is a common belief that there is a large amount of wealth appropriated by capitalists and employers of labor without corresponding service to society; that it is the fault of the machinery of distribution which enables them to do so, and that, by proper alterations in this machinery, the workmen can obtain a large share of this surplus wealth, and add greatly to their comfort and well-

being. This idea is not confined to Socialists or radical labor leaders. It is held, more or less vaguely, by a large part of the community; and this fact gives strength and countenance to a great many schemes of reform which fail to meet expectation when brought to the test of practice.

Of all such schemes, the most promising has been that which is known under the somewhat indefinite name of coöperation. It is a plan which has undeniable merits. It tends to reduce the antagonism of classes, to educate the workman in habits of forethought, and to give him self-respect and independence. Men like John Stuart Mill have looked forward to its application with the highest hopes. It is of great interest to compare these expectations with the actual result. This we are now able to do. The Johns Hopkins University, as our readers are aware, has recently published a series of studies on coöperation in different parts of the United States, by men like E. W. Bemis, Albert Shaw, and C. H. Shinn, which are now collected into a single volume. As a contribution to industrial history, this book is of the very highest value. It gives us a sufficiently broad basis of fact to judge of the conditions under which coöperation will succeed or fail.

What is coöperation? Holyoake has defined it as "an industrial scheme for delivering the public from the conspiracy of capitalists, traders, or manufacturers, who would make the laborer work for the least and the consumer pay the most for whatever he needs of money, machines, or merchandise." This definition, it will be observed, assumes that the capitalists have "conspired" to accumulate unjust profits, and is intended to cover almost any scheme for redistributing them. Practically, the name is applied to three distinct things:

(1.) An arrangement by which the consumers manage the business and divide the profits—distributive coöperation.

(2.) An arrangement by which the employees choose those who are to manage the business—productive coöperation.

(3.) An arrangement by which the employees participate in the profits of the business—profit-sharing.

The conditions which decide the success or failure of an experiment in distributive cooperation are comparatively simple. Such an enterprise has the advantage of being fairly sure of its custom; it can therefore dispense with wasteful advertising and still more wasteful credit. If managed with the same ability as an old-fashioned store, these things should give it an advantage. In England the conditions were such as to give that advantage. Old trade methods were so bad that coöperative stores were able to sell cheaper. In America such instances of success were exceptions. The 500 councils of the Sovereigns of Industry, established a dozen years ago, have left but few survivals. The Patrons of Husbandry have fared better; but even here the percentage of failure was very great. It is the same story everywhere: the men to whom the funds were intrusted were found wanting in the necessary ability or character.

The cases of productive coöperation and of profit-sharing are more complicated. It may readily happen that the feeling of independence in the one case, or of personal interest in the other, is an actual source of added efficiency. This is the testimony of some who have tried it. Anything which thus increases the efficiency of the work, especially if it tends to prevent strikes, is a powerful source of advantage to all parties concerned. Unfortunately, the experience of the Brewsters in 1872 showed that the system of profit-sharing did not prevent strikes. There are few instances of good results to offset this signal failure. Only one case—that of the Pillsbury Mills at Minneapolis—can be described as a distinct and continuous success. Most manufacturers have found that loyalty and efficiency on the part of their hands can better be secured by personal consideration, steadiness of employment, or promotion, than by a half-understood system of supplementary dividends. The more complicated an industry is, the more fully does the truth of this statement appear.

But what of productive coöperation on the part of the hands themselves, where they choose their own managers, with or without a system of profit-sharing? This has been more frequently tried, with some marked instances of success, particularly among the shoemakers of Massachusetts and the coopers of Minneapolis. It is subject to two dangers. It is a question whether the operatives will choose as good a manager as the stockholders of a corporation; and it is also a question whether he can enforce as good discipline among those on whom he depends for his place. The first point is the more serious of the two. It is often hard for workmen to realize the value of the services of a responsible and efficient manager. They are not willing to pay for them; and this false economy too often wastes many times the money which it saves. The industries which lend themselves to productive coöperation are those of comparatively simple character, where the connection between the efficiency of the labor and its results is most obvious, and where the necessities for organizing power and speculative foresight are reduced to a minimum. But the importance of such industries is growing every day relatively less.

We have thus far considered coöperation solely from the standpoint of efficiency and economy as a matter of business. There are certain other things to be taken into account, especially its work as an educator. As far as it teaches workmen about the responsibilities and use of property, it has a most powerful influence for good upon them and upon the community. As far as it leads them to become possessors of property, the result is still more noticeable. The success of the building associations and coöperative banks has been largely due to this fact. But this very success is fatal to the pretensions of those who advocate the coöperative principle for its own sake. It is not by altering the machinery of distribution that it succeeds, so much as by educating men to take advantage of the existing machinery.

There are three forms of coöperation in which the percentage of success has been large—building associations, creameries, and mutual-insurance companies. The first leads its members to become property-owners; the second and third are directed by men who already own property. The success in these cases, so far from proving that the direction of industry should be taken out of the hands of capital, proves that the owners of capital are competent to direct it. Success here, contrasted with the percentage of failure elsewhere, shows the large importance of having responsible men in control, and the relatively small importance of any particular form of machinery of distribution. It is not new methods of distribution that we want, but education in the best and most efficient use of our powers. It is not as a machine, but as an educational force, that coöperation seems to promise success—not because it will enable leaders of labor to become leaders of industry, but because, as soon as those leaders are tried in the latter capacity, they are subjected to a test which only the fittest can survive.

SCHOLARSHIPS OPEN TO WOMEN AND GIRLS IN ENGLAND.

THE growth of the modern English system of scholarships in aid of the higher education of girls dates from 1853, in which year Queen's College, London, was incorporated by royal charter, and the body of professors, out of their private means, founded eight "perpetual" scholarships. About the same date senior scholarships for girls were provided out of the Reid Trust, created by Mrs. Reid, founder of Bedford College, London. As years went on, further pecuniary assistance was given to the higher education of girls; but it is only during the last eighteen years, *i. e.*, since women have obtained a participation in the advantages of university education, that the great development of the system of scholarships has taken place. There are now not only a large number of scholarships designed for women, but also many for which women may compete on equal terms with men. With respect to each kind our readers will want to know something as to annual value, period of tenure, the colleges at which and the conditions under which they may be held; and, in the case of scholarships derived from endowments, what means have been adopted by the founders to secure the ends desired. Estimating a scholarship of £50 per annum tenable for three years as being worth £150 in the year in which it is awarded—and excluding from our consideration the numerous scholarships for the encouragement of music and the fine arts—we find that in different ways a total of £6,500 is given annually in England in scholarships and exhibitions for women and senior girls. Of this about a third is interest derived from endowments; actually a fourth of the whole is drawn from the surplus revenues of Girton and Newnham Colleges, in scholarships tenable at these colleges; a fifth is given annually by the London City Companies, and the rest is due to the liberality of individuals able to subscribe towards scholarships to run a certain number of years.

Girton College, Cambridge, though it has only three perpetual scholarships, is by far the richest college as regards the value of scholarships, as much as £2,000 being given annually

on the results of its entrance examinations alone, and about £450 more in connection with local university examinations. All scholarships to Girton College are tenable for three years, the length of the college course. Newnham College ranks next, and accounts for £1,500 a year. Mrs. Sidgwick writes: "Our scholarships are rather variable in total amount, and in the way they are awarded, and in the length of time they are held; sometimes scholarships being gained by students in the middle of their course, sometimes small ones superseded by larger ones, etc." It is a notable difference that while at Newnham a great deal of pecuniary help is given in the way of small exhibitions to students who are already in residence, and whom it is thought specially important to assist, with the Girton authorities it is a principle that whatever is to be done in aid of a student shall be fixed at the time she enters on residence, in order that her mind may not be disturbed during her course by uncertainty on this head.

Most of the scholarships in the gift of the Newnham Council, whether derived from foundations or given by the London City Companies or by Newnham College itself, are awarded on the results of the Cambridge Higher Local Examination; the performance, if any, in the preceding year being taken into account. The halls at Oxford give their scholarships in connection with their respective entrance examinations—Somerville Hall about £400 annually, and Lady Margaret's Hall £200; these halls have as yet no foundation scholarships. The old non-residential institutions, Queen's College and Bedford College, London, award in scholarships £330 and £460 per annum respectively. The average value of the scholarships being less than in the case of residential colleges, a proportionally greater number of scholarships can be given with the same annual expenditure. These two colleges are the richest of all in "perpetual" scholarships, Queen's College heading the list with eleven. Scholarships to the value of £270 are attainable by pupils of the North London Collegiate School for Girls, this sum including the "leaving" scholarship given by the Clothworkers' Company, and the Platt scholarships, tenable either in the school or at any college approved by the Governors.

Then there are the Gilchrist scholarships, those with which we are here concerned having a total annual value of £415: one of these may be held either at Girton or Newnham; the others are tenable at any "collegiate institution approved by the Gilchrist trustees." There are also the Harkniss scholarship for the encouragement of geology, and scholarships at South Kensington to promote the pursuit of natural science. The Catherine Winkworth scholarships at University College, Bristol, are noteworthy as the only examples of scholarships for women only which are in the gift of the council of a mixed college. The newly founded St. Dunstan's Exhibitions of £100 a year for three years are derived from an ancient trust; three are to be given annually to girls under nineteen, and resident within the metropolitan area. These exhibitions are for the purpose of enabling the holders to fit themselves for any profession, and are tenable at any place of higher education approved by the Governors.

As to the scholarships for which women may compete on equal terms with men, they are tenable at the following colleges:

At University College, London	£700 per annum
At the Colleges of the City and Guilds of London Institute	620 per annum
At Yorkshire College, Leeds	450 per annum
At Owens College, Manchester	270 per annum
At University College, Liverpool	£270 per annum
At University College, Bristol	240 per annum
At Mason College, Birmingham	170 per annum
At University College, Nottingham	14 per annum

—in all, over £2,700 per annum in scholarships for one and two years. The above-mentioned provincial colleges mostly give young men and women equal chances.

With respect to the conditions imposed on the holders of scholarships, great variety prevails, but the points most commonly taken into consideration are: (1) Need of assistance, (2) proficiency, and (3) course of study intended.

(1.) In many cases exhibitions are only awarded to those who are unable to defray the cost of higher education. The Girton Council, however, prefers the plan (which experience proves to be judicious) of advertising as the value of a scholarship a less sum than is really available, together with a notice that the scholarship will be augmented in the case of a successful candidate who could not otherwise afford to accept it.

(2.) A common stipulation is, that a scholarship will not be awarded unless due proficiency is shown; in the advertisement of the St. Dunstan scholarships it is stated that the award may be determined either by aggregate merit or by special proficiency in given subjects. In the case of some scholarships there is a provision that if there are candidates of almost equal merit, the scholarship may be divided between them.

(3.) A common condition is, that the holder of a scholarship shall read for honors (subject sometimes specified), and in addition to this the Gilchrist trustees require, before the payment of each instalment of the scholarship, a certificate of the diligence and satisfactory conduct of the scholar. The St. Dunstan Governors require of a candidate recommended for an exhibition a definite statement of the course of study she desires to pursue in preparation for the profession which she selects. The Council of Newnham College stands alone in requiring to be satisfied, before awarding a scholarship, that the candidate's state of health is not such as to prevent her from profiting by a systematic course of study.

Founders of "perpetual" scholarships have adopted some one of the three following methods to secure their ends: (*a*) To establish a trust fund for scholarships to be administered by a body of trustees independent of any college; such trusts are the Gilchrist Trust, the Reid Trust. (*b*) To establish a trust for scholarships tenable at a certain college to be administered by the authorities of that college as trustees. (c) To pay the principal into the general fund of some selected college, in order that the college authorities may establish in perpetuity a scholarship under given conditions. The last of these plans is generally chosen when it is desired to help a young institution which perhaps wants money for building; also, in making small foundations, it saves the creation of special machinery. This latter advantage can be claimed for the second plan, whereas the first is that best calculated to promote education in general, since the trustees can at their discretion make any scholarship tenable at a particular college, or leave the scholar free to choose any genuine place of higher education, and can, when required, vary the conditions under which any scholarship is held.

With respect to the class of women and girls availing themselves of scholarships, it is mostly those who would without scholarships be unable to afford the cost of higher education; most come from the professional class, some from that of upper tradesmen; almost all who take scholarships look forward to earning their own living. To the best of our knowledge, no case has occurred in the women's colleges in which a wealthy student has won and accepted a scholarship. Certainly wealthy students are comparatively rare among women, but it is also noticeable that there is, up to the present time, a better tone among women than among men undergraduates in the older universities with respect to scholarships: the women do not look upon a scholarship in the light of a prize won, or a reward for something already accomplished, but regard it as a means to help them to still higher work—trust money that they are bound in honor to turn to good account.

An account of the scholarship system in England would not be complete without mention of the strong opinion entertained by one of the leaders in the cause of women's education, Miss Beale of the Ladies' College, Cheltenham, as to the danger incurred in founding scholarships tenable at particular colleges. Miss Beale accuses schools and colleges, in many cases, of "seeking to establish a reputation by securing exceptional talent," or by appropriating the honor of the training given by the labors of others. Miss Beale speaks of such scholarships as "neither more nor less than bribes to parents to consider *not* what is intrinsically the best place of education, but to send their boys or girls to special places," and has herself consistently refused offers of foundation scholarships in connection with her college. The attachment of scholarships for boys to particular colleges has notoriously produced the evils Miss Beale deplores, and when we read in the report of an educational institution for women a plea for the gift of scholarships on the ground that "these are needed to bring students of ability, as well as those who cannot come without assistance," we are impressed with the importance of Miss Beale's warning. That scholarships are urgently required in aid of those who without such help could not afford the cost of higher education is a fact that calls for recognition; and it might be Quixotic to expect of colleges giving scholarships out of their surplus revenues that they should make these tenable at any college for higher education of acknowledged merit. Surely, however, individual founders of scholarships might, in general, adopt the third mode of foundation described, and thus realize to the best of their ability the earnest hope expressed by Miss Beale, that those who want to do real good with their money will give it to enable the recipients to obtain the best education *wherever* it is to be found.

PARLIAMENTARY GOVERNMENT AND GOVERNMENT BY PARLIAMENT.—I.

LONDON, May 25.

"WE are no longer quarrelling about the character or about the conduct of men, or the tenor of measures; but we are grown out of humor with the English Constitution itself." These words formed part of a speech on Parliamentary reform long before the French Revolution; they were adopted just sixty years ago by Macaulay as a text on which to deliver a homily about the changed feeling with which the generation who carried the great Reform Bill regarded the unreformed Parliament. The words of the Whig statesman and the comment of the Whig reviewer possessed in 1828 a real significance; they signified that the optimistic belief in the perfection of English institutions which is permanently recorded in the pages of Blackstone, had passed away; that the Consti-

tution was no longer above criticism; that there were innovators daring enough to believe that the House of Commons itself needed reform. Language which had a real meaning to the men of 1828 has a real meaning for the men of 1888, but its significance has, oddly enough, been altered by the lapse of time. Burke, Hallam, and Macaulay all recognize a change in the opinion of mankind. But readers who to-day study the words and note the tone of these writers are surprised to find how small was the change which to our fathers seemed so important. The English Constitution had become the subject of criticism, but the critics themselves, the Radicals and innovators—the Democrats, as they often called themselves—of 1828 did not let their criticism go beyond demand for reform. They differed as to the degree in which the popular element in the House of Commons should be strengthened. No one of them doubted that, to increase the power of the representative chamber, to give greater weight to the people, to "make Parliamentary government more Parliamentary" (if such a phrase might be allowed), would insure to England a perfect constitution. Still less did any Whig or Radical doubt that to extend English constitutionalism throughout the civilized world was equivalent to extending the blessings of civilization and justice. Even the Chartists, the men outside the respectable world of politics, when, forty years ago, they attempted, feebly enough, something like revolution, did not demand and probably did not desire democratic changes much beyond reforms which have been carried without disturbing the wealth and the conservatism of England.

Parliament has been made democratic. Parliamentary government of one kind or another, modelled mainly on the British type, has been established throughout the civilized States of Europe, and now the fact is gradually becoming visible to any thoughtful observer of current events and of the flow of opinion, that, in one country after another, doubts are entertained as to the merits of that very Parliamentary government which it has been the pride of Englishmen to create, and the object of Continental Liberals to imitate. The combined strength and weakness of French genius have made France for a long time the representative of the sentiment prevalent at crises of European history: the importance of the French Revolution is, that France gave violent, exaggerated, ill-judged expression to emotions and beliefs which found an echo in every civilized land. It is noticeable, therefore, that in France the Democracy begins to doubt the virtues of Parliamentary rule. Boulanger and Boulangism may, likely enough, pass away like the last fashion in dress. But if Gen. Boulanger is a mere charlatan (which is not quite certain), the essence of a charlatan is his skill in appealing to the sympathies of his audience; and the very consideration that the would-be dictator aims at catching the wind of popular favor, makes it probable that his words and acts show us which way the wind blows to-day and the gale may blow to-morrow. The one thing in which Boulanger is consistent is in systematic attack on the authority of the Assembly. He revives or carries on the Imperial hatred of Parliamentarianism, and in taking this course he appeals to the strength of the Empire. No sensible man doubts that thousands of Frenchmen who disliked the Napoleonic despotism were glad that the Prince-President put an end to the conflicts and the existence of the Assembly. They wished, probably, to have a representative body which should check the excesses of the Government. But they certainly did not wish that Parliament should govern.

French caprice, it may be said, hardly deserves to be noticed, save as a mark of the inherent mutability of French character. The sentiment, however, which is at this moment exciting the anxiety of every bona-fide Republican in France prevails under different names in countries not swayed by French sympathies. Neither Prince Bismarck, nor the Emperor, nor the German people show any ardent belief in government by Parliament as it exists in England. Bismarck's career is, in this as in other points of view, most noteworthy. He never, even at the height of his feud with the Prussian Assembly, either attempted or, it is fair to suppose, contemplated a *coup d'état* which should make the Crown despotic. For Prussia, as for Germany, he acknowledged that representative institutions were necessary, though the necessity was an unpleasant one. On the other hand, he was determined that if Parliament existed, Parliament should not be supreme. To draw a distinction to which I shall again recur, he acquiesced in "Parliamentary government," *i. e.*, in a constitution under which the voice of a representative legislature should be heard and listened to; he opposed "government by Parliament," *i. e.*, the creation of a constitution under which the representative assembly should be the supreme body in the State. How far Bismarck's ideas will survive him, how far it is possible that an elected assembly should legislate and not govern, are questions on which it is unnecessary, for my present purpose, either to form or to give an opinion. What I note is the existence, not the soundness, of Bismarckian ideas. I emphasize the fact that Bismarck and Boulanger, who probably agree on no other matter whatever, are at one in deprecating government by an elected assembly.

The perfect success of Swiss statesmanship has produced one bad result: it has diverted public attention from the instructive lessons to be gathered from Swiss politics. Yet a cursory observation of the institutions which exist and the sentiments which prevail throughout the Confederation, shows that Democrats who value freedom and good government need not necessarily rate high the authority of Parliament. The Constitution of the Federal Executive and the spreading influence of the Referendum (which is in Switzerland an institution of national growth) are checks placed upon the power of the Assembly. They are checks which prevent the growth of that form of government by Parliament which exists in England; and no one can take up the works of Swiss writers without perceiving that there are democratic thinkers and sincere Republicans who look upon Parliamentarianism with as little favor as a Boulangist or a Prussian official. It were ridiculous for me to address readers of the *Nation* on American politics, but while the position of the President and his Cabinet is absolutely inconsistent with the existence of a constitution really resembling that of modern England, an outsider may draw from the constitutions of different States throughout the Union the inference (though probably, like most conclusions drawn by an outsider, it is erroneous) that popular confidence in representative assemblies is not on the increase. In England, it is true, no one as yet denounces Parliamentarianism. The term is unknown. Yet there are signs that the old absolute confidence in Parliamentary government is gone, and that a condition of things might easily arise under which Democrats would wish to curb the authority of the House of Commons.

What are the causes or the justification of this declining confidence in Parliamentary constitutionalism, and how far they are likely to be permanent, I may consider in another letter. Meanwhile, one fact deserves attention: the blessings which the English Constitution did in the last century really confer upon England, or which England at any rate enjoyed under her Parliamentary institutions, have been obtained by all nations who have been able bona fide to adopt representative government. Under the unreformed Parliament, England enjoyed three blessings which made her the envy of Continental nations. The policy of the state, both at home and abroad, was, not immediately or directly, but yet in the long run and by indirect means, determined by the will of the nation, or at any rate by the will of the only part of the people who felt a keen interest in politics. Mistakes enough were made, both in domestic and in foreign affairs, but the mistakes were the mistakes of the British people. The war with the American colonies, the opposition to Catholic emancipation, the foreign policy of Chatham, and the foreign policy of his son, met with the approval of the country. Arbitrary power, as it existed in France, Germany, or Italy, was unknown; if the law was severe or impolitic, every man was ruled by law and not by despotic caprice. As great freedom of discussion was allowed as any large body of men either demanded or desired. Obedience by the Government to the will of the nation; enjoyment of personal liberty under the protection of the law; as perfect freedom of discussion as the best sentiment of the age allowed—these were the benefits which the English Constitution conferred upon Englishmen, and these are precisely the blessings enjoyed by the citizens of every European state which has obtained Parliamentary government. In France, in Germany, in Italy, or in Switzerland, the ultimate sovereignty of the people may or may not be acknowledged in words, but it exists in reality. In none of these countries can the most powerful ruler perform acts of arbitrary tyranny which, not much more than a century ago, were allowable to the feeblest of Italian dukes or German princes. Throughout every civilized Continental state, a freedom of discussion exists which the most liberal thinkers among George III.'s statesmen might have thought excessive. Representative institutions have produced all the good results which the enthusiasm of Burke and the criticism of Montesquieu ascribed to the English Constitution.

AN OBSERVER.

THE MARQUIS DE TESSÉ.

PARIS, May 18, 1888.

THE Comte de Rambuteau has just published the letters of the Maréchal de Tessé to the Duchess of Burgundy, to the Princesse des Ursins, to Mme. de Maintenon, and to others. These names sufficiently draw attention to his publication. The name of the Marshal de Tessé himself has fallen into comparative obscurity, somewhat unjustly; but history cannot digest everything, and, after two centuries, very few names remain in the light, like the snow-peaks which are still colored by the setting sun when all the inferior peaks and the valleys are lost in darkness.

M. de Rambuteau boldly asks Saint-Simon to present his hero to the public, though Saint-Simon paints his portraits with dark colors:

"M. Tessé," says Saint-Simon, "was a Manceau [an inhabitant of Le Mans is so called] worthy of his country, shrewd, clever, marvellously ungrateful, hypocritical, and scheming, as was strongly exemplified in the case of Catinat, to whom he owed his fortune, and on the ruin of whom he afterwards rose. He had

the jargon of the ladies, and a little the jargon of the courtier, quite the air of the seigneur and of the great world, without, however, spending much. Really ignorant of war, as he had never taken part in one, he found himself by chance everywhere, near every action and every siege. With an air of modesty, he was bold in making himself valued and in insinuating what was useful to him; always on good terms with whoever had credit with the ministers, especially with the powerful valets. His sweetness and politeness made people love him; his commonplaceness and shallowness (for you soon saw to the bottom of him) made him despised. Sometimes an amusing talker, anon flat and tiresome, always full of views and of calculations, he gained advantage by his baseness with Marshals Villeroi, Vendôme, Vaudemont, and by his suppleness with Chamillard, Torcy, Pontchartrain, Desmarets, and especially with Mme. de Maintenon, to whom he was introduced by Chamillard, on one side, by the Duchess of Burgundy on the other. He took a marvellous advantage of the marriage of this Princess, which he had concluded, and of the intimacy which the tenderness of the King and of Mme. de Maintenon had procured him with her; the Duchess prided herself on loving and on serving Tessé, as having been the instrument of her own happiness."

This is a cruel picture. "Will you," says M. de Rambuteau, "shut my book on it? You would be wrong; say to yourself rather that if Tessé found his *bâton de maréchal* in his inkstand rather than in his *giberne*, there must be something in his letters. Taste them. If I am not mistaken, you will go to the end." M. de Rambuteau had found letters of Tessé in all our public archives and in some private archives; he also was able to see the copy of all the Marshal's letters, in eleven volumes, which is in the possession of M. de Barthélemy.

Tessé was the son of René de Froulai, Count of Tessé, and of Madeleine de Beaumanoir. He was born at Le Mans in 1648; in 1669 we find him in the army, as aide-de-camp of Marshal Créqui. In 1678 he was at the battle of Rheinfelden, and he gives an account of it to Louvois, his protector. In 1685 he accompanied the dragoons in the expeditions which followed the revocation of the Edict of Nantes; his sentiments are seen in this letter written to Louvois from Orange: "The city is converted, the principality has taken the same resolution, and the gentlemen of the Parlement, who wished to distinguish themselves by a little more obstinacy, followed suit twenty-four hours afterwards. All this took place quietly, without any violence or disorder. Only the minister Chambrun, the patriarch of the country, continues to be deaf to reason; as for the President, who aspired to the honors of martyrdom, he, as well as the rest of the Parlement, would have become Mohammedan if I had wished it." In 1688 he was employed, under the orders of Montclar and Duras, in the devastation of the Palatinate. M. Rousset, in his 'History of Louvois,' cites these lines of Tessé's written to Louvois from Heidelberg:

"I did not think that it would cost a man so much to undertake himself the burning of a city peopled like Orleans. You may be sure that nothing remains of the beautiful castle of Heidelberg. . . . Thank God! nothing tempted me; I only put aside the family portraits of the Palatine house, namely, the fathers, mothers, grandmothers, and relatives of Madame [the daughter of the late Elector], with the intention, if you order me or advise me to do so, to present them to her, after she has somewhat recovered from the devastation of her native country."

In 1693 Marshal Catinat wished to enter into negotiations with the Duke of Savoy. He sent Tessé in disguise to Turin, where he conferred for several days with Victor-Amadeus II. and his Minister, the Marquis of St. Thomas. They prepared together a treaty which yielded the country of Nice to the Duke, ended a war which was ruinous for him, and assured the marriage of the Duke's daughter with the Duke of Burgundy. This was a great triumph for Victor-Amadeus; it was also a great victory for Tessé, who had revealed himself an excellent diplomat. Louis XIV. was satisfied, and Tessé received the felicitations of all the Court. He remained at the French Court the confidential friend of the charming young Princess of Savoy, a mere child when she arrived in France, but very agreeable, very clever and intelligent. It is well known that the Duchess of Burgundy entirely won the favor of Louis XIV., as well as of Mme. de Maintenon; she was treated by them like a spoiled child, and her natural gayety proved very enlivening to the King, who had reached an age which made him, to use the words of Mme. de Maintenon, "peu amusable."

In 1703 Tessé was appointed Marshal of France under circumstances which are thus related by the Abbé de Choisy:

"The King was working at Mme. de Maintenon's with M. de Chamillart, and was making a list of the marshals of France who were to be declared the next day. The Duchess of Burgundy, looking over the King's shoulder, saw that Tessé was not on the list. She had been jumping and dancing and laughing as usual, when she suddenly began to cry. The King wished to know the reason of it. 'Oh, sire, you dishonor the man to whom I owe the honor of belonging to you, who has made me what I am!' The King seemed vexed that his secret should have been discovered, and in his anger he tore up his list. The marshals were only appointed a year afterwards; instead of four there were ten, so that Tessé should have a place."

The letters of Tessé to the Duchess of Burgundy, which are now published, were written between the years 1701 and 1711. During that period Tessé had first returned to Italy, and had renewed a treaty of alliance with Victor-Amadeus. He had foreseen that this ally could not be much trusted. "He will never be an easy ally, and his fidelity will always be doubtful, whatever precautions we may take with him." Tessé went afterwards to Venice, on a diplomatic mission; and, having accomplished it, he took his part in the operations of the war of succession under Catinat. He protected the States of the Duke of Mantua, who was our ally, and spent the winter of 1707 in Mantua, which was blockaded by the imperial troops. We find him in 1704 in Spain, where he took the command of the French army. On his way he stopped, with the permission of the King, at Toulouse, where he saw the Princesse des Ursins, who had been dismissed from the Spanish Court; he never ceased afterwards to work for her return to Spain.

I confess to having been disappointed in the letters of Tessé to the Duchess of Burgundy. I should say that they were written for a child, if they were not sometimes almost grossly indecent. They were not worth publishing, even if they sometimes amused the person for whom they were written. They are all very much in this style: "I shall tell you nothing of our war; the armies are always in the same situation, and, for want of a better occupation, we amuse ourselves by assassinating each other and firing at each other. These military amusements are not worth seeing or talking about, and I have only the honor to write to you to make you remember your ancient servitor," etc. He never gives any details on political or military questions, and in this he showed much discretion; but his letters to the Duchess, full of insignificant details on dress, ladies-in-waiting, the fashions of foreign courts, seem to us really insipid. The Duchess of Burgundy may have been interested to learn that her friend, "Mlle. de Salle, who has lost that name to take the name of Comtesse de Grésy, has not grown handsomer; her waist is still the same, but her nose has grown bigger"—but we do not much care about this sort of information. Some of the letters are like pages of a guide-book: "The richest women in Geneva are dressed like simple *bourgeoises;* all the bourgeois wear a sword," etc.

The diplomatic despatches of Marshal Tessé are in a very different style. Though he is no Saint-Simon, he can paint a character. His portrait of Victor-Amadeus, the father of the Duchess of Burgundy, is truly excellent; so is his portrait of Philip V., which he made for Louis XIV. himself:

"The King, your grandson, is an almost incomprehensible prince; your Court, and perhaps your Majesty yourself, do not render him the justice which he deserves for his intelligence and his good sense. I dare to say that he has a great deal of it—more than people believe, and more than he believes himself. Too much natural backwardness, a slowness, if not laziness of speech, too scrupulous a belief that the smallest mistake of a king is a crime, by making it difficult for him to will and to decide, spoils what good there is in this first impulse."

Tessé found in Spain difficulties of every kind; he constantly had to complain of the King's Council, the *Despacho;* he complained of the King, who had no wish but to please the Queen. His first military operation was the siege of Gibraltar; the enterprise had soon to be abandoned. In 1706 he received from Louis XIV. orders to besiege Barcelona, where the Archduke had shut himself up. He pushed on the siege with some vigor, when Lord Peterborough arrived with a fleet and dispersed the squadron of the Comte de Toulouse. The siege had to be raised.

The year after, Tessé was sent to Savoy. The Duke had declared against France and the French frontier was threatened. Tessé does not seem to have shown much vigor in his campaign, and he lost Susa, an important place, one of the keys of the Alps. This was a great blow to Louis XIV., who never afterwards confided any military operation to the unfortunate Marshal. Tessé was still employed in some diplomatic missions. He returned to Spain when Philip V. abdicated in favor of his son. He gives a very good account in his despatches of the extraordinary state of the Spanish Court under the short reign of Louis I. When the young King died of the small-pox, Philip V. was obliged to assume power again, and the Marshal, who was himself much broken by age, obtained permission to retire from the service. He received the Golden Fleece on his departure, and, a few months after his return to France, he died May 30, 1725, in a little house which he had hired of the Camaldules.

Correspondence.

DR. VON HOLST AND HIS CRITIC.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the *Nation* of March 15, "N. Z." is confident of having found in an article published by me in Sybel's *Historische Zeitschrift* a good example for proving the old thesis, "How difficult it is for any foreigner to understand perfectly the institutions under which we live." To refute "N. Z.'s" criticisms I should have to ask the *Nation* to publish a translation of my whole article. This not being possible, I beg to state to "N. Z." through your columns, with all due respect, that in this case at least I have not failed to understand your institutions, but he has entirely failed to understand my article. I am bold enough to hope that no intelligent

American who has read my former writings will think it possible that I am really groping in such midnight darkness as I am made to do by "N. Z.," and that, too, in fundamental questions. At all events, I am not humble enough to receive any enlightenment from "N. Z.," as long as he proves himself unable to distinguish between a *fact* and the *theory of the law*, as he has done with regard to the President's share in the legislative power.

If he carefully reads once more the reasons I give for believing that the Senate will never be shorn of its power as the House of Lords has been, he may yet learn from the foreigner why "the fate which has overtaken the Electoral College" cannot teach us anything whatever as to this question. The statement that, in my opinion, "Senators rather than members of the lower house are regarded by the masses of the people as their genuine representatives," is so far from giving a correct view of what I really have said, that I should be forced to consider it a wilful misrepresentation, if the whole letter did not show, as I stated before, that "N. Z." has been absolutely unable to understand my article. If, as I am willing to assume, a defective knowledge of German is the reason of that, he might have been more charitable in judging my failing to correctly understand an idiomatic English expression. That is the only point as to which I probably must acknowledge his criticism to be justified, although I am still at a loss to understand the "idle spectator of ground and lofty tumbling," and born Americans whom I have consulted are in the same plight. Besides, this mistake has nothing whatever to do with the correctness or incorrectness of the opinions I have expressed on the questions of constitutional law treated in the above-mentioned article.

Very respectfully, H. von Holst.

Freiburg im B., May 21, 1888.

[We fear that "N. Z." cannot take cover under his ignorance of the German; but we are surprised that any "born American" of intelligence should be unable to explain the phrase from the mountebank's programme of "ground and lofty tumbling"—that is, acrobatic feats on terra firma and in the air.—Ed. Nation.]

BLACKWELL'S GERMAN PREFIXES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your criticism of my little work on 'German Prefixes and Suffixes,' lately published by Henry Holt & Co., you bestow upon it a moderate commendation, coupled with the charge that I have literally translated "page after page" from Sanders's 'Wörterbuch der deutschen Synonymen.' I submit that this is an unfair and altogether misleading statement of the facts, and in making such a statement you do me a great wrong. That I have largely drawn upon Sanders's work is true, but I have faithfully acknowledged it in my preface. But for Sanders's 'Synonymen,' his large dictionary of the language, and his 'Neue Beiträge,' as well as for Heyse's and Meyer's labors, I should probably not have attempted my own work; yet I have given so much individual thought and labor to analyzing, qualifying, amplifying, and improving, wherever possible, every definition, and illustrating by new examples every principle, that I think it fair to claim the credit of having succeeded in presenting this difficult and entangled subject in a logical order and in an easily comprehensible manner—a thing which neither Sanders nor any other man has ever done before. The purpose of my book is to clear away the rubbish, and to leave the subject of German prefixes and suffixes in a clean and definite shape. Every teacher and every student of German has felt the need of such a work as I have attempted to supply, and as such a work is found nowhere else in the world easily accessible to English-speaking persons, I am unable to see how I can be subject to censure in this matter.

Respectfully, J. S. Blackwell.

Columbia, Mo., May 26, 1888.

[We must still insist that we were within the bounds of literal and exact truth in saying of Prof. Blackwell's 'Manual' "that page after page of matter—statements, qualifications, illustrations, and all—is simply translated, with more or less of rearrangement, from Sanders's 'Wörterbuch der deutschen Synonymen.'" This is true, for example, of pages 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, and 9, which make no mention of Sanders, but are, nevertheless, *taken bodily, sentence for sentence*, from his 'Wörterbuch,' pages 3-8. Our comment was, that one is not adequately prepared for that sort of thing by what he finds in the preface, in which Prof. Blackwell merely names a list of authorities from whom he has "borrowed help." In this list, to be sure, we find Sanders's 'Wörterbuch.' But does Prof. Blackwell really regard this as an entirely ingenuous account of his *modus operandi?* If so, what would be the nature of the case for which he would reserve the word *compile?*—Ed. Nation.]

CIVIL-SERVICE REFORM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your editorial of May 31 is a clause which I venture to quote as expressing exactly the theory of Cabinet responsibility in Congress in its relation to the civil service. If any official

"wants to make it appear that his manipulations of the civil service have all had in view, not the fixing of caucuses and conventions, but the public good, he must go on the stand, papers in hand, and stand examination and cross-examination, and he must not take refuge behind 'legal evidence,' either. He must furnish us with human evidence—that is, the evidence on which men transact the ordinary business of life."

And further on you say:

"Therefore it is most desirable that the Senatorial investigation, such as is now pending in New York, into the operation of the Civil-Service Law, should be held annually. Nothing else will prevent its being evaded or nullified on a greater or less scale."

I desire to point out that the conclusion here is not at all adequate to the premise. Such a Senatorial investigation is fatally defective in many ways:

(1.) It is always looked upon as a party affair. If the majority of the committee is on the side of the Administration, its report is regarded as "whitewash"; if opposed, as political hostility.

(2.) As the use of the offices is the most effective means by which Congress can control the Executive, there is no question that that body, as a whole, is opposed to the Civil-Service Law. It may be doubted whether any committee could be made up which, as a committee—that is, without personal responsibility—would have for its sole object the pure and impartial administration of that law.

(3.) The investigation is made after the fact, and not into any one, but a series of facts, so that public attention is confused and drawn away from the main points.

(4.) It is conducted in the absence of the offending party. In the various cases the responsibility of the several members of the Cabinet and of the President is all mixed up together. No one of them is heard, or subjected to the examination or cross-examination which you justly describe as so important.

All these objections would be done away with if the Cabinet officers made their public appearance regularly in Congress. In the first place, questions would take place by individuals upon their personal responsibility which, with the answers, would soon make clear whether they were guided by party spirit or not. Then, though committees are animated by the *esprit de corps* and gain nothing by departing from it, the case is very different with an individual. An ambitious man could, like Disraeli, *make* the House and the public listen to him and force a chance to win his spurs. Again, inquiry would follow directly upon the fact, and in each individual case; and, lastly, the very person who made the appointment or removal would have to speak for himself then and there, and the responsibility would be brought home directly to the President behind them all.

It is evident that the present Civil-Service Law cannot be kept effective without a constant strain upon public opinion. Mr. Cleveland has shown by his tariff message and his vetoes that he possesses an unusual degree of courage. If he cannot stand the pressure, who can? Mr. Curtis thinks the issue more important than tariff reform, and would even go the length of limiting the President by constitutional amendment to one term, though it needs little argument to show that this would by no means necessarily produce the desired effect, while it would have other and great disadvantages. But surely the whole future of politics ought not to be given up to merely keeping the machinery of government in order, to the permanent exclusion of everything else. If that machinery is good for anything, it ought, when once organized, to go of itself. Nobody in England ever thinks now of making a political cry of the condition of the civil service. That was settled once for all thirty years ago, and is kept in order by the fact that if ministers depart from the rules, they are called to prompt and personal account. That is the way, and the only way, in which the law can be made a real and vital force in this country. G. B.

Boston, June 2, 1888.

A TARIFF OF LONGITUDE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Seeing in your quotation of Mr. Mills's speech the statement that the tariff is the same in every Territory of the United States, reminds me of one of the many idiosyncrasies of the tariff humbug. Unless I am mistaken, the tariff is *not* the same at the Pacific Coast as it is at the Atlantic Coast *on sugar!* Am I right? In California the infant industry of the Sandwich Islands has to be protected by *no* tariff, while at the East the infant of the sugar States cannot sleep without the soothing syrup of the tariff. What a snare this tariff is; and how many people honestly believe they want it, when in reality they want nothing of the kind.

Respectfully, W. Bodemann.

Chicago, May 30, 1888.

A PROTECTIONIST SCARE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The following precious specimen of

tariff journalism is taken from the Philadelphia *Press* of May 25. It not only shows the desperate straits to which a protection organ is driven in these thoughtful times, but to those who accept it as truthful it presents a remarkable instance of the faith which the Ponty-Pool mill-owners have in an American "probability."

REJOICING AT THE MILLS BILL.

WELSH IRON MILLS GETTING READY TO FILL AMERICA WITH THEIR PRODUCTS.

SHARON, May 24 [Special].—An iron worker named Phillips of this city has received a cablegram from Ponty-Pool, Wales, apprising him that ten sheet mills and 130 puddling furnaces are about to start at that place, and asking him to return to take charge of one of the departments. A letter from a friend brings the information that the greatest activity prevails there over the probable passage of the Mills bill, and that it is on the strength of such a probability that mills idle for a long period are about to resume.

A REPUBLICAN.

PHILADELPHIA, May 26, 1888.

A MIXTURE OF SALTS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your excellent article this week on Chili's commerce and finances, I was sorry to see the statement, following the popular idea, that the export tax was principally on "saltpetre." This article, "nitrate of potash," is not produced in South America. What you should have mentioned, and correctly, for Chili exports vast quantities of it, is "nitrate of soda," a very different article, and having a different base. The confounding of these two articles, so different in themselves and in their use, is so common an error that I am induced to call your attention to this point, in an article otherwise so true in every respect. It is amusing to find how often, outside of manufacturers, people of education and those otherwise well posted in the knowledge of raw materials, confound these two great articles of import in this country, and mention them as though they were one and the same thing. This hallucination appears even among the chemists of the Government appraisers at times, and as saltpetre pays a duty here of one cent per pound, and nitrate of soda is admitted free, it causes some perplexities in appraising the invoices at the Custom-house when one salt is mistaken for the other. WM. L. PARKER.

BOSTON, May 31, 1888.

DE LUNATICO INQUIRENDO.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The feelings and ideas of that numerous class of men now banded together under the banner of "Blaine or bust," have just been brought forcibly home to me by the case of a man quite prominent in the city, and of most excellent good sense in almost everything outside of Blaine and protection. This very night, in conversation, this Mr. X. said in substance, with reference to Mr. Blaine's last letter, that this letter did not mean that Mr. Blaine would decline to be a candidate for the Presidency, but that he would run if nominated. This, of course, is equivalent to saying that Mr. Blaine does not mean what he says; but that is nothing, and does not prevent his being an eminently proper person to be elected President. Further, he, Mr. X., would much rather vote for Blaine and be defeated than to vote for several others of the Republican candidates and win. He is strongly opposed to nominating a man for whom any Mugwump might possibly be induced to vote, such a dreadful result being *ipso facto* proof that the candidate is not a good Republican, but on the contrary an object of grave suspicion. In other words, here is a presumably sane man uniting with the editor of the New York *Tribune* in an outspoken desire for a candidate whom no Mugwump can support, and for a "small and select" party into which none shall be allowed to enter unless they be devout worshippers at the shrine of the great god J. G. Blaine.

What mysterious influence can it be which produces this most remarkable state of mind? Would it not be a good plan, for the purpose of increasing our psychological knowledge, and at the same time of reducing the surplus, to induce Congress to pass a bill creating a commission of experts to inquire into the cause, development, and phenomena of "Blaineism"?

S. B. PLATNER.

ADELBERT COLLEGE, June 1, 1888.

THE METHODIST CONFERENCE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your correspondent "E. B." displays more zeal than knowledge in his remarks upon the action of the Methodist General Conference in excluding the women delegates-elect. Their opponents admitted their eminent services in the work of the Church, but denied their right to sit as delegates, on the ground that it would have been contrary to the organic law of the Church. I believe it is a maxim among lawyers that the intent of the law-maker is the law. It was proved conclusively by those who favored the law relating to lay delegation in the Methodist Episcopal Church that it never contemplated the election of women. Every one who listened to the long and somewhat tiresome debate on the question will admit that advocates and opponents alike showed the greatest eagerness to do them justice, and there was little disposition manifested to exclude them on principle. The Conference decided to refer the question to the whole Church, and if, at the end of four years, it shall have voted in favor of their eligibility, their title to seats in the Conference of 1892 will not be questioned by anybody. This is certainly better than to admit them on a questionable title for purely sentimental reasons.

I voted for the women because I was willing to interpret the letter of the law in their behalf, and because I believe that public opinion will soon bring them in anyhow. Yet I am willing to admit that the plan adopted will in the end be better, both for the women and all other parties concerned. A LAY DELEGATE.

THE VICE-PRESIDENCY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In connection with your timely remarks upon the Vice-Presidency, I would offer a further suggestion as a means of increasing the dignity of that office, viz., a considerable increase in the salary now pertaining to it. The difference between the salaries of the President and Vice-President, viz., $50,000 and $8,000, would seem to be out of all proper proportion, and it undoubtedly accounts to some extent for the general disesteem in which the office of the latter is now held. A mere increase of emolument may not be the most ideal method of elevating the popular conception of an office in itself more or less undesirable; yet, in the present state of popular notions, it is a very practical one. If the salary of Vice-President were doubled, or raised to $20,000, the office would at once become an object of more consideration for men of ability and ambition; its social importance would be heightened, and it would be less apt to be made the foot-ball of nominating conventions.

In case of such a change, there would be created, it is true, a marked disparity between the respective remunerations of the presiding officer and the Senators. This, however, would be little felt as long as so large a proportion of that body are men of great wealth, which has been and is likely to continue to be the case for a long time. In view, furthermore, of the grave responsibilities and difficulties which may at any moment devolve upon the Vice-President, the proposed increment ought not to appear excessive even to the average politician, who delights in as large a number as possible of moderate salaries for the many, over the bestowal of which he may hope to exercise a beneficent control, but dislikes and mistrusts large salaries for the few, paid to secure first-rate talent over which he can have little or no power. But to the imagination of the average American the money value of most positions is held as a fair register of their importance; and of this fact advantage might be taken to assist in lifting the Vice-Presidency out of the *nocuous desuetude*, so to say, into which it has undeniably fallen.—Very truly, F. C. EATON.

COLUMBUS, O., May 29, 1888.

POLITICS IN JAPAN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Important changes have just been made among the Government officials. First of all, a Privy Council has been established, to consist of a dozen or more members, besides the President, the Vice-President, and Cabinet officers, who are *ex officio* members. This Council will be composed of men of different factions and political opinions. It will, therefore, be somewhat of a representative body, and will become an important factor in shaping the policy of the Government. This Council will have special consideration of all ordinances which are to be issued, and of the Constitution which is to be drafted. Moreover, questions of public policy, heretofore settled only by the Cabinet Ministers, are hereafter not to be decided without the assent of this Privy Council. To constitute a legal meeting of this body, the attendance of at least ten members has been established as a quorum. It will now be a much more difficult matter to procure the issuance of such a proclamation as the one of last Christmas. Some Japanese newspapers criticise the establishment of this Council because in England such a body has become useless, and has fallen into disrepute; but many people think that here it will be a necessary institution, until the meeting of the new Parliament in 1890, and then it will be abolished.

Count Ito, in accordance with his request, has been relieved of the office of Prime Minister, and transferred to the duty of President of the Privy Council. He has also been especially invited by the Emperor, as a mark of confidence and honor, to be present at the meetings of the Cabinet. Count Ito has been a faithful and indefatigable Prime Minister for more than two years. During his term he has been accustomed to devote four or five hours a day to consultation with foreigners upon questions of governmental policy. And, even during his vacation, when he had retired to his summer residence for rest, he took his private secretaries with him, and devoted considerable time every day to similar consultations. He has been especially interested in the drafting of the Constitution, and has already issued new municipal laws. In fact, one reason for his transfer from the arduous duties of the Prime Minister to his new position was, that he might be able

to devote himself particularly to the development of the Constitution.

The new Prime Minister is Count Kuroda, who has filled various important offices, military and civil. He served as Governor of Hokkaido at the time when attempts were made to colonize and develop the northern island of Yezo. When that enterprise, chiefly on account of the great expense, became unpopular, he lost the public favor. But he has been growing popular again, and was lately called into the Cabinet. Now, as the tide of public favor has ebbed away from Count Ito, Gen. Kuroda assumes the Premiership. The latter has more reputation for generalship than for statesmanship; but he is an acute observer of all things, and will not be likely to establish a military despotism. He has strong political opinions, but he will respect public opinion. He is popular socially among the natives and foreigners, and is friendly to the latter.

These appointments have been made quietly and without resort to assassination, which has been thought to be the Japanese method of effecting changes among their public officials. They are hailed as indications of a more popular policy, which will aim to unite all factions and to represent the different opinions. They seem to indicate the development of a good constitution, which will be neither ultra-German nor ultra-British, but will be framed upon a model which shall incorporate the best points of both. It is thought that thus a constitution best adapted to the needs and circumstances of Japan will be developed. One thing is certain, that the Japanese Government desires to improve its methods and to deserve well of other nations. It is, therefore, hoped that it will not receive unjust censure, such as to discourage it in its efforts; but that, even if it sometimes makes mistakes, it will receive encouragement from all who rejoice in progress in civilization.

E. W. Clement.

Mito, Japan, May 5, 1888.

Notes.

G. P. Putnam's Sons announce 'In Castle and Cabin; or, Talks in Ireland in 1887,' by George Pellew; 'A Sketch of the Germanic Constitution, from the Earliest Times to the Dissolution of the Kingdom,' by Samuel Epes Turner; 'The Tariff History of the United States, from 1789 to 1888,' by F. W. Taussig; 'Industrial Liberty,' by John N. Bonham; 'Suggestive Therapeutics: a Study of the Nature and Uses of Hypnotism,' from the German of Dr. H. Bernheim; 'The Story of Turkey,' by Stanley Lane-Poole; 'A Hard-Won Victory,' by Grace D. Litchfield; and 'The Gallery of a Random Collector,' by Clinton Ross.

'Is Protection a Benefit? A Plea for the Negative,' by Prof. Edward Taylor, will be issued directly by A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago; also, 'The National Revenues,' twenty-one essays, mostly by Eastern economists, edited by Albert Shaw of Minneapolis, and by no means harmonious in opinion.

We have already spoken of 'The Masters of Wood-Engraving,' the important work which Mr. W. J. Linton is engaged in bringing out in England. Specimen pages of it, now before us, show that it will rank very near the head of its class in mechanical execution. The size is called "short royal folio," and on a double page admits cuts of twelve by eight. Those inserted in the text are printed on a tinted ground, and deftly pasted in, the derivation being indicated in the margin. The typography is very fine. The work is obtainable only by subscribers, who, for a copy of the edition of 500, must pay ten guineas; and for the large-sized edition of 100, twenty guineas. Mr. Linton's address is 4 Trafalgar Square, Charing Cross, London.

Dr. Anton Bettelheim of Vienna is engaged in preparing a biography of Berthold Auerbach, and asks to be aided in his undertaking by those who possess letters from the novelist or are able to communicate reminiscences of him. Dr. Bettelheim's address is Währing, Feldgasse 35, Vienna.

Four more volumes of the substantial Library Edition of the joint works of Walter Besant and James Rice have been issued by Dodd, Mead & Co., viz.: 'By Celia's Arbor,' 'The Monks of Thelema,' 'This Son of Vulcan,' and 'With Harp and Crown.'

"Paracelsus" and "Strafford" fill the second volume of the new edition of 'The Poetical Works of Robert Browning,' which the author is now seeing through the press (Macmillan & Co.). We are pleased afresh with the simplicity and portability of these volumes, so well adapted for the lover of poetry.

Shakspere's "Coriolanus," Hecker's 'Black Death' and 'Dancing Mania' (translated by Babington), a second and last volume of Sir John Malcolm's 'Sketches of Persia,' the last but one of Pepys's 'Diary,' and Milton's 'Areopagitica,' carry along "Cassell's National Library" to its 123d issue.

The best of the prose selections in 'George Riddle's Readings' (Boston: Walter H. Baker & Co.) is the first, "Come Here!"—from the German. The hitherto unpublished pieces expressly written for Mr. Riddle, and which help make the collection, as he says, "fairly representative" of his work as a miscellaneous reader, are beneath criticism, and only prove once again how prone "readers" are to unevenness in choice, and how little they do to elevate the literary taste of their audiences. The same reflection has often to be made in the case of school reading-books and works on elocution.

A small pamphlet called 'A Paper on Bass Fishing,' by Charles Barker Bradford (Pond Publishing Co.) is devoted chiefly to informing the public where black bass can be caught in quantity within an hour's ride of New York. It must be that Mr. Bradford is either going to give up angling or change his residence from the neighborhood of New York, for certainly he would never otherwise have publicly revealed that paradise of a lake near Rahway, New Jersey, whose inlet is a lovely stream from which, for more than two miles, "any man who knows how to handle a rod or throw a fly can land or at least hook some of the liveliest two to three-pounders he could wish for." An edition of twenty-five copies on large paper should have been privately printed and distributed among the tried angling friends of the author. The last few pages of the paper give ample instructions on bass fishing.

Bragg's invasion of Kentucky, East Tennessee and the Campaign of Perryville (by Gen. Buell), Cumberland Gap, the Battle of Fredericksburg (by Gen. "Baldy" Smith and others), and Chancellorsville, furnish stirring reading in Nos. 17, 18, of 'Battles and Leaders of the Civil War' (The Century Co.).

'Deutschland und die Deutschen' is a small volume by Dr. H. Kostyák and Professor A. Ader, published by The Modern Language Publishing Company. Apparently designed for translation by learners of German, it is in manner similar to an article extracted from an encyclopædia. The matter is broken up into paragraphs, each of which has its own heading, and which contain a good deal of useful information. The desire to compress many things into a small space necessitates a degree of condensation that often produces a comical effect. This is especially noticeable in the portions devoted to literature and art. Thus, one is surprised to see Hebbel, Freytag, and Hackländer yoked together, and to find among novelists no mention of Ebers and Dahn. Equally odd is the juxtaposition of Meyerbeer with Offenbach and Strauss. Most amusing of all are the remarks on German manners and German society, which, we are told, are more high-bred and elegant than among any other nation.

The Duc de Broglie has published two more volumes of his series of histories of the great diplomatic and military conflicts of the eighteenth century, in which the prominent figures are Louis XV., Maria Theresa, and Frederick the Great, with their generals and ministers, official and unofficial. It is entitled 'Marie Thérèse impératrice' (Paris: Calmann Lévy; Boston: Schoenhof).

The same publisher has just issued the work upon which M. Albert Duruy was engaged during the last months of his life, and of which the third and concluding part appeared in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* for August 15, 1887, only a few days after his death. It is called 'L'Armée royale en 1789,' and was originally intended as an introduction to a great work, for which the author was arranging the materials when he died, upon the French army of the Revolution and the Empire. The present volume is preceded by an interesting biographical introduction, written by the younger brother of the author, M. George Duruy, Professor of History at the Lycée Henri IV., and author of 'L'Unisson' and other novels which have appeared within a few years with much success. M. Victor Duruy, the Academician and former Minister of Public Instruction under the Empire, the father of the two younger men, is now giving at intervals, in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, long passages from his new 'Histoire des Grecs.' Hachette is publishing this work in similar style to the new 'Histoire des Romains' of M. Duruy, which was completed in seven large octavo volumes in 1885, and which is rather a new work than a new edition of his former 'Histoire des Romains,' first published in 1870-74.

M. Henry Houssaye's new book, '1814' (Paris: Perrin; Boston: Schoenhof), is the story of the year which might be called in France, with more reason even than 1870, *l'année terrible*. It is not a mere piece of rhetorical writing, but a mass of facts drawn from official reports and letters in the National Archives, the Archives of Foreign Affairs, and of War, from the memoirs and correspondence of persons of weight, etc. It is written with animation and spirit, although, in the fashion of the day, it is excessively *documenté*, and it is always clear and easy to read, although its abundant materials are compressed and crowded upon each other, sometimes to almost as great an extent as would have been done by M. Taine himself.

A. Giry's 'Étude sur les Origines de la Commune de Saint-Quentin' (Saint-Quentin: C. H. Poette) is an admirable monograph, throwing much light upon the general development of the mediæval French municipality. The difficult problem of the origin of the town jurisdiction, "le tribunal des échevins," is treated with much fulness and ability (pp. 31-67). Since the death of Thierry, no one has made more valuable contributions to the literature of French municipal history than Professor Giry. He has not Thierry's brilliancy of style, but he excels the latter in accuracy of detail.

An interesting work concerning the economic history of Spain has recently appeared, entitled 'Die wirtschaftliche Blüte Spaniens im 16.

Jahrhundert und ihr Verfall' (Berlin: Gaertner. Pp. 179). The author, Konrad Haebler, attempts to prove that most writers wrongly ascribe to the reign of Charles V. a decadence in the economic condition of Spain; that in reality this was a period of economic progress, and that the retrogression began under his successor, Philip II. The book contains much useful information, but also many misleading views. We doubt whether he has proved his main proposition.

There has just been issued, from the office of the *Publishers' Weekly* and *Library Journal* (330 Pearl Street, New York), an 'Author-Index to the Coöperative Index to Periodicals' for 1887. The 'Coöperative Index,' we should be glad to think all our readers were aware, is the voluntary labor of the leading librarians of the country in continuation of 'Poole's Index;' in other words, it is a quarterly key to the best current periodical literature. The 'Author-Index' furnishes the names of the writers, so far as known—and they *are* known or are ascertained in the majority of instances. Its utility needs no words from us, but we are glad to praise the disinterested toil which has produced it.

In the *Magazine of American History* for June we remark Dr. G. E. Manigault's article on the "Military Career of Gen. George Izard," best known as one of the inglorious American commanders in the war of 1812, on the Canadian border. The present writer seeks to vindicate Gen. Izard's reputation by justifying his prudence; but he perhaps succeeds best in conveying the impression that the family papers would afford material for a rather interesting memoir, picturing both the man and the times.

Mr. M. D. Learned's chapter on "The Pennsylvania German Dialect" is the least technical of the papers contributed to No. 33 of the *American Journal of Philology*. It is a fragment of a considerable treatise, but it shows well the curious complexity of the German dialects commonly confounded under the name of Pennsylvania "Dutch," as well as the great mixture of language, and nationalities, or "ethnic elements," in the early settlement of Pennsylvania, from which much might be deduced with reference to the development of the State. The German dialectic characteristics, we are told, are still traceable.

An article on the "Winter-Roosting Colonies of Crows" was perhaps hardly to be looked for in the *American Journal of Psychology*, though we must admit the bearings of brute intelligence on human, and we recall the test of the counting capacity of the crow, which proved that he got fatally confused above five or six. Mr. C. L. Edwards studies them, in the May number just issued, for the manifestations of the social instinct, but without much psychologizing. Quite in line, on the other hand, is Dr. William Noyes's description of a case of "systematized delusional insanity" on the part of an American pupil of Gérôme, whose symbolic art aberrations are copied in facsimile, and show him to have the decorative sense in a rather unusual degree. Other articles are "A Study of Dreams," by Julius Nelson, which is curious and suggestive, though in parts hard reading; and "The Relative Legibility of the Small Letters," by E. C. Sanford—a very practical discussion.

L'Art for May 1 (Macmillan) comes rubricated as the Salon number, and M. Paul Leroi has, in fact, the floor entirely to himself. The illustrated memoranda of the pictures (or the sketches for the pictures) are mostly of the grades employed in the Salon catalogue. A full-page etching, "Tulip Culture," is reserved for an American artist who has made Holland his chosen field, Mr. George Hitchcock; but it was his last year's contribution. His "Annunciation Lilies" of the present exhibition has been skied, M. Leroi complains.

The twentieth annual meeting of the American Philological Association will be held at Amherst, Massachusetts, beginning at three P. M., Tuesday, July 10, 1888, in Walker Hall, Amherst College. Members intending to be present are requested to send their names to Mr. L. H. Elwell (Amherst, Mass.), Chairman of the Local Committee, as soon as possible. Those who propose to read papers are requested to notify the Secretary of the Association, Mr. John H. Wright of Harvard University, not later than Thursday, June 28.

—The *Century* for June brings us the first of the direct observations of Russian prison life made by Mr. Kennan, and it comes with sufficient evidence of the sanitary condition which the Russian Government knowingly tolerates, to satisfy the most reluctant reader. There is nothing in this particular case which shows unusual rigor towards the political prisoners, but rather it is an illustration of the state of things which is normal in the prison management for all classes. The details are given with distinctness, and the figures are taken from authoritative sources; nearly twenty thousand exiles pass through this station of Tiumen yearly, and the sick-rate is more than one in four. It has accommodation—Siberian accommodation—for eight hundred, and usually confines eighteen hundred in its walls. The picture of the scene, with its sickening details, the reader may see for himself, as no abridgment can convey its inhumanity. But it is only fair to remember the condition of European prisons not very long ago, when passing judgment on the Government that permits such places as this prison-pen to decimate and debase its criminals and their families. The remainder of the number is unusually well illustrated, and in particular Mr. De Vinne's interesting paper upon the Antwerp publisher, Plantin. Mr. John Burroughs writes upon Matthew Arnold, in a somewhat heavy and involved way, it is true, but with appreciation for the ideals and some grasp of the method of the Englishman in whom the purely literary spirit has had most complete sway. Arnold illustrates the excellences and defects of this spirit with remarkable clearness, but Mr. Burroughs has an eye only for the former. It is noticeable that the writer treats Arnold's religious writings with altogether unusual respect. The Lincoln biography furnishes an interior view of the Frémont campaign in Missouri, and an estimate of the Blair family by the President, a valuable criticism of Lincoln's on Frémont's emancipation proclamation, and a painful letter from Horace Greeley after Bull Run. The departments are unusually excellent.

—Mr. Francis Galton, in a communication recently made before the British Anthropological Institute, deduced some interesting conclusions regarding brain-size and brain-development, which are not exactly in harmony with the generally preconceived notions on the subject. These conclusions are, as stated by himself (*Nature*, May 3): (1.) Although it is pretty well ascertained that in the masses of the population the brain ceases to grow after the age of nineteen, or even earlier, it is by no means so with university students. (2.) Men who obtain high honors have had considerably larger brains than others at the age of nineteen. (3.) They have larger brains than others, but not to the same extent, at the age of twenty-five, the predominance at that time being diminished to one-half of what it was. (4.) Resulting from the preceding, "high honor" men are presumably, taken as a class, both more precocious and more gifted than others. Consequently, Mr. Galton thinks, we must "look upon eminent university success as a fortunate combination of these two helpful conditions." These interesting observations, which open up a broad vista into a new line of physiological inquiry, are based upon a series of carefully conducted measurements of "head products" and "relative brain volumes" made during a period of three years by Dr. Venn on students of Cambridge University.

—Volume ix of the *Goethe-Jahrbuch*, for 1888, is at hand. As compared with some of its predecessors, especially volume vii, it contains less that is of interest; but the Goethe student will not leave it empty-handed. The volume opens with a reproduction of Angelica Kauffmann's drawing, illustrating the scene in Goethe's "Iphigenie" (iii, 3), where *Orestes*, just recovering from his delirium, greets *Iphigenia*, who returns with *Pylades* to her brother's aid. The scene and figures have an air of softness and tenderness; there is a pathos and sentiment as in a woman's conception of a scene in a drama whose central figure is a woman. "Gemüthlich gezeichnet," is Goethe's comment on the sketch in a letter of June 8, 1787. Like its predecessors, the contents of the present volume are classified under the heads of New Communications, Essays, and Miscellanies; it contains also the report of the Goethe Society and a list of its members, with a list of the members of the sister society in England. Under the first head the contributions from the Goethe archives in Weimar deserve chief mention. Three fragments in verse come first, a Prometheus fragment and two Faust scraps, entitled "Abkündigung" and "Abschied"; the latter quite in the tone of Goethe's letters to Schiller during the last decade of the past century, when "Faust" was to the poet a relic of barbarism, a reminder of dark days before his sun "rose wondrous in the south."

> "Und so geschlossen sei der Barbareien
> Beschränkter Kreis mit seinen Zaubereien."

are the words with which Goethe here would take leave of a task which was to accompany him his whole life through.

—Among the letters which the archives furnish us, those written by Schopenhauer, then just entering upon his career, in the years 1814–18, are of interest for the light they throw upon the young philosopher, supplementing, as they do, the other side of the correspondence already published. Schopenhauer came into personal contact with Goethe as early as 1811; his mother's acquaintance with the poet dates from a period five years earlier, at which time, after her husband's death, she took up her abode in Weimar. Goethe's theory of color seems to have formed the bond between himself and Schopenhauer; it is on that, and not on philosophy or poetry, that this correspondence turns. Schopenhauer had intrusted to a friend a work of his own, "On Sight and Color," to be put in Goethe's hands for his inspection. Eight weeks passed, and Goethe had not even acknowledged the receipt of it, and Schopenhauer, with the young author's anxiety but with no timidity, wrote to learn of its whereabouts. Goethe replied reassuringly, and Schopenhauer sent a long letter—some ten printed pages—in which he sets forth the points in which his theory of color differs from that of Goethe. It is full of self-confidence and conceit, uttered with a most delicious frankness. But Schopenhauer failed in his main endeavor, to prevail upon Goethe to stand godfather to

his work when published, and Goethe returned it after some six months, amid jealous fears on the author's part that some one else might have seen the manuscript and possessed himself of the precious discovery. The last of the letters is written in 1818, just before Schopenhauer's departure for Italy, and contains an announcement of the speedy publication of Schopenhauer's *magnum opus*, 'Die Welt als Wille und Vorstellung,' the title of which, he tells Goethe, is known to no one except himself and his publisher. Of the four Essays in the *Jahrbuch*, two are devoted to "Wilhelm Meister." Biographical notices of Scherer, Vischer, and Goedeke appear among the Miscellanies, which close with some seventy-five pages of bibliography. The report of the Goethe Society shows it to be in a most flourishing condition; at the end of January, 1888, the Society numbered 2,883 members, including 201 members of the English Society, a gain of 223 in ten months, while the funds in the treasury amounted to nearly $3,400.

—Doubtless many readers of the *Nation* are old enough to remember the sensation produced in 1835 by the publication of Locke's "Moonhoax," describing the condition of the moon as observed by Sir John Herschel at the Cape of Good Hope through a new telescope of extraordinary power; but probably few are now aware of the wide currency obtained by this clever performance. It was in vain that Arago pointed out to the French Academy its scientific impossibility in December, 1835. Four months afterwards, in April, 1836, an Italian version of the pamphlet appeared in Naples, translated, according to the title-page, from the one hundred and fourth French edition. It was accompanied by a preface gravely arguing that, in spite of M. Arago's criticisms, the scientific details of the work were too minute to be suppositious, and it had as a frontispiece a fairly executed copper-plate representing one of the "man-bats," or winged beings, discovered by Sir John in the lunar world. A copy of this brochure now before us serves to point the moral that we ought not to be too severe upon the credulity of our ancestors. Much of our wholesome modern scepticism may be attributed rather to the facilities for conveying intelligence and contradicting falsehood than to any radical change in our mental processes.

RECENT NOVELS.

Robert Elsmere. By Mrs. Humphry Ward. London: Smith, Elder & Co.

One Traveller Returns. By D. Christie Murray and Henry Herman. Longmans, Green & Co.

A Brother to Dragons. By Amélie Rives. Harper & Brothers.

Maximina. By Don Armando Palacio Valdés. Translated from the Spanish by Nathan Haskell Dole. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.

Herr Paulus. By Walter Besant. Harper & Brothers.

For the Right. By Karl Emil Franzos. Given in English by Julie Sutter. Harper & Brothers.

Mr. Absalom Billingslea and Other Georgia Folk. By R. M. Johnston. Harper & Brothers.

FROM the beginning it is clear that the reading of 'Robert Elsmere' will be a serious matter, and to throw the book aside after skimming the first chapter would not be proof of radical frivolity. Mrs. Ward has attempted, if not to identify, at least to harmonize, conflicting interests, and to incorporate, in a form that promises mental distraction, matter which demands mental concentration. She has tried to write a novel and to preach a regenerative gospel, and if she has not utterly failed in either task, she has not achieved a success commensurate with the industry, vigor, and enthusiasm expended. She is infected with the common hallucination that the literary instinct and urgent moral and religious purpose are natural yoke-fellows, efficiently supplementary each to the other. The truth is, that the literary instinct makes for art, the moral purpose for reform, and a forced partnership results in disaster to the weaker impulse, and even in enfeeblement of the stronger. Power may be born in the brain, but its trusty reserves are in the heart, and Mrs. Ward's heart is filled to overflowing with her gospel. The necessity to observe, in any degree, the conventions of fiction is a constant check upon complete utterance of her mission, and a bar to her efficiency as a propagandist. Exclusively possessed by her purpose, she has been blind to a novelist's first care and duty, which is to project living people upon his page. Her prominent figures are merely conveniences helping memory to hold the threads of argument. Catherine, Elsmere's wife, is a concrete image of conservatism and tradition, of positive hostility to progress. She is a rock in the path of intellectual curiosity, and resents implacably its attacks upon her creed. A strain of asceticism in her recalls George Eliot's Dorothea, though in the matter of jewels Catherine is the more liberal, condescending to wear hair bracelets and, on occasion, a pin at her throat. Her sister, Rose, stands for art, and is permitted all the vagaries of manner and costume conceded to be the privilege of art abiding in the form of a lovely girl. Langham, the Oxford scholar, represents that indifferentism which is lately become the distinction of the fastidious, hypercritical man of letters. He embodies the negations of life, and, separated by the uncontrollable processes of his mind from sympathy with the aims of other men, is finally confronted with the impossibility of making common cause with them.

The author is not fond of Langham, yet he alone is thoroughly realized. His personality, apart from his type, is interesting. He has been spared the elaborate description bestowed upon the heroes and martyrs. In comparison with creation, description is child's play, and Mrs. Ward has freely availed herself of it, often to the reader's sore deprivation. Some specimens of the Irish fun and originality of Elsmere's mother would have been very acceptable; a sprinkling of Mme. de Netteville's brilliant audacities would have enlivened the three volumes amazingly. The most serious person could have enjoyed the suppressed racy stories told by the Squire about Mommsen and Ranke; something more of scholarly books than the title and author's name might have provoked comparison with George Eliot, instead of with that repository of impressive nomenclature, the author of 'Beulah' and 'St. Elmo.'

Of the literature that assails and denies the divinity of Christ, Mrs. Ward has indeed read widely, and has sufficiently assimilated her reading to reproduce the most obvious arguments lucidly and forcibly. Her information is used in the development of Elsmere, who is identified with her all-important purpose. This purpose is to demonstrate by the literary and historical, the comparative method, that Christ is not God, thus annihilating the mysticism, what she calls the mythology and superstition, of Christianity. Having destroyed, she proceeds to construct by promulgating a pure Theism, strengthened, for practical purposes, by acceptance of the ethical preaching of Jesus of Nazareth. She rejects the dogma of Christianity, yet cherishes what she believes to be its essence and spirit. She speaks scornfully of Unitarianism, yet it is difficult to see just where she differs from it. Criticism of her work from the premises that Christianity is an isolated religion, and that the Bible is a direct revelation from God, not to be weighed and sifted by methods justly applicable to books of merely human testimony, would inevitably be undiscriminating, probably disingenuous, yet, willing as one may be to go along with her, her unconscious partisanship is uncomfortably manifest.

In the great crisis of his spiritual and actual life, Robert Elsmere exclaims:

"Every human soul in which the voice of God makes itself felt enjoys equally with Jesus of Nazareth the divine sonship, and *miracles do not happen.*"

And again:

"I can no longer believe in an incarnation and resurrection. Christ is risen in our hearts, in the Christian life of charity. Miracle is a natural product of human feeling and imagination; and God was in Jesus—preëminently as he is in all great souls, but not otherwise—not otherwise in kind than he is in you and me."

It is to support these convictions that Mrs. Ward rallies all her evidence. On the other side there is almost a blank: not a word of the appeals to the intelligence at the tongue's end of those who are both rational and faithful; nothing but incoherent tirades from a ritualist priest, and the untimely quotation of Christian axioms by Catherine. We are told that Elsmere struck manfully for the dear faith that was slipping away from him; we see him silenced by some trite arguments advanced by a confirmed sceptic, unarmed and defenceless before a few books redolent of commonplace for students of religion. The weakness of this situation, which is the central one, is incredible, and thereby Mrs. Ward has delivered herself into the hands of the enemy. Yet the enemy, if tolerant, will treat her charitably, and, while deploring her heresy, must acknowledge her love for the things that are true, honest, just, pure, lovely, and of good report, and her intense eagerness to point a way by which humanity may be led to the Kingdom of God and his righteousness.

After this lengthy contention that Christianity, in its full, real meaning, is and ought to be an expiring faith, it is restful to contemplate Christianity coming as tidings of great joy to joyless multitudes. The scene of 'One Traveller Returns' is in Britain, at the time when, though the gods of Greece and Rome tottered in their shrines, the Britons still served their fearful Bel and There and Odan, their souls held in bondage by a most cruel and oppressive priesthood. The good news is just being whispered in the Isles, and everywhere the people are prepared to substitute a religion of love, peace, and freedom for one of hate, bloodshed, and slavery. Through purely human agency the light dawns upon the Corleans, but, to reveal its splendor, the order of nature is disturbed, a miracle happens—their dead Queen Vreda is permitted to come back to earth and dwell among them. The story opens with the poisoning of Vreda by Barxelhold, the wanton daughter of the arch-Druid Wenegog. In this crime the girl's lover, Feltor, the King, is accomplice. Vreda passes from life into death—that is, to an estate where, physically, she neither feels, sees, nor hears, but, spiritually, is aware of all things, both in the old life and in the new. The description of Vreda's existence in her new state is remarkable for its clear realization and clever avoidance of phrases and words applicable

only to physical being. Perceiving the misery and hopeless ignorance of her people, a great longing to help them possesses Vreda, and, when the longing shapes itself into an anguish of entreaty, the miracle happens: she is on earth again charged with the mission of a nation's salvation. Through the love and voluntary suffering of one, the redemption of many is accomplished.

In narrating stories of the supernatural, it is the custom to excite horror or terror, thus subjugating reason to emotion. Here, these expedients are rejected, yet the reader's sense for probability is not outraged. The action is continuous and smooth, and the dramatic instants occur so spontaneously that mere verbal effect can well be dispensed with. The impression left of familiarity with people of a remote era and with a life long gone by, bears testimony both to the authors' mastery of the art of fiction, and to their critical perception of the historical material that best serves their art.

In the youthful effusions of the writers who make a literary epoch, the influence of great predecessors both upon thought and style is always more or less evident. It is the natural expression of the devotion of the disciple to the master, and the future of the young writer may be predicted with some certainty from his selection of models and the way in which he has used them. The three stories in the volume entitled 'A Brother to Dragons' owe their existence to the attraction for the author exercised by the fathers of English imaginative literature. The influence of the Elizabethans is marked in degree and exceptional in kind. While the impression made by the essence of their genius is scarcely discoverable, that of certain minor manifestations is unprecedentedly strong. There is no trace of the immortal part of Shakspere, of the rarity of Ben Jonson, no echo of their exuberant life, their fine, free thought, their daring yet delicate fancy. The Shakspere of the groundlings speaks from every page. *Juliet's Nurse* and *Mistress Quickly* are the animating forces. To reproduce the sentiments and diction of these engaging prototypes the device is adopted of putting the tales in the respective mouths of a gardener, a blacksmith, and a nurse. The title story, "A Brother to Dragons," on its first appearance in the *Atlantic Monthly*, was received with such general approbation that an examination may prove instructive to young authors anxious first to secure a reputable editor and after that the public. It will certainly encourage the humble and faint-hearted, appalled by the practical difficulties believed to stand in the way of ambition soaring in that direction.

The heroine is a Lady Margaret, astoundingly beautiful, and a rich orphan. Her accomplishments are chiefly muscular. She rides a horse "few men would dare bestride"; she swims "like a sea-maid," and is a crack shot with a long-bow. Her only companions are the narrating gardener and his wife, the lady's nurse. The impression that nobly-born English ladies of the Tudor period were always relegated to such companionship is not one for which the Elizabethans should be held responsible, but it has an inalienable hold on the minds of the producers and consumers of that nineteenth-century fiction which will probably be snubbed by future historians. Wearied one day by the chase, or some such characteristic occupation, the Lady Margaret throws herself upon her couch of skins, and there, apparently, falls asleep. But she is "playing 'possum," and drinks in a conversation between the gardener and the nurse, in which gross facts are stated in grossest fashion. The subject of this talk is the "bad and bloody Lord of Denbigh," and the result is to inspire a flower of innocence with a resolve to save his valuable soul. Presently up rides the "wicked Earl," and preparations for his salvation are actively begun. With the courage of her resolves, the lady assumes the disguise of a young gallant. To hinder the Earl from engaging in some deviltry, the exact nature of which is shrouded in mystery, she imperils her life. The Earl's reformation is effected, and his eternal devotion to his fair saint secured. By the time he weds the lady, his innocence and virtue are fit to stand beside her own; he is reduced to the cooing stage of babyhood, quite (as the author would say) "an he had been any christom child." The narrating gardener alternates comparisons of hair with buttercups and butterfly wings, of hands with white rose leaves, and a coarse sensuality of phrase that not infrequently slips into licentiousness.

This predominating strain of coarseness runs through the two remaining tales. In "The Farrier Lass" there is a strong though not novel conception of character capable of a development of which simplicity and purity would be the distinction. In the third, Nurse Crumpet tells her tale to two noble nurslings with small deference *virginibus puerisque*. Her theme is the determination of an obstreperous Lucasta that Lovelace shall not go to the wars. Vainly does Lovelace plead in violent prose—

> "I could not love thee, dear, so much,
> Loved I not honour more."

Lucasta locks him up in a cave, and there, though she has thoughtfully provided bread and wine, and though he is a healthy fellow (what the author neglected to describe as a "most lustick youth"), he dies in a short time, apparently of starvation. This situation has originality, and so has the rough-and-tumble fight between the two women in front of the cave, when Lucasta defends herself "like a she-wolf at bay, with teeth and talons, too." To point out the abuse and misuse of archaic phrases and words throughout the volume would be as profitless as disagreeable. They are testimony in detail of the vast inexperience of life and of the comprehensive ignorance of literary proprieties which distinguish the work and make its best apology.

The secrets of the heart, the most tender and intimate relations of life, are treated in 'Maximina' with charming refinement. Situations peculiarly susceptible to vulgarization are described with a frank naturalness which, while exhibiting their naïveté and humor, leaves their delicacy unimpaired. Commonplace, domestic life is idealized, invested with poetry and grace, by an author whose insight and sympathetic feeling enable him to penetrate beneath the surface, and to disclose, without offence, the hidden truth. Nothing could be more romantic than the spirit of Miguel and Maximina's young married days; nothing more ordinary than the facts. Except for her genuine femineity, Maximina is not an interesting woman. She is a sprightly, ingenuous child, exclusively interested in her personal happiness, with which Miguel's is identified. In the course of time she would probably have tried Miguel sorely; therefore, to those who believe in the pitiless logic of character, the pathos of her early death is not tinged with sorrow. Inevitably the time must have come when a man of Miguel's temperament would have demanded more congeniality of thought, more intellectual sympathy, than Maximina could ever give him.

In following Miguel's career one is sensible of the author's conviction that a man's character is responsible for his destiny, and that the seemingly gratuitous cruelty of circumstance is the material put in his hands to mould his character. He is essentially a man with more impulse than judgment, more sentiment than practicality. Bitter experience is needed to show him his natural possibilities and limitations, and never could he be taught to use his world for his own advantage. Therefore, his political experiences are at once pitiful and amusing. Any one, except himself, could foresee certain disaster as the result of his meddling with affairs demanding for successful conduct almost every quality that he lacked, and none that he possessed. In the political passages the author's contemptuous irony suggests that, at the time, the Spanish "machine" was so hopelessly bad that serious condemnation would be wasted. It is evident that professional politicians are the same all the world over, and there is a ludicrous resemblance between the methods of the Spanish machine and machines nearer home. The fortunes of many interesting people touch those of Miguel and Maximina, and, though not closely interwoven, make a natural social surrounding. There is no technical plot, no centre of interest; and attention is not riveted on one object, any more than it is in life itself. This method is fairly satisfactory when adopted by a master of selection like Valdés, but it would surely bring the average novelist to grief.

Unquestionably Mr. Besant is as familiar as was his hero, 'Herr Paulus,' with "the whole of the Spiritualist business from the common medium with his taps to the occult philosopher with his mahatmas." There is nothing that he doesn't know about Spiritualism, and nothing that he hesitates to expose with genial candor and irreverent glee. His stage is the house of an elderly wealthy person to whom messages and manifestations are as the breath of his nostrils, and upon whose credulity mediums of every degree of worthlessness have thriven for a score of years. When the star, Herr Paulus, appears, the minor actors shrink away into the gloom of the wings. The tricks of Herr Paulus are wonderful and baffling even to his fellow-rogues, who, like all spiteful and envious artists, resort to sarcastic criticism and angry denunciation. But the elegant young apostle, the disciple of sages learned in the ancient way, tramples ruthlessly on the discomfited. His career is a succession of victories, until love for a woman deprives him of his mystic power, and he becomes helpless as Samson beneath the shears of Delilah. With all his conjurer's tricks explained, Herr Paulus remains a very subtle and astute young man, endowed with extraordinary mesmeric power, and many of his performances are as inexplicable to common intelligence as if they were really supervised and directed by departed spirits. It is no wonder that he confounded the simple and bewildered the sceptical. He was almost clever enough to convince himself that he had something inestimably precious to impart to the worthy people who chatter about esoteric Buddhism and the wisdom of the adepts, and almost ingenious enough to persuade science that its wisdom is folly and its boasted truth the most arrogant of assumptions.

A belief in God's justice and a passionate purpose to enforce its practice among men inspires the author of 'For the Right.' The belief is implanted in the heart of Taras Barabola, a Galician peasant, and the purpose both glorifies and wrecks his life. The nobility of his nature is not diminished by his mistakes, nor by his terrible actual failure. A man dominated by one idea is apt to be fanatical, and to be always harping on one string is more tiresome in fiction even than in reality. The

account of the struggles of Taras to establish justice is tiresome, and is only saved from dulness by the picturesqueness of his sphere of action and the exciting incidents of his career as an avenger. Still, one never loses perception of the grandeur of the man's soul, and the keenest sympathy with his efforts is roused by recognition of their error and futility. Apart from interest in the theme of the book, there is much to attract in the description of a comparatively unknown people—a people still living under a mitigated feudal system, yet ready to fight to the death for any infringement of the rights traditionally theirs. The light thrown on the religious belief and practices of an isolated community ostensibly Christian is particularly interesting. There is a curious survival of Paganism in a race which, nominally adhering to the Eastern Church, still worships the sun and moon, the lords of light, and, while placing a crucifix at the head of a dead man, puts beside him the skin of a kid and salt for "the other gods."

The stories in the volume entitled 'Mr. Absalom Billingslea' are a series of sketches of Georgian folk whose chief claim to fame is their extraordinarily corrupt, and all but unintelligible, English. It is possible that there are people who habitually talk this jargon, but that is no good reason for its preservation in literature. Constantly irritated and puzzled by the language, the reader is unable to appreciate what strength or humor or pathos may lie in the characters. They become one with the rude grotesqueness of the sounds they utter, travestying human nature as the sounds burlesque human speech.

THREE CRUISES OF THE *BLAKE*.

A Contribution to American Thalassography: Three Cruises of the U. S. Coast and Geodetic Survey Steamer *Blake* in the Gulf of Mexico, in the Caribbean Sea, and along the Atlantic Coast of the United States. By Alexander Agassiz. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1888. 2 vols., xxii., 214, and 220 pp. Royal 8vo. Maps and illustrations.

For instruction in Thalassography, or the knowledge of oceanic basins, the unprofessional reader has hitherto been obliged to seek his text-books in foreign literature. Of professional works, like that of Sigsbee on deep-sea sounding and dredging, and scientific papers, like those of Tanner, Verrill, and many others, in special lines of research, there is indeed a most creditable list of American titles. But for a parallel to Wyville Thomson's 'Depths of the Sea,' or Wild's 'Thalassa,' one would have hitherto searched our libraries in vain. To Mr. Alexander Agassiz we are indebted for the present work, which, in its scope, its wealth of illustration, and its presentation of fresh and important matter, leaves nothing to be desired.

The author explains, in his introduction, that his connection with the deep-sea work of the Coast Survey dates back to 1849, when, as a boy, he accompanied Prof. Louis Agassiz on a cruise off Nantucket, and served as an aid, two years later, during the investigation of the Florida reefs. When, in 1877, he was invited by Superintendent Patterson to pursue, under the auspices of the Survey, those studies with which he had been more or less occupied for a quarter of a century, the invitation was naturally accepted, with what important results all thalassographers are well aware.

The field of work opened to naturalists by such surveys is of the greatest importance. The materials collected throw a flood of light on our knowledge of the conditions of animal life in deep water, and promise the most important general conclusions on terrestrial physics and geology. Fascinating as the study of marine life has always been, even to amateurs, its interest has greatly increased since the abyssal fauna has been reached. Light has suddenly been thrown on many vexed problems concerning the geographical distribution of dry land in former geological epochs, in which is involved the distribution of plants and animals and their progressive development in geological time. New views of the nature of geological periods are suggested, and new theories of the formation and duration of continents and oceanic basins present themselves. Ideas in regard to the formation of marine deposits, formerly current, have been greatly modified, and many chapters of geologic history reconstructed on a more enduring foundation.

In the work done on the *Blake* during these cruises, while commanded by Lieut.-Com. Sigsbee and Commander Bartlett, as well as in the progressive development of the apparatus and methods employed, officers and civilians cordially joined forces, and the exact share of each in the success which followed, it would be impossible, as it is unnecessary, to delimit. The doubling of the trawl-runners and the substitution (suggested by Mr. Agassiz) of steel line for hempen rope, were improvements which have proved of the utmost importance in dredging, both in shortening the time needed for a haul and in insuring that the net shall not come up empty.

In the two volumes before us, Mr. Agassiz has brought together his observations on particular topics in separate chapters. In the first volume are collected a description of the equipment used on the *Blake;* an historical account of deep-sea work; a discussion of the Florida reefs and their relation to the peninsula and to the real boundaries of the continent; observations on the connection between the fauna and flora of the West Indies and those of the North American continent; on the permanence of continents and oceanic basins; on deep sea formations; general conclusions on the deep-sea fauna, with an account of the pelagic or surface fauna of the open sea; a discussion of the sea temperatures of the western Atlantic, the Caribbean Sea, and the Gulf of Mexico; a chapter, historic and descriptive, on the Gulf Stream, with maps illustrating the progress of our knowledge of this great thalassine artery from Franklin's time to the present day; on the origin and character of the materials being deposited on the bottom of the ocean; and on the physiology of life in the abysses. The second volume begins with a discussion of the fauna of the West Indies, which is followed by chapters devoted to characteristic deep-sea types of animals—fishes, crustacea, worms, mollusks, echinoderms, jelly-fish and hydroid corals, polyps and true corals, rhizopods and sponges; the whole concluded with a list of the 545 illustrations and an excellent index of twenty-six pages in extent.

For aid in the preparation of this wealth of material Mr. Agassiz acknowledges his indebtedness to such authorities in their special lines of research as Profs. J. D. Dana and S. I. Smith of Yale, Justin Winsor of Harvard, Sigsbee and Bartlett of the navy, John Murray of the *Challenger* expedition, Mr. Theodore Lyman and Mr. J. W. Fewkes of the Museum of Comparative Zoölogy, Prof. G. Brown Goode of the National Museum, the authorities of the United States Coast Survey, and some twenty naturalists, American and foreign, concerned with the scientific reports on the *Blake* collection. Among these is numbered the lamented Pourtalès, to whose memory the work is most appropriately dedicated. The illustrations are largely original, or drawn from previously printed special reports on the *Blake* collections, while those reproduced from other sources are, with one or two exceptions, unfamiliar to the reading public.

It is inexpedient within the limits of a review to traverse so much ground as is covered by these volumes. The names of the author and his colaborers are sufficient to attest the quality of the second volume, which treats almost exclusively of marine animal life. There are a few points in the first volume to which attention may be especially directed. These are, the conclusions of the author on the formation of coral reefs in general, and upon those of south Florida in particular; on the relations of the Gulf and Caribbean fauna to those of the Atlantic and Pacific respectively; and on the factors influencing the distribution of deep-water animals.

It was long since asserted by the elder Agassiz that the Florida reefs had a distinctive character, and could not be explained by the subsidence theory of Darwin. Of late, as most of our readers are aware, evidence has been accumulating which has fairly proved that Darwin's theory, excellent though it may be for those cases where subsidence has actually occurred, does not in many cases, perhaps even in a majority of cases, represent the real sequence of events which has resulted in the formation of barrier reefs and coral islands. Louis Agassiz, LeConte, E. B. Hunt, Alexander Agassiz, Semper, Murray, and Dr. Guppy, not to mention minor names, have, each in turn, contributed a share to the evidence and deductions which go to make up the revised theory of the present day. Leaving untouched the history of the subject, a statement of the manner in which Mr. Agassiz explains the building of south Florida will fairly indicate the nature of the new views. We may premise that, during the Eocene period, the fold of the earth's crust which forms the axis of the Floridian peninsula was gradually elevated above the sea, beginning northward and slowly extending southward, in the form of a double ridge with the same general trend as the present peninsula. The two ranges of hills forming this elevation were separated by a valley of considerable width, which, at a later time, was occupied by a series of large shallow fresh-water lakes, of which remnants still exist. The elevations still retain (in spite of the denudation which must have occurred) a maximum height of over two hundred feet, which gradually diminishes southward. Against the margins of these folds later limestones were laid down, and in their turn elevated slightly above the sea, with occasional periods of moderate depression, the most marked of which was in the quaternary period. These changes were so moderate and slow that the Floridian tertiaries show remarkably little disturbance, and indicate that eras of deposition, from the Eocene to the present time, were characterized by the same geological processes which, even now, may be observed in action.

According to Mr. Agassiz, a secondary result of this folding was the formation of an immense submarine plateau (represented by the present Florida bank) from the accumulation of the solid parts of mollusks, crustaceans, corals, worms, etc., which lived and died upon it. These furnished the limestone for the gradual completion of the peninsula. Their existence in immense numbers (as at present on the bank) was rendered possible only by the powerful current bringing incredible quantities of pelagic animals to serve as food. When the water became shallow enough for the reef corals, they sprang up along its path. There

is no evidence that the coral area of Florida and the reef owes its existence to the effect of elevation, or that the atolls of this district owe their peculiar structure to subsidence. The curve of the Florida Reef along the Gulf Stream is due, in great measure, as shown by Hunt, to the well-known westerly counter current. This, though ill-defined at Cape Florida, becomes stronger as it goes west, having at Key West a width of at least ten miles, and twice as much at the Tortugas. When storms occur, the fine silt, made up of coral and other pulverized organic matter from the reefs, is carried into the bay northwest of the Keys and deposited there, to be carried westward by the counter current and added to the flats. That this material has not been brought by the Gulf Stream from the mouth of the Mississippi is shown by the fact that no trace of Mississippi mud has ever been found in any of the innumerable soundings taken to the eastward of the Mississippi, or more than a hundred miles from its mouth.

The line of the Keys seems to be formed by the waste of the reef at present exterior to them, rather than by the remains of an older anterior reef. But it was shown by the elder Agassiz that the southern extreme of Florida is composed of concentric barrier reefs, which have been gradually cemented into a continuous sheet of land by the accumulation and consolidation of mud flats between them. This process is carried on, according to Mr. Alexander Agassiz, essentially as above described, but this area of reef-coral building does not reach northward of the Everglades. No trace of reef-building corals exists on the east coast north from Cape Florida. The long line of islands along this shore are of a totally different character, agreeing with those which now form the outer coast of New Jersey.

The discussion of the formation of atolls, such as the great Alacran Reef, we cannot follow in detail. Mr. Agassiz regards the structure of this interesting reef as a sort of epitome of the mode of formation of the great Florida Reef and of the Bahamas Bank, and says: "It seems to me that the structure of the Marquesas and of Alacran proves conclusively that not one point of difference exists between a barrier reef and an atoll" (p. 72). All the evidence tends to show that the maximum depth for reef-building corals is found at about twenty fathoms, and on the banks under discussion the shoaling which made reefs possible has been produced, not directly by the elevation of the earth's crust, but by the accumulation of organic débris upon the suitably situated elevations of the sea-bottom.

An important generalization of another sort is that made by Mr. Agassiz (p. 112), in which he points out that a relatively moderate elevation of the Floridian and Antillean plateaus in Tertiary times would have left the Caribbean Sea connected with the Atlantic by only four very narrow passages, while between the large islands which must at that time have represented Central America and northern South America, large openings led to the Pacific, so that practically the Caribbean would have formed a gulf of the Pacific. Coincidently, the Atlantic equatorial current would have been diverted northward, and followed either the course of the present Gulf Stream, or a direction across (the then non-existent) Florida, the Gulf of Mexico, and the (since elevated) Isthmus of Tehuantepec, and so into the Pacific. The conditions this hypothesis suggests fit in remarkably well with certain very puzzling facts of distribution in both recent and fossil faunas of the southern borderland of the United States.

The last matter to which we will refer as noteworthy is the very justifiable stress laid by Mr. Agassiz on the importance of the transportation of pelagic food by ocean currents, in controlling the geographical distribution of deep-water animals. This is one of the ideas which have long been, as it were, common property, but on which no one, so far as we remember, has hitherto put sufficient emphasis.

On one point we are disposed to "pick a crow," not especially with Mr. Agassiz, but with most hydrographers. It is on the preservation of the thalassologic superstitions in connection with the "hundred-fathom line," which here and in other works is regarded as the "true continental outline," the "edge of the continental plateau," etc. The hundred-fathom line was important, before the days of machine sounding, as the practical maximum limit of hand sounding, and hence of the length of the "dipsy line" carried by navigators. This and the peculiar "roundness" of the number have combined with tradition to give a hydrographic sacredness to the depth in question. In reality, as a glance at the sections figure 34, page 53, and any other sections of the continental slope, will show, there is nothing distinctive about this depth in connection with the continental margin, unless it is taken with a latitude of allowance which will divest it of any numerical significance. In general, somewhere between fifty fathoms and two hundred fathoms the seaward slope begins to be more abrupt, but not more often at the hundred-fathom mark than elsewhere, and often the slope is so even to a very great depth that no break can be distinguished in it at all. Of course, Mr. Agassiz knows this as well as anybody, but, like the practice of whistling to raise a breeze, the habit denounced by us is one of those which one absorbs unconsciously from nautical associations.

It is hardly necessary to say that the publishers have done their part well, and we have not noticed a typographical error in the course of a pretty careful perusal. The lettering of some of the Coast Survey diagrams would better have been enlarged before reduction, as, on the reduced plates, it has in some cases become difficult to make out. The specific name attached to the pelagic barnacle (fig. 182) should be *fascicularis* and not *anatifa*. The latter is a littoral species inhabiting the northern seas.

Initials and Pseudonyms. By William Cushing. Second Series. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.

A GOOD example of devotion to one subject is given by Mr. William Cushing. Twenty years ago he ceased to be an assistant in Harvard College Library, and ever since then he has given closest application to that small but useful branch of bibliography which is concerned with the unveiling of the troublesome authors who try, or pretend to try, to conceal their names from an inquisitive public. Not that Mr. Cushing imitates the modern reporter, and thrusts himself shamelessly into privacy; he is content, so far as we know, to record only what others have discovered, or what he has honorably found out. His service to the public is that he records it in a convenient form, and with an attempt not to tell too many facts which are not so. It is true, success in this has not been always at his command. The number of corrections already made in the first series of 'Initials and Pseudonyms' would run up into the hundreds. Of this one should not complain; it is almost inevitable in a work so dependent upon the accuracy and the chirography of others. But it is strange that Mr. Cushing has not printed in the second series a few pages of errata to the first. We wish, too, that he could have found room to give the authority or authorities on which he makes his revelations. There is often a doubt in regard to such attributions; one would like to know whether he is simply repeating what one has found elsewhere, or if he has some new evidence. Especially is this desirable when the author himself discloses his real name.

The work is generally well planned. But there is a lack of uniformity in the entry of initialisms, as Quérard calls them. For example, one finds M., M., and M., M. I. (in which the last initial used on the title-page is put first), followed by M. N., in which the order has not been reversed. Menella Bute Smedley used the initialism M. S. in three works. One of them is entered under M. S., and the two others under S., M. Thomas Curteis, Thomas Chamberlain, and Thomas Crowley's initialism T. C. is recorded under C.; but William Maginn's and Carlotta C. af Tibell's are under T. Similar inconsistencies are to be found under every letter of the alphabet except U, X, and Z. This is a very serious fault, for, as there is not a word of explanation, it will certainly lead searchers frequently to miss information which is in the work, but not where they will look for it. As names are transposed (*e. g.*, Dannenberg, Georg von), initialisms ought to have been.

The book calls itself "a dictionary of literary disguises," but there are also some entries that belong rather in Mr. Frey's book of 'Sobriquets and Nicknames.' On one page we find "Rafaelle of Auctioneers, The. *George Leigh.* So-called by Dr. Dibdin," and "Rail-Splitter. *Abraham Lincoln*," which certainly are not literary disguises. Per contra, in one important respect the work is much superior to ordinary books of its kind. In Weller's 'Index Pseudonymorum,' the real name is given after the false one, but without any indication, except a single date, in what works the pseudonym is used. Fifty people may use the same disguise, so that Weller's work is, as he calls it, simply an Index, which points out the path, but does not lead one to the goal, merely sets one on the track, and leaves one to investigate for one's self. But the present work in a second part gives a very brief biographical sketch of the true authors, with either a list of their works, or sufficient indications of the character of their writings to enable one to guess whether the pseudonym that one is looking up is used by the author mentioned. When the pseudonym occurs only in one work, the title is given in the first part, and there is no need to refer to part ii. In short, the book, which discloses 4,800 real names that answer to 6,500 pseudonyms and initials, is very useful—indispensable, in fact—in a library of any size.

We are sorry to learn that the subscription to Mr. Cushing's 'Anonyms' has not been taken up to a degree sufficient to warrant publication, and that it will be necessary to issue that work at a higher price to a more limited number of subscribers. It is now proposed that it shall come out in four or five parts of 200 pages each, like Sabin's 'Bibliotheca Americana,' in paper, at $5 a part. Certainly, $20 or $25 is not too much to pay for 25,000 titles of anonymous books and pamphlets, with their authors' names. But it is not to the credit of American library committees that so many of them hesitated to take the work when it was offered at the lower price. It is to be hoped that those who were wiser will find themselves able to promise their assistance on the present terms, for it would be a great pity if the work of a score of years should after all have to go into the waste-basket.

Handbook of Republican Institutions in the United States of America, based upon Federal and State laws, and other reliable sources of information. By Dugald J. Bannatyne. Scribner & Welford. [1887.] Pp. xx, 624.

THE great desideratum for the study of the politics and history of the United States is a brief, lucid, systematic account of the form of the Government. It should contain a description of the State and national governments; there should be sketches of the growth of important institutions; and the description of each part of the system should be rounded off with intelligent comment and criticism; finally, it should be written for popular use. At first sight Mr. Bannatyne seems to have filled the vacant place on the library shelf. The clear type, systematic table of contents, and neatly arranged columns suggest precision of thought. He announces his purpose to "spread before his countrymen" in Great Britain "a banquet of Republican Institutions." With all respect for the author's candor and good-will, it cannot be said that he has made the banquet alluring to any reader.

The introduction contains a rambling account of the social condition of the United States, and the confusion of the narrative may be seen from the subjects touched upon in three consecutive pages; they are: Primary elections, the wickedness of human nature, the object of laws, religious freedom, religious denominations, the number of oaths and affidavits required, population, illiteracy, prisons, the unreliability of newspapers, defalcations, bribes and crimes—ending with "*Unum e pluribus* is the American motto." The basis of Mr. Bannatyne's information in many cases seems to be newspaper comment; his own criticism is commonplace and superficial. The second part of the work is an account of the United States Government. A comparison with the Revised Statutes of 1878 shows that it has been composed by the simple process of extracting titles and paragraphs, omitting here, interjecting a later statute or appropriation there, and occasionally altering the order—all on no discernible principle. The third part, on the Government of the State of New York, is made up in the same way. Mr. Bannatyne frankly announces that he intends to adopt the "words of the statutes as much as possible." But no lawyer would use a book compiled on that principle, without quotation marks or references or an index; and no general reader is likely to care for extracts without comment and often without point.

The Story of the Goths, from the earliest times to the end of the Gothic dominion in Spain. By Henry Bradley. [The Story of the Nations.] G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1886.

MR. BRADLEY has made a useful addition to the series of which his volume forms a part. As "the first English book expressly treating of the history of the Goths," it deserves especial recognition. It is not, however, as if the materials were scanty or inaccessible. They are so complete, and so well digested in the works of Gibbon, Dahn, Hodgkin, and others, that Mr. Bradley's task has not been that of a pioneer. Of these abundant materials he has made good use, and has produced a book of great merit, written in a sober, well-sustained style, and showing the marks of careful industry and discretion. The illustrations are hardly equal to those of most of the volumes of this series; the views of Ravenna and the numerous coins are, however, all that could be wished. The map, for the year 485 (the death of Euric), is very serviceable, especially as we do not remember any map of Europe at just this date, and the territorial changes in that period were so numerous and rapid that such special maps, even if scattered through different books, are much to be desired. The text hardly does justice to the importance of Euric's reign in the history of the Gothic power.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Barres, Maurice. Sous l'œil des barbares. Paris: A. Lemerre; Boston: Schoenhof.
Battles and Leaders of the Civil War. Nos. 17 and 18. The Century Co. 50 cents.
Bigelow, J. The Complete Works of Benjamin Franklin. Vol. VIII. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $5.
Browning, R. Poetical Works. Vol. II. Paracelsus —Strafford. Macmillan & Co. $1.50.
Cawein, M. J. Blooms of the Berry. Louisville: John P. Morton & Co. $1.
Chiptree, A. A Flurry in Diamonds: A Novel. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co. 25 cents.
Cutts, Rev. E. L. Colchester. [Historic Towns.] Longmans, Green & Co. $1.25.
Drummond, H. Tropical Africa. Scribner & Welford.
Du Boisgobey, F. A Mystery Still. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co. 25 cent.
Galloway, R. The Fundamental Principles of Chemistry Practically Taught by a New Method. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.75.
Gannett—Jones. The Faith that Makes Faithful. Chicago: Charles H. Kerr & Co. 50 cents.
Goyen, P. A Higher Arithmetic and Elementary Mensuration, for the Senior Classes of Schools. Macmillan & Co. $1.30.
Howells—Perry. Library of Universal Adventure by Sea and Land. From the Year 79 A. D. to the Year 1888 A. D. Harper & Bros.
Jennings, A. C. Chronological Tables of Ancient History. Macmillan & Co. $1.25.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 14, 1888.

The Week.

THE debate on the section of the Mills bill relating to salt was so overwhelmingly strong on the side of the supporters of the bill that the subject was disposed of at a single sitting. The discussion was opened by Mr. Cox of New York in his usual epigrammatic and incisive style. He showed that the present tariff discriminates against the dairyman and in favor of the meat-packer and the fish-packer, by giving the latter a drawback on the salt used by them, while the butter-maker was not allowed the same privilege. Mr. Burrows of Michigan, remembering, perhaps, that he had himself voted in the Forty-second Congress in favor of free salt, prudently abstained, in his reply to Mr. Cox, from following the customary rôle of his side of the House, and saying the admission of salt free of duty would ruin the salt industry of the United States, and throw all the laborers out of employment, and destroy untold millions of capital. So he took the ground that it was wrong to surrender any portion of our market to foreign salt. He had stated, however, in the beginning of his speech that one-third of the salt used in the United States was foreign. In other words, the existing duty on salt, fixed by a Republican Congress, of which Mr. Burrows himself was a member, for which he had himself voted after having voted in favor of no duty at all, was wrong, because it did and does permit the importation of salt to the extent of one-third of the country's present requirements. Mr. Burrows concluded his speech by saying that Michigan could do well enough without the salt tax, because she had the Northwestern markets at her command, in which foreign salt could not compete by reason of the freight charges. But he was so much concerned for the Syracuse salt-boilers that he could not vote for the bill. Moreover, he wanted to "stimulate" the salt industry in Louisiana and Texas and all along the Southern coast.

His colleague, Mr. Whiting of Michigan, made the most effective speech in favor of free salt. He said that he was himself a salt manufacturer, and that he was not afraid of foreign competition. He confirmed all that Mr. Cox had said concerning the necessity of having foreign salt for dairy purposes, on account of its peculiar chemical properties. He confirmed Mr. Cox on the point that there was an unjust discrimination at present against dairymen, and in favor of meat and fish packers (this point having been denied by Mr. Belden of New York). Mr. Whiting said further that he was selling Michigan salt at the present time all along the Atlantic seaboard, and that he could "compete with English salt anywhere in America and make a profit." This statement threw the Republican side of the House in a terrible flutter, which Mr. Tarsney of Michigan, the immediate representative of the Saginaw district, increased by producing the *Congressional Globe* of the Forty-second Congress, and showing how Burrows himself, together with Mr. Reed of Maine, Mr. Frank Hiscock of Syracuse, N. Y., Mr. Hoar and a majority of all the Republicans in the House, had voted for Eugene Hale's free-salt bill in 1871. Mr. Cox added that the bill was put through under the inspiration of Speaker Blaine. The independence of the country was lost by a vote of 86 to 46, and salt was put on the free list.

The Republican plan of campaign for the pending contest is openly confessed to be what is known in political parlance as "working the free-trade racket." To every argument in favor of the Democratic ticket and platform, the one answer is to be a loud cry of "Free trade!" There are two difficulties in the way of carrying out this policy. The first is that it "insults the intelligence" of the people, as Mr. Depew, when running on the Democratic ticket in this State a few years ago, said of the companion dodge, which used to be known as "working the rebel-debt racket," when Mr. Blaine was exploiting it on the Republican stump. In other words, the Republican programme in 1888 is based upon the assumption that the American people are a pack of fools. The other Republican difficulty is hardly less serious. The Democrats in 1888 are only attempting to do in this matter of tariff revision exactly the same thing which the Republicans declared to be just and right a few years ago.

The manufacturers of the silly slanders about President Cleveland and his family made the great mistake which nearly all compounders of "campaign stories" are guilty of —putting it too strongly. It was bad policy to make the President's conduct in his home so very outrageous, and Mrs. Cleveland so frightfully unhappy, because this led to instant arrest and conviction, while they might, by merely hinting and winking and pretending to know more than they were willing to tell, have gone on for two or three months without being caught or brought to book. It is melancholy to see that, as four years ago, the leader in this dirty and shameful business was a minister. It was a Reverend C. H. Pendleton, a Baptist minister of Worcester, Mass., who brought back from a ministerial visit to Washington the disgusting fables about the President's "orgies" at the White House, and his brutality to his wife. Since Mrs. Cleveland's crushing letter, Mr. Pendleton says he is sorry, that he did not say all the reporter made him say, and got a promise from the reporter not to print what he did say, and offers, with a whine, to apologize and vote for Cleveland this year by way of expiation. But he cannot mend matters in this way. He would aggravate his offence by offering Mr. Cleveland his vote. The best atonement he can make is to vote for Blaine, or "Tom" Platt, or somebody of that sort.

The confessions of the Rev. Pendleton recall vividly the way in which the managers of the Blaine canvass in 1884 tried to use the ministers of various denominations as a means of propagating their filthy slanders about Mr. Cleveland in that year. They actually got up a "clerical bureau," manned by an unattached minister, whose special duty it was to spread accounts of Cleveland's immorality and Blaine's purity and piety in a quiet way through the religious circles of the whole country. In the present case they resorted to somewhat the same device. When the Baptist Conference met in Washington, the newly constructed stories about the President and his wife were quietly spread among the ministers, so that when they passed the White House they should think of the dreadful doings within and shudder, and, when they went home, should spread the news through their congregations, as things too shameful to publish, but desirable for every Christian voter to know. How far this poison would have spread, or how much mischief it would have wrought if an unscrupulous reporter had not enticed Mr. Pendleton into talkativeness, it is, of course, impossible to say. By the way, why are some ministers so much more credulous with regard to the vices of drunkenness and licentiousness, than with regard to lying, cheating, and corruption? It is the easiest thing possible to make a lodgment in their minds for a charge that an outwardly respectable man drinks too much wine and is unfaithful to his wife, but they are exceedingly loath to believe that he made his money dishonestly, that his donations to colleges and churches come out of the pockets of victims, or that he takes fees for his vote in Congress. And yet the one, as the world goes, is just as probable as the other.

"A Civil-Service Reformer" writes to the *Times*, calling attention to a significant contrast between the St. Louis Convention and that of the Republicans four years ago:

"Four years ago the Chicago gathering was the convention by the party in power. According to the official organ of the Republican party in this city, there were present at the Chicago Convention 'considerably over 100 delegates who are [were] Federal officials, and there is [was] a much larger number of officials here [there] who are [were] not delegates.' Among the 'over 250 Federal office-holders' present were the Collector of the Port of New York, the First Assistant Postmaster-General, the United States District Attorney for the Troy district, the Collector for the Port of Buffalo, the Register of the Treasury, and the Commissioner of Internal Revenue. The First Assistant Postmaster-General was the avowed leader of the forces seeking a renomination of the President. Now compare this with the St. Louis Convention, which is the Administration convention this year, and what do we see? From the most reliable newspaper accounts there are at the outside only a few Federal officials in attendance, and among them not a single one of the im-

portance of the officials mentioned above. I do not know a single Federal office-holder from this city who is there."

This is all true so far as Federal officials are concerned. In that respect the present Convention is a great advance upon any which has been held by a party in power for many years. Four years ago the Collector of the port of New York was a Republican delegate, and was one of the recognized leaders of the Blaine boom. Now the Collector of the port is attending to the duties of his office, and, so far as we have been able to learn, all his assistants, except Deputy-Collector Davis, are doing the same. We wish that the same thing could be said of State and city officials, but it cannot. There is a shamefully large number of them from this State present at St. Louis, but of course the President has no control over them. The absence of Federal officials is, however, a gain which can scarcely be overestimated. For the first time in many years, it can be truthfully said that the custom-houses of the land are taking no part in the nomination of a President. When we consider that the last Republican Collector of New York received his appointment as a reward for service rendered in a national Convention, and went to the following national Convention as a delegate and worker for the man who secured him his reward, in spite of the fact that the giving of the reward split the party in twain and brought on a quarrel which incited a lunatic to shoot the President, we begin to realize what progress civil-service reform has made.

Mr. Collins's speech as Chairman of the Convention at St. Louis was much above the level of such efforts. It was measured and dignified in tone, and free from extravagance of every description. He indulged but slenderly in the old, time-honored "arraignment" of the enemy, and made a more impressive deliverance of the Democratic gospel than the party has listened to since the old days before slavery began to bewilder the disciples. We wish we could say as much for the blast with which the redoubtable Mr. Dougherty renominated Mr. Cleveland. The noise of it was tremendous, but the sense of it only scanty. It is well that it made no difference by whom the nomination was made, or how it was made. Some Tammany man had to do the work, and Mr. Dougherty now carries the Tammany trombone, and, "Gad, sir," as we once heard a colored man remark of a player of that instrument, "how he makes that thing talk." It was Mr. Dougherty who treated the last meeting of the State Bar Association to a "paper" on the awful license of the press, about which he displayed great gloom for a man of naturally buoyant temperament. Mr. Bourke Cockran, who is the Tammany tuba, would have done the work better. His gift of speech is as good as Mr. Dougherty's and he is thought on the whole less nebulous.

The Democratic Convention of 1884 declared that "we favor honest civil-service reform." The Democratic Convention of 1888 "reaffirms the platform adopted by its representatives in the Convention of 1884," and with reference to this particular subject says: "Honest reform in the civil service has been inaugurated and maintained by President Cleveland, and he has brought the public service to the highest standard of efficiency, not only by rule and precept, but by the example of his own untiring and unselfish administration of public affairs." It will thus be seen that the party occupies precisely the same position on this subject now as four years ago. Then it grudgingly declared in favor of "honest civil-service reform"; now it reaffirms that declaration, and endorses in the same grudging way the inauguration and maintenance of "honest civil-service reform" by the President.

As the time for the Chicago Convention draws near, it becomes apparent that Mr. Sherman will lead all competitors on the first ballot. His friends claim 340 delegates to start with, 411 being a majority. It is not unlikely that he will have upwards of 300. This will constitute a very powerful attracting body, especially since Mr. Sherman has managed his boom this time in such a way as not to give any just cause of offence to any other candidate. The formidableness of his strength is attested unmistakably by the alarm which it creates among the Blaine-or-Bust faction, who have partly recovered from the dejection into which they were thrown by the last letter of their chief saying that "since he could not accept the nomination now without seeming to be guilty of indirection, he could not accept it at all." These refined casuists are now saying to each other that Mr. Blaine could still accept the nomination if it should come to him without any suspicion of indirection on his part. They have not given up the idea that the Convention may get into a tangle and a deadlock, from which nothing but the name of Blaine can extricate it. This is the reason why they are so disturbed by the growing proportions of the Sherman boom, for if any candidate can muster 300 votes on the first ballot, the chances of a permanent deadlock are very faint. What would best suit the Blaine-or-Busters would be about 100 votes each for Sherman, Gresham, Harrison, Alger, Depew, Hawley, Ingalls; and the rest scattering, but mostly for Blaine. Three hundred votes for any one other than Blaine is a bad showing for them, because the attraction of gravitation is sometimes as strong as that of magnetism.

The Republicans are in danger of overdoing the Oregon business. The average organ is disposed to treat the result in that State as settling the Presidential election. Experience has shown that preliminary State elections in Presidential years are most untrustworthy guides. Two illustrations will suffice to show this. In September, 1876, the Republicans swept Maine as they have just swept Oregon, and Mr. Blaine telegraphed Gov. Hayes an exultant message. Two months later the nation voted for President, and the Democratic candidate carried New York by 32,742 votes, New Jersey by 12,445, Indiana by 5,515, and Connecticut by 2,900. On the other hand, in September, 1880, the Republicans were badly beaten in Maine, losing the Governorship and two of the Congressional districts. The Democrats all over the land jumped to the conclusion that they were going to carry the country. But in November the Republican candidate for President carried New York by 21,033 votes, Indiana by 6,642, and Connecticut by 2,656.

The nomination of a Chief Justice was sent to the Senate on the 30th of April. It is now the 14th of June, and action upon it is still deferred. Deliberation in the case of an office of such importance is quite justifiable, and nobody can blame a Senate committee for taking ample time for investigation and consideration, especially in the case of a nominee previously unknown to the country. But it certainly seems as though a month and a half were sufficient time to enable a committee to make up their minds whether they should recommend the confirmation of a nomination. Mr. Waite was scarcely better known at the time of his nomination than Mr. Fuller, yet the Senate acted upon his case within a week. The "advice and consent of the Senate" are required to make a nomination of the President effective, but it is obvious that the framers of the Constitution expected the Senate either to give or to refuse its consent, and never contemplated the idea of its declining to take any action at all. All this is, of course, entirely aside from the question of Mr. Fuller's fitness for the Chief Justiceship. If he is not qualified for the place, his nomination ought not to be confirmed, but it ought to be rejected outright, so that the President may offer another name and the vacancy be filled before the fall term of the court opens.

It is not worth while to spend time refuting Gov. Hill's reasons for vetoing the Ballot-Reform Bill. Nobody believes for a moment that these reasons furnish the true cause for his action. He has vetoed the bill because it was in the interest of honest and fair elections, free from the taint of bribery and political machine manipulation. He pretends that under the provisions of the bill it would not be so easy as it is now for voters to exercise their individual preferences, or for candidates to get their names upon the ballots. As a matter of fact, it would be in every way easier. It is impossible now for any candidate except those of the regular machines to get his tickets distributed at the polls, unless he spends anywhere from $1,000 to $100,000, according to the importance of the office. The new law furnished safely guarded methods for him to get his name on the ballots, and even if he did not get it there, his friends who should desire to vote for him were given the privilege of writing his name in a blank space which was provided on the ballots for

that purpose. If the Governor had not been able to find the reasons which he has given, he would have been equal to the emergency of finding others upon which to base a veto. We trust that the State is nearing the end of its experience with this cheap political trickster.

The *Tribune* had an article the other day entitled "The *Bridgewater* Case," representing that an American ship of this name sailing for Liverpool and encountering a storm put into the Canadian port of Shelburne for repairs, where she discharged her cargo, and where her owner, Mr. Allen, finally concluded to sell her. The ship was sold at auction, but, the offers not being satisfactory, she was bid in for his own account. Whether the latter fact was known to the Canadian customs authorities at the time or not does not appear, but it was forthwith made known to them by Allen. They then required him to deposit the amount of the duty payable on imported ships *pro forma*, make his repairs, and receive the money as a drawback when he should depart. This he refused to do, but appealed to the Ottawa Government, and procured from the latter a release from the payment of duties and the right to repair his ship and leave the port. The owner now claims $25,000 damages for unlawful detention, and is supposed to have filed a claim for that sum with the State Department. The *Tribune* feels quite sure that Secretary Bayard will prove as pusillanimous and cringing as is his wont when he takes up the case, although there was no evidence that it had reached him at all at the time the article was written.

The case certainly presents one novel point. The right to enter a foreign port for repairs is one of the common rights of humanity recognized by the laws of all civilized nations. The right to sell a ship in a foreign port is subject to the laws of the country. It may be prohibited altogether, or it may subject the ship to the payment of duties, or it may be permitted freely. Under our laws such a sale could not be made with a view to making it an American ship unless the repairs amounted to three-fourths of her total value. It could be made, however, to anybody who wanted to sail her under a foreign flag, but she would not be allowed to engage in the coastwise trade. The point of interest in the *Bridgewater* case, if there is any such point, is whether the Canadian customs authorities, when they learned that Allen was the purchaser of his own ship at the auction sale, were justified in requiring him to deposit the amount of the duties as security that he intended to take her home or to proceed on his voyage after his repairs were made. The action of the Ottawa Government would seem to imply that they had no right to do so. But it is plain that the difficulty has not arisen from any denial of the rights of hospitality, but from the fact that a public sale was made in a Canadian port of an article which was *prima-facie* liable to duty. We think that Secretary Bayard will get through it somehow, but of course the opportunity to twist the British lion's tail ought not to be overlooked.

The Rev. James Freeman Clarke, who died on Friday in Boston, at the ripe age of seventy-eight, was one of the last of a generation of Unitarian ministers who have no successors, and whose prominence and influence in Boston society gave it for half a century a flavor of its own which is now almost extinct. He came on the scene just as Emerson was leaving the ministry, and, like all his contemporaries in the Unitarian denomination, caught enough of the Emersonian philosophy to make his theology a considerable, and in fact almost fatal, departure from what the older men, who began the secession, considered sound doctrine. He was what used to be called in those days a "scholarly man," rather than what is now called a scholar—that is, he was widely read rather than profoundly learned in any one field. His gentleness, sweetness of temper, great powers of sympathy, and endless patience in kindness would have made him a strong influence always, even if his absolute integrity of purpose had not made him in his best days a real force. He was an outspoken anti-slavery man in the darkest hour of the cause, and never ceased to take a strong and active interest in politics, and always on the moral side, with an indifference to political consequences which the constituents who sent him to conventions not only pardoned, but admired. He wrote a great deal on matters pertaining to religion, but all his books were rather edifying than critical, for he, as we have said, came before the days of insatiable research and collation. But he was before all things a good man, who was the guide, philosopher, and untiring friend of two generations, and his activity in well doing lasted so long that he will be mourned as few men are mourned who had so nearly reached four-score years.

The *Tribune* had two columns on Sunday giving a sad account of the condition of the working classes in Holland. It summed it all up in this way editorially:

> "The letter printed this morning describing how the average workingman of Holland lives, deserves to be studied and pondered by students of our industrial conditions and labor problems. The average wages of the Dutch laborer are $3 a week (he works twelve hours a day), and for 'skilled labor of a very high class' not more than $4.50 to $5 is paid—scarcely more than carpenters and bricklayers receive here for a day's work. Not one day-laborer in Amsterdam owns his own home, and the idea that skilled workmen in this country may earn enough to buy houses for their families is incredible to artisans of the same class in Holland. Holland enjoys the blessings of free trade. Do American workingmen hanker after blessings of this sort?"

Now, Mr. Chauncey Depew described the state of things in Holland in 1884 as follows in the *Tribune* of February 26 of this year, and the *Tribune* heartily endorsed him the same day: "Four years ago, when I went abroad, I went to Holland. When I was over there, I found that there *was more content and happiness in Holland than in any country in Europe. There was absolutely no pauperism.*" At that time Holland had been for full fifty years in the enjoyment of almost absolute free trade, such free trade as has never been witnessed in any other country, and as does not exist even in England to-day. It is true that Holland is still in the enjoyment of the same free trade; but if free trade worked so well down to 1884, how are we to account for the ruin it has wrought, according to the *Tribune*, within, say, the last two years? We know of only one way of accounting for it, but to this we are far too polite to resort. We must leave it to the imagination of our readers.

The warning which the London *Economist* recently gave against accepting the official statistics of the commerce of the Argentine Republic as entirely accurate is strikingly confirmed by Dr. Latzina, the Chief of the Argentine Bureau of Statistics. The *Economist* surmised that the great increase in the foreign commerce of the republic, as reported for 1887, was partly due to exaggerated estimates of the value of both imports and exports, in consequence of a depreciated currency and business inflation. But Dr. Latzina goes much further, in his returns for 1886, and admits that the values assigned to the articles of Argentine foreign trade are to a considerable extent "fictitious." He arrives at this conclusion partly from a review of the official figures for the past twenty-six years, according to which the balance of trade against the republic would be no less than 210 millions. As he sensibly remarks, this is incredible on its face. He shows, too, that the surprising falling off in the exports of 1886 as compared with the preceding year was attributable in large part to arbitrary changes in valuation, not to really smaller quantities of exports. An error on the other side may very well account, then, for the large reported increase of 1887. All this is a fresh reminder of the distance we have yet to travel before arriving at a science of universal statistics. It may be that the South American States are not sinners above all the rest of the world in putting forth untrustworthy statistics, but at any rate there are many particularly provoking things in their practice. They sin in good company in adopting awkwardly varying fiscal years; but in their confused system of public accounts, the books often being two or three years behindhand, in their frequent resort to estimates in the absence of exact returns, and in their arbitrary ways of valuation of imports and exports, they have an easy preëminence. Hence it comes about that the contradictions between their official reports and those of England or the United States in the points where the two cover the same ground, or ought to, are so blank and inexplicable. It is to be said, however, that they are conscious of their shortcomings, that they acknowledge them, and are making commendable efforts at reform. We have had especial occasion to notice the great improvement of recent official publications of Mexico in this regard; and if the earnest endeavors of Dr. Latzina are not entirely unsuccessful, he will speedily bring the Argentine statistics into far better shape than they ever have been.

THE ST. LOUIS CONVENTION.

THE renomination of President Cleveland by the National Convention of his party has been so much expected, and so little doubtful at any time, that criticism and comment are for the most part superfluous. It is usually the case, when there is no contest over the first place on the ticket, that the competition for the second place excites great interest; but the preëminent merits of Mr. Thurman as a statesman and a citizen have far overshadowed all others that here also the interest of the public, who always like a close race, measurably abated. In fact, the great struggle at St. Louis has been over the platform, and over a single one of its component parts. This struggle began when the President's message was delivered, and it has culminated in an endorsement of the principles of the message. The result could hardly have been otherwise, because if Mr. Cleveland were to be renominated, he must be taken as he is. To have taken him in any other way would have made the Democratic party the laughing-stock for gods and men. The party would in such case have been beaten without the honor of a fight.

The platform endorses the principles of the President's message and the efforts of the Democratic representatives in Congress to secure an adequate reduction of taxation and to reduce the surplus in the Treasury. This is a brave and manly stand. It is in no sense a "straddle" or a deception. The message has been before the people long enough for everybody to understand it. It describes a situation of the national finances which everybody acknowledges to be full of peril. It calls for a reduction of tariff taxation in the interest of the great mass of the people, in order that they may obtain the necessaries of life and the materials of industry at lower rates, and at the same time avoid the impending evil of a lock-up of the people's money in the Treasury. Nothing could be plainer or less liable to misconception. By endorsing the message, therefore, the Democratic party has at all events challenged the respect of enemies as well as friends, and, whatever the outcome may be, it has created a live issue, and one which will not cease to dominate American politics until it is settled on principles fair and just to all. Never since the days of feudal tyranny and monopoly has there been a system so cunningly devised to widen the gap between different classes of society, and to fertilize the rich man's domain with the sweat of the poor man's brow, as the present tariff of the United States—a system denounced as unjust by scores of the most eminent Republican statesmen now living, who will now neither do anything to right its admitted wrongs, nor allow anybody else to do so if they can prevent it.

The Democrats have taken their stand, not without some contest, but yet manfully and openly. What will the Republicans do when their turn comes? We need not anticipate what particular form of words they will employ in their platform. It is not what they may say at Chicago, but what they will do in Washington, that will be decisive. The Treasury surplus is a fact of gigantic proportions. It cannot even be got rid of by a plank in a platform. It cannot be got rid of by new pension bills, and river and harbor jobs, and such like profligacy. It is too great, too near at hand. Pension bills and public works take time to get in operation. The surplus is a present fact, growing from day to day. The purchases of bonds have almost ceased because the offerings are few and the prices exorbitant. The public have seen how the bondholders have advanced their prices from day to day. They have a monopoly of the thing that the Government wants, and they take advantage of it as a matter of course. They are not to blame. Everybody would do the same thing. It is a commercial question, and must be governed by commercial rules.

What solution of this problem will the Republicans offer in place of the Tariff-Reduction Bill? The Democrats are now bound to pass their bill in some form. They are bound to pass some bill which shall bring down the public receipts to the measure of the public needs. There is no retreat from this position. They must go forward and pass their bill, however long the time required. Then the Republicans must take the position they are willing to abide by and make their campaign upon. The project of repealing the tax on liquors has been abandoned. What next? A few weeks ago the favorite plan was to repeal the sugar duties and give a bounty out of the Treasury to the planters. But the bounty plan seems to have been losing ground of late. Bounties are "catching." There are so many low-spirited industries to which a bounty would prove attractive—wheat-growing, for example—that the longer heads in the party hesitate to adopt that policy in reference to sugar. The alternative is to cast the sugar planters adrift, and make free sugar the Republican tariff policy of the campaign. When this is done, the issue will be somewhat simplified. The question will be asked why wages in the sugar industry should be cut down to the West India standard or the slave-labor standard, and why one American industry should be selected as a sacrifice for the benefit of all others. Oregon has given her verdict against tariff reform undoubtedly, but the end is not yet. We are only at the beginning.

ALLEN G. THURMAN.

THE nomination of Allen G. Thurman for Vice-President illustrates anew the weakness of our electoral system, so far as it affects that office. Theoretically, the man who is elected to the second place ought to be qualified in every respect for the first, since experience has shown that there is one chance in six of his being called upon to fill the higher position. Mr. Thurman would not for a moment be considered, under any circumstances, a candidate for President, because everybody would say that a man in his seventy-fifth year is too old for the Presidency. Yet a convention nominates a man who is in his seventy-fifth year, to an office whose holder is liable at any time during his term to become President. It nominates him in accordance with the traditional custom of selecting the candidate for Vice-President on the ground of his "availability" as a help to the Presidential nominee during the canvass.

That Mr. Thurman is a strong nominee for campaign purposes will be generally admitted. His name will warm the hearts of a good many old Democrats who have never had much sympathy with the new generation which Mr. Cleveland represents. His very age is in itself a help to his candidacy in one aspect, since it appeals to the pride which all well-regulated party men feel in an "old Roman." Moreover, it will be extremely embarrassing for the Republicans to make an issue of Mr. Thurman's age. If they say that a man who was born in November, 1813, is too old to be Vice-President, it follows necessarily that a man who was born in March, 1813, is too old to be a member of the Supreme Court, and Judge Bradley should at once resign his seat on the bench and allow Mr. Cleveland to appoint a Democratic successor. Practically, the age issue will not count for much. The voter who thinks that Mr. Cleveland is a better man for President than the Republican candidate, will not be deterred from voting for him because he thinks that a younger man ought to have been nominated for Vice-President.

Except in the matter of age, Mr. Thurman is the best man whom the Democracy could present for the Vice-Presidency. His public career has been a long and an honorable one, the only spot upon which was made by his yielding, with so many other good men of both parties, to the soft-money craze which swept over the West fifteen years ago. He was elected to the lower branch of Congress in 1844, was judge of the Ohio Supreme Court from 1851 to 1854, and its Chief Justice for the next two years, and United States Senator from 1869 to 1881. The historian whose judgments every good Republican unhesitatingly accepts has bestowed upon him the highest praise. In his 'Twenty Years of Congress,' Mr. Blaine says of Mr. Thurman that "his rank in the Senate was established from the day he took his seat, and was never lowered during the period of his service. His retirement from the Senate was a serious loss to his party—a loss, indeed, to the body. He left behind him the respect of all with whom he had been associated during his twelve years of honorable service."

If Mr. Thurman is sent back to the capital, he will return with the unique satisfaction of finding the sound doctrines of the Constitution, for which he made a gallant but hopeless fight against a Republican majority in the Senate, established for all time by the decisions of a Republican Supreme Court overthrowing the acts which he vainly protested were unconstitutional. Since his retirement in 1881, the highest judicial tribunal has rendered a series of decisions which fully sustain Mr. Thurman's position on the great issue of State rights, and which indeed sometimes read almost like extracts from his own speeches. When he entered the Senate in 1869 there were but nine other Democrats in the body, the House was Re-

publican more than two to one, and the school represented by Oliver P. Morton in the Senate and Benjamin F. Butler in the House were carrying through laws based upon the theory that the new amendments to the Constitution had worked a revolution in the relations of the States to the Federal Government.

The history of the Civil-Rights Act shows how Mr. Thurman was beaten by numbers in Congress, but saw his position ultimately adopted by the Supreme Court. This act was based upon the theory that Congress possessed the right to interfere in the States, and punish persons who denied blacks equal rights with whites in hotels, conveyances, etc. The claim was made that Congress had been given this right by the Fourteenth Amendment. Mr. Thurman earnestly contested the claim. He pointed out that the amendment only gave Congress the right to interfere when a "*State* shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States," whereas it was not pretended that any *State* had made or enforced any such law. It is interesting to see how closely the reasoning upon this point of the Republican Supreme Court in the decision of 1883, declaring the act unconstitutional, agreed with that of Mr. Thurman in his arguments of 1874:

MR. THURMAN.	THE SUPREME COURT.
"No State shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States," says the Fourteenth Amendment. Does this bill deal with any such law of a State? No, sir; it does not profess to do so. It is not aimed at any law of a State. It is aimed against the acts of individuals. There is not one single sentence in the whole bill which is levelled against any law made or enforced by a State. . . . Why, sir, if it is constitutional reasoning that supports this bill, then I confess that all my studies of the Constitution have been wholly in vain.	An inspection of the law shows that it makes no reference whatever to any supposed or apprehended violation of the Fourteenth Amendment on the part of the States. It is not predicated on any such view. It proceeds *ex directo* to declare that certain acts committed by individuals shall be deemed offences, and shall be prosecuted, and punished by proceedings in the courts of the United States. . . . We are of opinion that no countenance of authority for the passage of the law in question can be found either in the Thirteenth or Fourteenth Amendment of the Constitution, and, no other ground of authority for its passage being suggested, it must necessarily be declared void.

It has seldom been allowed a man to enjoy such a triumph as Mr. Thurman must feel in the decisions of a Supreme Court controlled by his political opponents, asserting his views of the Constitution, and annulling act after act which he had fought on the ground that they were unconstitutional. The fact shows most strikingly how complete is the settlement of the State-rights issue. No Republican dares dissent from the position laid down by a Republican Supreme Court, while every Democrat applauds the assertion by that tribunal of the doctrines which Mr. Thurman so ably maintained.

THE ISSUES OF THE CANVASS.

THE tariff plank in the Democratic platform of 1884, which the Convention at St. Louis has endorsed as interpreted by President Cleveland's message, was as follows, and we place beside it the corresponding plank in the Republican platform of the same year:

DEMOCRATIC.	REPUBLICAN.
That change is necessary is proved by an existing surplus of more than $100,000,000, which has yearly been collected from a suffering people. Unnecessary taxation is unjust taxation. . . . The Democratic party is pledged to revise the tariff in a spirit of fairness to all interests.	The Democratic party has failed completely to relieve the people of the burden of unnecessary taxation by a wise reduction of the surplus. The Republican party pledges itself to correct the inequalities of the tariff and to reduce the surplus.

Mr. Blaine's comment on the Republican plank in his letter of acceptance was: "Revenue laws are in their very nature subject to frequent revision, in order that they may be adapted to changes and modifications of trade. The Republican party is not contending for the permanency of any particular statute." It thus appears that up to this time both parties have adhered to the general principle that the tariff levied a certain amount of unnecessary taxation, and ought to be reduced; that it contained numerous inequalities, and ought to be revised. The Democrats, having a majority in the lower house, have proceeded to embody this principle in legislation, and the result is the Mills bill. The Republicans ought to have met this either by a series of amendments to the Mills bill or by a bill of their own. They have done neither. They have refused to adhere to their platform of 1884 at all. What they now say, and are very likely to embody in their platform at Chicago, is that there is no "unnecessary taxation"; that the surplus can be disposed of by being spent; that the tariff does not need revision, and that any proposal to reduce it or remove its inequalities is a proposal to establish "free trade." They traverse Mr. Blaine's assertion that revenue laws should be frequently altered, "in order that they may be adapted to changes and modifications of trade," by maintaining that the particular revenue laws under which we now live do not need to be altered at all. The *Tribune* on Friday last, in fact, treated the Democratic platform and the President's message as "a direct issue between Free Trade and Protection."

There is accordingly hardly a doubt that the cry of "free trade" will play the same part on the Republican stump this summer which the "rebel debt" played between 1872 and 1880. That is to say, their orators will allege that the Democrats propose to establish "British free trade," just as in 1872, 1876, and 1880 they maintained that the Democrats, if they got into power, would pay the rebel debt, compensate the slaveholders for the loss of their slaves, pay the claims of Southerners for damages suffered by the operations of the army during the war, and probably repudiate the national debt in whole or in part. The total loss and liability which these things would impose on the North was set forth in figures in the New York *Tribune*, and naturally made a deep impression on a large number of voters. Of course all allusion to these bogies has now ceased, and one of the Republican organs, the Philadelphia *Press*, recently, with amusing brass, made fun of them. But during the years above mentioned they were real weapons of political warfare, and were relied on for victories at the polls just as firmly as the cry of "free trade" is now likely to be.

What is the reason of this change of attitude on the part of the Republicans towards the tariff? Why do they now oppose all revision and denounce as a "free-trader" any one who proposes to correct its "inequalities"? The reason is to be found in the way in which the tariff is constructed. It must be remembered that it is not a scientific tariff properly so called—that is, a tariff drawn up by a body of experts for the purpose of affording protection to such selected industries as were considered most necessary to the national welfare or safety, and, therefore, most deserving of State encouragement—such a tariff, in short, as Colbert made for France, or as the Parliament of landholders made for England. It is a tariff constructed for the purpose of giving some protection to everybody who asked for it. There never has been any plan about it, or any pretence of one; consequently, nobody who profits by it is able to say that his claims are in any way peculiar or eminent, or that there are reasons for protecting him which do not exist for protecting other people. Each beneficiary feels that he has no guarantee for his own protection but the general support and cohesion of all the other beneficiaries, and that, therefore, any argument or influence which diminishes or destroys the protection given to one must sensibly endanger the protection given to all others. The protected interests feel like a square formed to resist cavalry: if one man gives way, the enemy may get in through the gap and break up the formation. Or they may liken it to a brick arch from which you cannot take a single brick without weakening the whole structure.

This explains the cry of "free trade" which is and will be raised against tariff reformers. It means the fear that if any changes or modifications are made in the existing tariff, and it should prove in the course of a year or two that they had not had the injurious effects on trade and industry which were predicted for them, the work of revision might be carried further, and that there would be no telling where it would end.

Now, can the cry of "free trade," under these circumstances, be made to do service during a whole summer's canvass? We think not, because it will not bear examination in the light of notorious facts. It was successful in 1880, because it was not raised until the middle of September, after Maine had been lost under the "bloody shirt" cry. A change of tactics was then suddenly resolved on, and it produced a panic—precipitated by the extraordinary weakness of the Democratic candidate on all fiscal questions—which it was impossible to dissipate in the month which remained.

Moreover, in 1880, the question of the surplus had not come up. To-day the surplus forms the most portentous fact of the situation. No one can go on the stump and denounce

tariff revision and reduction of taxation without in some manner meeting the question what is to be done with the surplus—a question which in 1880 did not trouble Dorsey, or Jay Hubbell, or any of their confrères. The only mode of disposing of it which Republican organs now suggest, is to spend it in various forms of national extravagance. This plan may now and then be thrown out as a suggestion without causing much embarrassment. But does any one seriously believe that the orators and journals of a great party can argue in defence of such a plan and set out its details to audiences all over the country through a long summer? If any one does seriously believe this, he must also seriously believe that a change has come over the attitude of the American people on the subject of governmental expenditure, so complete as to make the permanence of popular institutions among us very doubtful.

SUPPORTING CLEVELAND.

A VERMONT clergyman writes to us:

"I enclose $3 to renew my subscription once more for the *Nation*. It is as nearly indispensable to me, for more reasons than one, as a paper can be, and yet, if the *Nation* supports Cleveland after his behavior as to civil-service reform, a good many of us will be convinced that its real concern is not for that reform at all, but for the tariff. Vermont is a small State, but his hypocrisy in the matter of civil-service reform has been shown nowhere more evidently than here, and in view of the case elsewhere that is saying much. I never had any interest in a public office; never was a protectionist; shall never vote for either Blaine or Cleveland; but I have a citizen's care about saving the frame of Government itself before settling the tariff."

Our readers will bear us witness that we have not sought and do not seek to minimize the shortcomings of the Administration in the matter of civil-service reform. We acknowledge, too, at the outset, that a reformer has more reason to complain in Vermont than in most other States, the offices there having been handed over to a very objectionable editorial "Boss," who has played ducks and drakes with them among a more than usually disreputable lot of Democratic politicians—for Vermont, being a small State, does not produce Democrats in any great variety. There are but few of them who do her any credit.

We admit all this, and a great deal more. But what then? In politics, as well as in religion, one's duty does not end with prayer, or praise, or confession, or profession. After all the talk, all the criticism, all the denunciation, the necessity for action still remains. Everything we say or anybody says about politics is, in short, intended not so much to edify men about the art of government or the nature of the state, as to influence their votes at the election. Journalists do not address their readers as students of political philosophy, but as men who have it in their power once in two years to say who shall legislate for the United States, and once in four years to say who shall be their Executive. And the question which is submitted to every sensible man to-day, is not how to express through his vote views on government or morals, because voting is a very imperfect way of doing this, but how to provide the United States with the best government possible under existing circumstances. We went over this ground a good deal in 1884. The situation has not since then greatly changed, and it is not likely to change. We advise no one to vote for Cleveland who thinks he can do better—and by doing better we do not mean casting a vote for somebody as a token of admiration or esteem, but contributing to the election of somebody who, all things considered, will make a better President than Cleveland. If our correspondent knows of any such candidate, and really believes that in voting for him he would be performing an act of government, and not simply expressing an emotion, then, by all means, he should support him.

Our own reason for thinking that he knows no such person, and is not likely to know him, can be stated in very brief compass. In the first place, although we admit that Mr. Cleveland has in the matter of civil-service reform fallen far short of his promises, he has as a matter of fact done far more for it than any of his predecessors. If he had made no promises, in fact, we should all be disposed to look on him without question or qualification to-day as the champion who was likely to give the spoils system its deathblow. No man, for instance, who has filled the Presidential chair since Jackson's day would have listened for one moment to the suggestion that the New York Post-office should be taken out of politics, or would have kept the Custom-house in its present comparatively neutral condition, or postponed the removal of the great bulk of officers to the end of their term, or extended in any degree the application of the rules, or have so steadily used his veto to oppose Congressional jobbery and extravagance. Not one, too, has kept the White House and its purlieus so free from the small scandals which worked so much disgrace in the days of Grant, Hayes, Garfield, and Arthur.

In fact, while deploring as deeply as any one the President's departures from the standards set up by himself, our sincere belief is that the wideness of these departures has been hidden from him, by the extent to which his time and strength are devoted in Washington to resisting attempts to wring from him concessions of a far worse character than anything the reformers have had to reproach him with. These attempts are incessant. They begin at sunrise, and they end only at midnight. They are infinite in variety, and of every degree of baseness, and are frequently made by men whose hypocrisy and persistence in humbug the public never suspects, and his disgust for whom the President, in deference to the public, has to conceal. And it is not unnatural that a man who has to pass through this ordeal daily, and keep his own secret, should prove more or less unmindful of the unfortunate effect on the public mind of the abuses which he does not attempt to stay, and by the antics of the rogues whom, in weariness, or hopelessness, or delusion, he allows to run.

Anyhow, no matter what we may think of President Cleveland, we have to choose this summer between him and somebody else. At this writing we do not know who that somebody will be. Our belief is, that in the present condition of the Republican party he is certain to be either somebody whom the party can by no possibility elect, or somebody whom it will try to elect simply as a substitute for Blaine, and who will be pledged, if elected, to give Blaine the place and power in the Administration which he lost through Garfield's death. We advise any anxious civil-service reformer, therefore, to consider carefully, before deciding not to vote for Cleveland, the kind of men who now lead the Republican party and manage its conventions; to consider their attitude towards the spoils system, and the nature of their criticisms on President Cleveland's shortcomings, and then to study their practice when last in power under Garfield. Any one who will give himself the trouble to examine the records of the uses which Garfield and Blaine made of public office between March 4 and July 2, 1881, will, we are sure, rise up almost, if not quite, cured of any nausea which President Cleveland's inconsistencies may have caused him, especially when he remembers that the party in power was not changed in that year.

In short, to sum up, if we saw the smallest chance of Cleveland's being opposed by any one who would carry out, or come anywhere near carrying out, the pledges Cleveland made in 1884, we should not be prevented by any concern for the tariff from supporting him, because we know well that tariff reform is not within the President's reach, while civil-service reform is. But we see no prospect of anything of the kind. In the present condition of the Republican party we see no possibility of it. If the Convention nominates a fit man at Chicago, it will be with the intention of "knifing" him; if it nominates a bad one, it will be with the view of using his clothes to disguise the well-known features of James G. Blaine.

SENATOR FRYE ON THE FISHERY TREATY.

A TIMELY warning was given to the Fishery Union and to Senator Frye by the vote in the House on Thursday to put fish on the free list and to establish general reciprocity with Canada. This vote was taken on an amendment offered by Mr. Breckinridge of Kentucky to an amendment offered by Mr. Dingley of Maine. Mr. Dingley's amendment was offered to the lumber section of the Tariff Bill. It excepted from the provisions of the bill the lumber of any country which denies to our fishing vessels the same rights that we accord to their fishing vessels—a very captivating suggestion, but hardly germane to the duty on lumber. Mr. Breckinridge offered his amendment as stated, but said that if it were adopted by the House, he should still vote against the amendment as amended. The House adopted Mr. Breckinridge's amendment, and then rejected the whole.

We say that this was a timely warning to the Fishery Union, and to all stirrers-up of strife between this country and Great Britain. And here we refer particularly to the speech of Senator Frye on the treaty, which has been

heralded as an unanswerable vindication of our rights, and which we find to be a boisterous arraignment not merely of the present treaty and the negotiators thereof, but of all former fishery treaties and the negotiators thereof, and especially those of 1818, 1854, and 1871. They are all in the same boat, according to Mr. Frye—all of them surrendered our rights, all of them were unpatriotic and cowardly. Not one treaty ought to have been signed. All of them truckled to Great Britain, and the two last mentioned, those of 1854 and 1871, betrayed our own people by admitting Canadian fish free of duty. When Senator Morgan reminded him that our fishermen were still more betrayed by the Republican party, which had passed a bill in 1870, that is still in force, admitting fresh fish free of duty—this being independent of any treaty—Mr. Frye replied that that act ought to be changed, although he contended that at the time it was passed the art of freezing fish and keeping them fresh so that they could be shipped to distant parts of the country had not been invented—as though that could make any difference with the principle involved. We remark in passing that frozen fish from Canada were plentiful in markets as far distant as St. Louis in the very year that a Republican Congress voted to admit such fish free of duty. The invention of refrigerator cars is perhaps of later date, but the invention of wooden boxes packed with ice and sawdust, for carrying fresh fish, is considerably older. But we suppose that Mr. Frye would not contend that it is right to give the States on the Canadian border privileges in the matter of fresh fish which are denied to other parts of the country.

A tirade directed against all the fishery treaties that we have ever had, whether negotiated by Democrats or by Republicans, has the merit of impartiality at any rate. Concerning the Treaty of 1818 Mr. Frye says: "We deliberately surrendered our fishery rights, and a blow was dealt at that industry from which it has never recovered." Let us "stick a pin" there. If the Treaty of 1818 was a surrender of our rights, the abrogation of the Treaty of 1871, on our motion, caused that Treaty of 1818 to revive, did it not? We have not yet abrogated it, although there has been some talk of giving notice to that effect. Great Britain does not hold the doctrine that treaties are perpetually binding upon the signatories. But until notice of abrogation is given, the Treaty of 1818 certainly is binding. Now we are living under a treaty which, according to Senator Frye, is a deliberate surrender of our fishery rights. What should we do, then, but try to get better terms? It is not much to the purpose to scold Richard Rush and Albert Gallatin and President Monroe, and the Senate that ratified the Treaty of 1818. If they made a bad bargain for us, it would seem to be the dictate of reason to try and get a better one. Certainly, the treaty which Mr. Frye wants to reject is a better one in some particulars. It cannot be worse, according to his description of it, although, as he has Secretary Bayard within reach of his stick, while Rush and Gallatin are not so handy for the purpose, he makes it appear that there is much less excuse for the former than for the two latter.

The recklessness of some of Mr. Frye's statements is quite inexplicable. He said, for example, that the negotiators of the present treaty never consulted with anybody who was familiar with the fishery question. Being asked by Senator Payne whether Mr. Putnam, one of the negotiators, was not acquainted with the fishery question, he pronounced a high eulogium upon that gentleman, and said that he (Frye) had once recommended him to a Republican President for Circuit Judge of the United States, and that Senator Hoar had joined in the recommendation, but he added: "I do not admit that Mr. Putnam was a man who knew more about the New England fisheries than any other man; and in the presence of the treaty he agreed to, I deny it emphatically." Then Mr. Payne inquired whether Mr. Putnam had not been the counsel in the *David J. Adams* case. Yes, replied Mr. Frye, but that was only a case concerning the right to buy bait. Mr. Putnam might be a good bait lawyer without knowing much about the headland doctrine. In short, Mr. Frye's sweeping insinuation that our negotiators knew nothing about the fishery question crumbled at a touch.

We do not find in Senator Frye's speech the broad doctrine that is laid down in the Senate Committee's report, that the fishery question is not a proper subject for treaty negotiation at all; but his argument runs that way, for if all our treaties have been disgraceful and ruinous, whether made by Republicans or by Democrats, and if even our own legislation on the subject of fish duties has been bad, although we have only found it out within a short time, the case is truly desperate. We had best abrogate all our treaties and repeal all our laws relating to fish, enter at once upon the state of nature, and see what that will do for us.

THE FRENCH CRISIS.

PARIS, June 1, 1888.

THE political aspect of Europe has not been for many years as dark as it is now; and the uncertainty of the future is greater than I have ever known it to be. This uncertainty is owing to several causes, but the most important of all is probably the sudden and, it may be said, unexpected development of a crisis in France which is as mysterious in its causes as it is in its character. I will not speak of the man who has personified this crisis, and who has declared open war on the present republican Constitution. His importance is derived, not from his character nor his services, but from his negative programme, and from the fact that he has become the head of all the malcontents. He is a cry rather than the head of a party, and in his followers are found members of the Commune and members of the Conservative parties. The old Duc de Broglie, father of the present Duke, who was very hostile to Prince Napoleon, afterwards the Emperor Napoleon, used to say that the Prince's programme, at the time when he threatened to make the *Coup d'État*, was a very simple one: "He says to the scamps: 'I am with you,' and to the honest people, 'I protect you against the scamps.'" He was justified by the fact that the *Coup d'État* of December 2 satisfied at the same time those who belonged to what was then called the party of order, and the Socialists who had erected barricades in June, 1849, and rebelled against the Chamber.

The coalition between the extreme Conservatives and the extreme Radicals is not a new fact in history: demagogy and dictatorship are not irreconcilable terms. Many of the Terrorists of 1793 became the most servile and violent Senators of Napoleon III. M. Thiers said at the time when he was preparing to reconcile the Assembly of Versailles to Republican institutions: "The Republic will be Conservative or it will not exist." He brought over to his side many of the partisans of a constitutional monarchy. He acted on principles which are so clearly laid down in the 'France nouvelle' of Prévost-Paradol, a book which he had himself inspired before the end of the Empire. It seemed to many minds that there was no real difference between a Conservative republic and a Liberal monarchy—that all the organs of Government could be the same in the one and the other. The only difference was in the nature of the Executive power, or in its origin. The President-elect and the hereditary king were both the first magistrates of the country. This theory made many converts. The Assembly, however, had a preference for a monarchy, and replaced M. Thiers with Marshal MacMahon; but, the Comte de Chambord having shown no disposition for the rôle of a liberal king, the theory of M. Thiers triumphed, though he was no longer in power: a monarchical Assembly voted a republican constitution.

The "loyal essay" of the Republic, to use one more of M. Thiers's expressions, has now lasted for many years; and what has been its result? I will not enter into any criticism of the various administrations which have followed each other in rapid succession; I will only state bare facts. The power has been transferred from the Conservatives who accepted the Republic to the hands of more and more advanced Republicans; there has never been a movement of reaction, the movement has always been in the same direction. We have gone, so to speak, through different political strata, and never returned to the strata which were abandoned, till now we have arrived at a region which may be called the political substratum. The members of the old "Left Centre," the followers of M. Thiers, are as bitter in their denunciations of the men in power as the Conservatives.

If there were only two well-organized political parties, with their traditions, their defined programmes, the remedy would be obvious: France would do what England or little Belgium does—the balance of power would change its direction. But the case is different in France, and the very form of government is threatened, not only by the Monarchical and Bonapartist parties, but by the new Republican aspirants, who threaten to tear the Constitution in pieces, to suppress the Senate, and perhaps even the Presidency. The Constitution, once only attacked by the Monarchical party, is now attacked, and more vigorously, by thousands who still call themselves Republicans; and there lies, in my opinion, the greatest danger of the situation, viz., in the contempt shown in the Republican ranks for the Constitution, for the political law of the country.

The cry of "Dissolution—revision" means really the total destruction of the present state of things, and this is why the same cry is uttered by all who wish for a change, and their number is increasing every day, in virtue of a certain law of attraction and of imitation which is manifest in all communities. It

would be imprudent to prophesy any change in a particular direction; it would be equally imprudent to confide too strongly in the continuance of the present situation and in the perpetuity of the existing system. The nations of Europe are looking on France with feelings of distrust, and the pacific protestations of the successive administrations do not tend much to diminish this distrust, as these administrations are too short-lived and insecure. It may be said, also, that the Republicans act in power as if they did not feel in power and were still in opposition; they cannot conquer their old habits, their old instincts. What must be thought, for instance, of the resurrection of a "Société des droits de l'homme et du citoyen," which was formed a few days ago, with much ceremony, under the auspices of M. Ranc, an Opportunist, M. Clémenceau, the leader of the Radicals in the Chamber, and a certain M. Joffrin, who is a leader in the Municipal Council of Paris? Is not the Republic a sufficient guarantee of the rights of man? This society reminds people too much of the club of the Jacobins which governed the Convention; it is as foolish a resurrection as the new Bastille which has been rebuilt on occasion of the centenary of 1789, and where you can, for twenty sous, see every day a representation of the escape of a prisoner. The new "Society of the Rights of Man" is not more serious than the new Bastille —these theatrical manifestations are almost childish. The Republicans have in their hands all the organs of government; they have the Executive, they have the majority in both chambers; why should they seem to distrust themselves? The new "Society of the Rights of Man" is nominally destined to prepare the means of resistance against any reaction and any dictatorship; it is intended to work against what is called "Boulangism." But it is a "telum imbelle sine ictu," and will do more good than harm to Boulangism, as the great majority of the nation abhors the memories of 1793: Jacobinism is not the modern name of Republicanism.

The situation in France is one element of uncertainty in Europe; the health of the Emperor of Germany is another. Divisions, rivalries, difficulties of all sorts are hidden for a moment, but they have not disappeared. When you enter a sick-room, you try to make as little noise as possible. The governments of Europe have obeyed the same sentiment. Since the accession of the new Emperor, the violent attacks of the Russian Panslavic press on Germany have ceased as if by enchantment; the Eastern question lies dormant; Prince Ferdinand is still in Bulgaria, and the threatened occupation of that country by a Russian and a Turkish army has not yet taken place. It seems as if, by common consent, the solution of all dangerous questions was to be postponed; but the present calm is only apparent—many things that are not said aloud may be said in whispers, and from time to time an incident reveals the dangerous character of the situation.

In her recent journey through Europe Queen Victoria saw the Emperor of Austria and Prince Bismarck, and it is impossible not to be struck with the fact that since her return the question of the defences of England and of the increase of her navy has assumed unexpected proportions. It had seemed hitherto that England felt quite safe, and intended to look on the wars and revolutions in Europe like the wise man of Lucretius who regards the tempest from a high rock. The discussion between Lord Wolseley and Lord Salisbury has been the beginning of a more active policy. It is difficult to imagine a greater change than is manifested in the tone of the press in England at the present time as compared with their language a year ago. Italy is also alarmed about her coasts and her cities; and the Italian Chamber speaks of fortifying Leghorn, Naples, and Palermo. In Hungary we have had the incident of the speech of M. Tisza, which has created great emotion all through Europe. The Hungarian Minister has shown a great want of confidence in the men, whoever they may be, who will have charge of Paris during the exhibition of 1889, and who will have to protect the exhibitors, their goods, and their flags. Count Andrássy has tried to reduce this incident to a minimum, and the French Government has naturally accepted his friendly declarations; but such speeches as M. Tisza's are nevertheless like straws which show which way the wind blows.

The most important incident, however, of recent date has been the systematic isolation of Alsace-Lorraine, which results from the severe measures taken by the German Government against all travellers who wish to reside in the conquered provinces, or even to cross them. I confess my utter inability to explain these measures. In our time, with all our newspapers, and books, and telegraphs, it is no longer possible to separate a province from the rest of the world; the actual presence of a few foreigners in Alsace will make no great difference in the feelings of that province, even if these foreigners should all be French.

On the whole, there is a growing dissatisfaction felt everywhere; the burden of the armed peace is getting heavier and heavier. We approach the centenary of 1789. The monarchies of Europe refuse to celebrate with us an anniversary which reminds them not only of the downfall of a monarchy, but of long and bloody wars, of their capitals invaded, their armies defeated, their provinces lost. We might console ourselves with our isolation if we were satisfied with ourselves; but the strife of parties has never been so ardent and the absence of leading minds so much felt.

FROM NEW YORK TO MADRID.

MADRID, May 15, 1888.

IN going from New York to Spain one can plunge at once *in medias res* by taking one of the Mediterranean line of steamers which call at Gibraltar on their way to Italy. But the Horatian maxim is not a good one for travellers to follow. No expert tourist would care to be placed abruptly on the top of Mont Blanc and then walk down, because what would have been, on going up, an endless series of picturesque surprises, gradually leading to a climax of sublimity, must, on going down, prove so many disappointing degrees of an anti-climax. Similarly, in making a tour of Spain, it would be foolish to begin with Seville and Granada, instead of approaching these centres of local color from the north, by way of the semi-Spanish Bordeaux and the semi-French Madrid. And there is another cogent reason for taking this northern course: it enables one to cross the ocean on one of the new and comfortable English, German, or French steamers. It is not so much the superior speed and safety of these new steamers that speak in their favor as the superior arrangements for ventilation.

On the way from Paris to Bordeaux there is very little to see, except an abundance of gardens and fields, and peasants busy in them, and herds of sheep, and women doing their washing in the creeks, and occasional groups of trees remarkable for their abundant supply of the parasitic mistletoe. Bordeaux, like most French cities, resembles a copy of Paris made by a second-rate artist. The surroundings are uninteresting, and it must be a tiresome place to live in. Théophile Gautier remarks that at Bordeaux Spanish influences begin to assert themselves, and he states that most of the street signs are in two languages. This may have been true forty-eight years ago, when he wrote his book on Spain, but to-day one sees few Spanish signs. Possibly the railroad has changed this by bringing nearer the influence of Paris to neutralize that of the Spanish boundary. But the women of Bordeaux perhaps do indicate the presence of Spanish blood. They are not only prettier but more graceful than the Parisiennes. And there is another kind of foreign influence visible in Bordeaux, which ought to arouse the indignation of the chauvinists. Nothing strikes one more in the cafés of Paris than the yearly-increasing number of beer-drinkers. In Bordeaux, the home of French claret, this phenomenon appears still more incongruous. Of every five men I saw, four were drinking beer. Perhaps they have discovered that ordinarily there is more honesty in a glass of German beer than in a barrel of French wine. Yet the Bordeaux I drank at the hotel was both cheap and good.

Bordeaux has at present 221,000 inhabitants. Its port admits vessels of 2,500 tons, and has room for 190 of them. The city has a fair picture gallery, a library of 170,000 volumes, and an old opera-house which is considered the largest and best in the country outside of Paris. But there was no performance on the evening when I was there. Perhaps the greatest curiosity is the tower beside the Church of St. Michel, with twenty-two bells near the top. There is nothing strange about this end of the tower or the bells, but the other end of it contains a chamber of horrors which is absolutely unique. After receiving half a franc, a young woman takes a lantern attached to the end of a long stick, and precedes the visitor down a flight of stairs. Here, below the tower, is a circular chamber, along the wall of which are placed, in an *upright* position, about thirty or forty mummies—men, women, and children. They are not artificial mummies like those found in Egypt, but natural mummies, the soil beneath this tower having once possessed the mysterious chemical property (which it has now lost) of preserving human bodies in a state resembling leather. There they stand, exactly as Gautier described them half a century ago, with a gruesome realism worthy of Zola—the general killed in a duel, the woman who died of cancer, the negro woman, the baby who looks like a rubber doll, the boy whose clenched fists and agonized expression indicate that he was buried alive, etc. The young woman described these mummies and touched them with her stick and her hand as if they were so many alligator skins on exhibition.

As Bordeaux is not exactly a cool place in the middle of May, I was glad to get away and start for the Pyrenees. I expected that it would be cooler in the mountains, but was hardly prepared to find snow still lingering on some of the summits. The scenery in some places is grand, in others delightfully picturesque, but not sufficiently so to tempt the tourist to come and see it for its own sake. The road is a well-built one, and the engineers had many unusual difficulties to overcome. A peculiar property of many of the numerous tunnels is that while the train passes through them they become musical instruments, emitting a deep, hollow sound like that produced by blowing into a large empty bottle. At Irun, the first Spanish station, cars have to be changed, the Spanish rails being of a different gauge from the French—in order,

it is supposed, to prevent any sudden invasion from France in case of war. Fontarabia, San Sebastian, and other interesting stations are passed, where one would like to linger for a few hours, but cannot unless he has unlimited time, as there is but a single train a day. Some amusement is afforded by observing, from the car-windows, the customs of the Spanish mountain peasants. Agriculture is still in that primitive condition in which women and cows are used as beasts of burden. I saw in one field a man pulling along a harrow, while two women held it down.

We were now in the country of the Basques, whose language is so unique and so difficult that, according to the legend, the devil gave it up in despair, having succeeded in mastering only three words in two years. I have since, however, met an English wine-merchant who says he can speak the Basque tolerably well, and that he does not consider it so difficult as Welsh. I had no opportunity to hear it spoken, as the only native in my coupé was a very intelligent and courteous Castilian, who gave me and a Frenchman a free lesson in Spanish, and much useful information. When I told him I had read 'Don Quixote' twice, I could see how I rose in his estimation. He and the other Spaniards, he said, read it all the time; and then, as if to show how much modern Spaniards have improved over their ancestors, he dwelt with much emphasis on the fact that, although now his books are read in every country, Cervantes was a poor man—emphasizing the *pobre* by striking his pocket repeatedly.

Burgos, the first Spanish city in the north, which no tourist can afford to miss, is, like most of these cities, reached at night. In the morning I was waked by a military band and procession passing beneath my window. The soldiers were dressed in loose red trousers and long blue coats. The band consisted of a dozen trumpeters, followed by a regular brass band. The trumpeters first played alone, whereupon the band took up the strain, and finally they all united, which produced an excellent effect. I had read so much about Spanish beggars that when I went out into the street I expected to be immediately surrounded by a dozen of them; but, to my surprise, I was not accosted half-a-dozen times during the whole day. I took a guide to show me the sights of the town, including the Cathedral, the ruins of the Cid's house, his bones, and other relics. On discharging him at lunch time I gave him three pesetas (60 cents), expecting him to remonstrate and demand at least twice as much. But he was most profuse in his thanks, and appeared to be so impressed by my extravagant generosity that when he casually met me in the afternoon, he actually offered to devote a few more hours to me without extra charge. Obviously, Burgos was destined to overthrow all my preconceived notions regarding Spain.

The lion of Burgos is, of course, the Cathedral, which differs from most Gothic cathedrals in having been actually finished, and differs, moreover, from other Spanish cathedrals in being more impressive from without than from within, although its effect would be immensely heightened if it stood on the top instead of at the bottom of the hill. The charm of the interior lies less in the architectural features than in the great profusion of marvellous sculptured ornaments, executed with extraordinary finish. Many of the houses in the city are painted, and in such gaudy colors that De Amicis exclaims, with pardonable exaggeration: "If there were an insane asylum for painters at Burgos, one would say that the city had been colored some day when its inmates had escaped." But these lively colors do not conceal the fact that Burgos is a dead city, whose greatness lies in the memories of the past. There did not appear to be enough people to fill the houses and the streets, although the day I spent there was a holiday, when many peasants in picturesque costume visited the city. From the way they stared at me I concluded that a stranger in those parts is indeed a stranger. HENRY T. FINCK.

Correspondence.

MR. H. C. LEA AND THE COPYRIGHT BILL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I think that you will agree with me that you owe me an apology—if not for my satisfaction, at least for the sake of consistency with your own standard of conduct.

In arguing against the Chace Copyright Bill, in the *Nation* of January 5, you were pleased to single me out for special animadversion. I was quoted as the representative of "the projectors and defenders of the bill," and the effort was made to deduce, from what I had urged in its support, that "the whole design and purport of the bill" was simply to enable American publishers to charge upon reprints "double or treble the price of the original English edition." The inference was unavoidable that, in advocating the bill, as I had done, as a measure of justice to American authorship, I was acting in bad faith, and was concealing my real object—in your own words, my argument was "a transparent pretence." To be sure, any one familiar with the subject could see that the contention of the *Nation* was a trifle absurd, but it answered the purpose of bringing the bill, and its "projectors and defenders," into contempt.

Since then, the changes made in the bill have been disadvantageous to both American and foreign authors. I did not approve of them, but assented to them in the interest of harmony. Yet, when thus modified for the worse, the *Nation* of May 17 says of it: "It is not, as has been often remarked, by any means the kind of bill which some of the earliest and most active friends of international copyright would like to see, but it has the immense and overwhelming merit of being an acknowledgment of the right of foreigners to the enjoyment of literary property on American soil." I have no doubt that you share my regret that "the immense and overwhelming merit" of the bill was not as clearly visible to you in January as it is in May.

Differences of opinion as to the details of so comprehensive and important a measure as this are inevitable, but it is the part of wisdom in those who are coöperating for a common object to harmonize such differences as far as possible; and it is, to say the least, a blunder to attribute unworthy motives to allies with whom one may happen to differ on points of policy. The *Nation*, I may say, was the last source from which I had a right to expect such treatment.

The bill is not, in all respects, what I would have made it had I been an autocrat, but I believe it to be the best attainable measure. I have had some experience in both politics and business, and at an early stage in the movement I made up my mind as to what was practicable, and how its accomplishment had best be attempted. This I have pursued undeviatingly, at considerable expenditure of time and labor, and without any personal interests to subserve. I found myself placed in opposition to those whose zeal at first blinded them to the fact that statesmanship consists in doing what we can, even if we cannot do all that we want, and in not throwing away the substance to grasp at the shadow. I was thus exposed to misconstruction on the part of many whom I was endeavoring to serve, but who, I believe, now recognize that I have been true to my convictions, and that I was not as much mistaken as they thought me to be. I imagined that the *Nation* knew enough of me not to join in imputing to me wrong motives, and in this I was disappointed. It is for the *Nation* to say whether it can afford to leave the imputation unretracted.—Very respectfully,

HENRY C. LEA.

PHILADELPHIA, May 30, 1888.

[We doubt if our readers discovered in the article to which Mr. Lea takes exception any imputation on his honest desire for an international copyright law. But as he seems to feel that such a construction is possible (a circumstance which we sincerely regret), we hasten to disclaim any intention to insinuate wrong motives upon his part, and to affirm our belief in the entire sincerity of his endeavor to secure legislation to amend the present copyright law for the benefit of foreign authors, as well as for the protection of American authors. But, as Mr. Lea very truly says: "Differences of opinions as to the details of so comprehensive and important a measure as this are inevitable"; and as the importance of these differences must be in proportion to the comprehensiveness and momentousness of the original proposition, we believe that the greatest possible latitude should be given to the discussion of them. The quotations made by Mr. Lea do but scant justice, we think, to the arguments used in the article to which he refers, and we take the opportunity to briefly recapitulate the chief points of difference.

The single purpose of a so-called international copyright bill is to extend, as a simple matter of justice, the protection of our copyright laws to the works of foreign authors when these are brought into the United States. In framing a law designed to secure this end, therefore, there is no need to take into consideration the possible effect of its practical operation as regards the interests of any other class of persons. The bill drawn up by the Authors' Copyright League is a good example of a bill having this single end in view, and it contains, of course, neither the stipulation of American manufacture nor the prohibition of importation. It may be admitted, however, that the operation of an international copyright law would affect, in a greater or less degree, the interests of other persons besides foreign authors, more especially those of the American book-buying public and the American publishers, together with the adjuncts of the latter—the printers, type-setters, etc.; but the interests of all these classes, we firmly believe, would be served by the passage of an unrestricted bill similar to that just named. Mr. Lea, however, assumes that a bill so framed would not protect American publishers from possible loss of work due to the manufacture outside of the United States of the books written by foreign authors, and he reasons that, "in considering the expediency of the condi-

tions to be imposed on foreign authors admitted to the benefits of American copyright, this is a consideration which legislators cannot overlook." And it may with entire truthfulness be said of the "Chace" bill (which Mr. Lea is said to have drawn up), that its "whole design and purport," as distinguished from the authors' bill referred to above, is to insure, in Mr. Lea's own words, "the manufacture, by our own people, of all copyrighted books for our markets;" for as regards the property security granted the foreign author, that is sought to be obtained in both bills by *absolutely identical legislation*. Mr. Lea provides for such American manufacture with autocratic simplicity. He proposes to make the very protection of the foreign author's property, which it is the purpose of an international copyright law to secure to him, contingent upon the printing of his book in this country; and, to make his proposed measure more efficient, he adds an absolute prohibition of any importation of the author's original edition.

Our present copyright law permits the American author, if he prefers to do so, to have his book manufactured abroad, but, in order to discourage such subtraction from the business of the American book manufacturer, the former is made to pay a tariff tax of 25 per cent. upon the price of his book. This tariff protection the publisher would have, of course, equally as against the foreign author, in case of an international copyright; but that it is not large enough to give him entire advantage over the cheaper production possible in Europe is shown by the fact that some American authors even now have their books printed and bound abroad, and, after paying the duty, they are still able to sell them at a price as low as that asked for similar books made in the United States. As it would not do, at this stage of enlightened opinion, to propose to enlarge the publishers' protection by increasing the tariff on books, the alternative chosen was the complete removal of competition by the prohibition of importation.

The contention of the *Nation* of January 5, which Mr. Lea characterizes as being a "trifle absurd," was that these stipulations—compulsory manufacture in the United States, together with absolute non-importation—would secure to the American publisher of foreign books such perfect, non-competitive monopoly as would enable him to force the American reader to choose "either to go without the book, or to pay for the American reprint of Tennyson's next poem double or treble the price of the original English edition." As Mr. Lea himself says, with much force, in his statement before the Senate Committee on Patents: "Any form of copyright which shall convert into a monopoly the existing free competition in the reproduction of new foreign works, will greatly raise the price of current literature. It will not be the mere addition of the sums paid to authors, but it will be the highest price which the business sagacity of the holders of the copyrights shall consider likely to bring in the largest profits. This is an axiom so self-evident that it need only be alluded to."

Mr. Lea's argument is, that there must be compulsory printing in the United States, and importation must be shut off, else the English authors will have their books manufactured in England, where, he admits, printing and binding are much cheaper than in this country; and as they "can be freighted across the ocean at a trivial cost," the result, according to his reasoning, will be that "the prices to consumers here will be on a level with the high rates customary in England."

What are these high rates, and how do they compare with the prices of books in America? The *Publishers' Weekly* for the first half of 1887 records the titles and prices of 1,354 American bound volumes. Of this number, only 11 were published at a price of 25 cents or less, while 61 were priced 50 cents, and there were 100 in all at 50 cents each or less. Between $2 and $5 each, there were 434, of which number 87, or fully 20 per cent., were published at the highest price. In England, during the same period, the London *Bookseller* indicates the publication of 346 volumes ranging in price from 6d. to 1s., and 455 volumes at 1s. 3d., 1s. 6d., 1s. 9d., or 2s. each—in all, 801 volumes at 48 cents or less per volume. Of books published at prices from 8s. to 21s. (the nearest English equivalents to our $2 and $5), the number was 594, and of this number 218 volumes were novels at 10s. 6d. per volume. Out of this total number only 27 volumes, or about 4½ per cent., were priced at 21s. While, therefore, in the United States there were only 100 volumes below 51 cents in price, to 434 published between $2 and $5, in England there were 801 of the lower range of prices to 594 of the higher—a showing decidedly in favor of English low prices. Only bound volumes were considered, all the cheap reprints of English novels in this country being thereby excluded. Want of space forbids our dwelling upon these figures, but they speak for themselves.—Ed. Nation.]

VON HOLST AND HIS CRITIC.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In his letter in to-day's *Nation*, Dr. von Holst intimates that I misquoted his remark as to the relative estimation of Senators and Representatives in the popular mind. If he had given his own version of the sentence in question, your readers could have judged for themselves whether I had done him an injustice, and it would have been unnecessary for me to trouble you with these lines. Even so, however, I need only refer to the letter of "A. B. H." (printed in the *Nation*, No. 1188, p. 280), where Dr. von Holst's own words are quoted in the original, with a sufficiently close translation.

In order to traverse the assertion of Dr. von Holst, made twice in his letter, that I do not understand his article, it would be necessary to cite much greater portions of the article itself than I could reasonably ask you to make room for; but I am content to allow this question to be decided along with the one first referred to—that is, if I have misquoted the Professor, I will admit that I have misunderstood him; if not, not.

Dr. von Holst further says that, with regard to the President's share in the legislative power, I prove myself unable to distinguish between a *fact* and the *theory of the law*. If, in regard to the veto power of the President, there be a distinction between the actual facts and the theory of the law, it seems to me that any discussion of constitutional questions, in order to have a practical rather than a merely academic or historical value, must rest on facts in preference to theory. In other words, the Constitution as it is, rather than the Constitution as the fathers supposed it would be, is the topic that I imagined the Professor took for his theme.

The reasons which Dr. von Holst gives, in his article, for believing that the Senate will never be shorn of its power fail to convince me, partly because I am sceptical of political prophecies, partly because it seems to me that the Senate is steadily falling in the popular estimation, and that when an institution no longer possesses the respect of the people, its days are numbered, and its functions will transfer themselves, in the natural course of events, to a worthier instrument. N. Z.

New York, June 7, 1888.

MATTHEW ARNOLD AND FRANKLIN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A paper in the last *Century* cites again the oft-quoted passage in which Matthew Arnold tells how he was delivered from the bondage of Franklin's victorious common sense by the perusal of a proposal of the sage for a new and more pleasing version of the Book of Job in modern English. It is strange that no patriotic Philadelphian has called attention to the injustice done by the greatest English critic to the "greatest American" by using him to point the moral of this particular tale. Any one who will turn to the original passage in Franklin's works will see at once that the entire proposal is an outrageous satire on the British Government, and was never intended to be taken seriously. It would appear that, even in those primitive times, "American humor" was already too subtle for the most flexible British intellect.—I am, sir, yours, etc.,

Paul Shorey.

Bryn Mawr, June 4, 1888.

THE FREE EXERCISE OF RELIGION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Permit me to call attention to a matter of grave constitutional importance, in connection with the Contract Labor Act of February 26, 1885, as interpreted by the recent decision of the case of the United States vs. the Rector and Church Wardens of Holy Trinity Church.

In the free exercise of their religion, the Christians of Holy Trinity Church called the Rev. E. W. Warren from England to minister to their spiritual wants as a clergyman. Before Mr. Warren left his native home and country, they contracted to pay him a proper remuneration. They believed that the laborer was worthy of his hire, and he believed that he was commissioned to preach to all nations. The United States Circuit Court in New York city has decided that the Contract Labor Act makes the said contract illegal and void, and makes the action of Holy Trinity Church punishable by a penalty of $1,000, both being prohibited thereby.

If this decision be correct, Congress has constitutional power to prohibit every church in the country from contracting with any clergyman, missionary, or revivalist abroad to come here to preach the Gospel to its members. This I deny. Supposing that Congress can prohibit the importation of laborers under contract in ordinary cases, it can never do so in cases in

which such prohibition interferes with the free exercise of religion. Such interference is expressly prohibited by the United States Constitution, Amendment 1st, which reads: "Congress shall make no law for the establishment of religion, *or prohibiting the free exercise thereof.*" The Contract Labor Act is unconstitutional and void in so far as it prohibits the free exercise of religion. Holy Trinity Church proceeded in the free exercise of religion in calling Mr. Warren, and its action is lawful and rightful, anything in the Contract Labor Act to the contrary notwithstanding. Its members have a right to be spiritually ministered unto by the Rev. Mr. Warren. The United States Government cannot deprive them of that right, as long as the above words of our written Constitution are not erased.

Not long ago, in Brooklyn, Plymouth Church called an English clergyman to be the late Mr. Beecher's successor. After due consideration, he felt it to be his duty to continue preaching the Gospel at home, but, if the act of Congress be valid, he could not have come at all under any express or implied contract for securing the subsistence of himself and his family.

There are numerous Hungarian, Polish, Italian, and other emigrants in the country, whose religious wants cannot be supplied unless clergymen speaking their own languages come to them from Europe. These emigrants can neither live, die, nor bury their dead, in a religious way, unless they are ministered unto in their own language. More of them are arriving every day, and more ecclesiastics are needed for them every day. If the act be valid, no ecclesiastic can be brought from Europe under any contract for his support, whether made by the newcomers or by our native citizens. A Greek church is to be erected in Chicago, for the support of which the Russian Government makes itself *partially* responsible. If the act be valid, no new priest can be sent from Russia on the death of an incumbent.

Nearly all churches in this country have intimate religious relations with churches abroad. Mr. Moody was appreciated as much in England as in his own country. But if he were an Englishman, he could not come here to preach, if Americans contracted beforehand to pay his expenses, unless the act of Congress be void in cases of religion.

If John Wesley were alive, the Methodist Church of this country could not ask him to come here to minister to his spiritual children, if they offered to pay his expenses and if the act be valid. If John Bunyan were alive, the Baptist Church of the United States could not secure his presence here, for similar reasons. Nay, if the Apostle Paul himself were alive, and if Americans asked him to visit the New World at their expense, he could not say to them as he once said to others: "I will come to you shortly, if the Lord will." If the act of Congress be valid, he would have to say that he must wait until Congress permitted him to come.

The opinion in the case will be found in the New York *Law Journal* of May 24, 1888. It makes no reference to the point of law herein discussed. It is, therefore, proper to call public attention to so important a matter. This is done in the hope that when the appeal reaches the Supreme Court of the United States, the Contract Labor Act will be held to be unconstitutional and void in so far as it interferes with the free exercise of religion in Mr. Warren's case and all others.—Respectfully,

BRINTON COXE.

PHILADELPHIA, 1711 Locust Street, June 9.

THE VICE-PRESIDENCY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In reference to an article on page 468 of the *Nation* of 7th inst.: Suppose the salary of the Vice-President of the United States be made larger than that of the President thereof; would the most proper person for President be likely to choose the office of President? X.

JUNE 11, 1888.

AN AMERICAN EGYPTOLOGICAL STUDENT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Many of your readers will gladly learn that, with the kind coöperation of Prof. C. E. Norton, the head of the Archæological Institute, an American is already conditionally secured to aid in the explorations by the Egypt Exploration Fund of England and America. Mr. Farley B. Goddard, Ph.D., of the class of '81, Harvard, as is proposed, will pass a few months of study at the British Museum and the Louvre, aided by the Fund's officials who are also connected with those institutions, and then begin work in Egypt with Naville and Griffith, probably at one of the classical sites, for which Mr. Goddard is particularly qualified. This will entail an expenditure of $1,000, and I devise an "American Student Fund" (as there is a special student fund in England) for this purpose. Donors to it will go on the Fund's lists, receive the illustrated memoirs and annual reports, and be entitled to all the privileges of contributors to the general Fund. The Institute donates $100, and I earnestly beg for sums of $5 upwards to complete the requisite sum.

WM. C. WINSLOW,
Vice-Pres't and Hon. Treasurer.

525 BEACON STREET, BOSTON, June 9, 1888.

PRUDENTIALS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: We have in Massachusetts the term used in our statutes, of "prudential affairs." Towns here are allowed to pass by-laws for the management of their "prudential affairs," and to impose a penalty not exceeding twenty dollars for a breach thereof. Our churches have also "prudential committees" for managing their secular business. My query is as to the origin of the word. In the laws, I trace it to our 'Body of Liberties,' in 1641. Can any one give me an earlier example of its use either in state or church affairs, either here or in England? In fact, I shall be obliged for any examples of its use in the seventeenth century. Was it used in other colonies?

It seems to bear the same relation to "prudent" that economy does to the various uses of that word and its derivatives. A man is "economical," but we speak of political "economy," and of bodies managing their "domestic economy."

W. H. WHITMORE.

BOSTON, June 9, 1888.

Notes.

JOEL MUNSELL'S SONS, Albany, will publish at once, if enough subscriptions are received, a Supplement by D. S. Durrie to his invaluable 'Index to American Genealogies.' It will fill forty pages and be sold for one dollar.

A 'Complete Volapük Dictionary,' in two parts, Volapük-English and English-Volapük, based on the last editions of Schleyer and Kerckhoff by Klas August Linderfelt, will be published directly by C. N. Caspar, Milwaukee. A new feature is the indication of the source of each of the world-language vocables, of which the English is said to furnish more than 60 per cent. The specimen pages show a very neat typography.

'The Black Arrow: a Tale of the Two Roses,' by Robert Louis Stevenson, with full-page illustrations by Will H. Low and Alfred Brennan, is about to be published by Chas. Scribner's Sons.

Harper & Brothers publish immediately 'The Russian Peasantry,' by "Stepniak"; 'The History of Nicholas Muss,' from the French of Charles du Bois-Melly; and 'Hymns and Tunes as Sung at St. Thomas's Church, N. Y.,' composed and adapted by George William Warren.

Whitaker & Co., London, are about to bring out a choice selection of the most popular poems and songs of Dr. Charles Mackay, the moral effect of which upon the author has seemed at times less lasting than upon his public—particularly during the war of the rebellion.

'Selections from Ruskin,' viz., from his 'Sesame and Lilies,' 'Queen of the Air,' and lectures on war, made by Edwin Ginn, will be added by Ginn & Co. to their "Classics for Children."

J. B. Lippincott Co. have in press the complete works of Shelley, in prose and verse, edited by Richard Herne Shepherd in five volumes; a handy edition of the Brontë novels, uniform with the Dickens and the Thackeray; 'Half-Hours with the Best Foreign Authors,' translations selected by Charles Morris; 'A Popular History of Music, Musical Instruments, etc.,' by James E. Matthew, with numerous illustrations; 'Embroidery and Lace,' from the French of Ernest Lefebvre, also illustrated; 'An Elementary Treatise on Human Anatomy,' by Prof. Joseph Leidy; and 'Animal Life of the Sea-Shore,' with special reference to the New Jersey and Long Island coasts, by Prof. Angelo Heilprin.

Thomas Whittaker has nearly ready the 'Life of Lord Herbert of Cherbury'; a 'Life of Emerson,' by Richard Garnett; Sir Stephen De Vere's 'The Odes of Horace'; and volume seven of Wilson's 'Tales of the Borders.'

Hachette & Cie. are about to bring out a 'Histoire de l'Art pendant la Renaissance,' by Eugène Müntz. The term art as here used is comprehensive of industries. The work will abound in biographical "monographs," and in some 500 illustrations of a high order, including a great variety of portraits and costumes. It will fill five octavo volumes of about 800 pages each, issued in weekly parts of sixteen pages at fifty centimes (or one franc when colored prints or phototypes are involved).

L'Art for May 15 still occupies itself mainly with the Salon, and this time with the sculpture, in which department, as M. Paul Leroi says, the French have nothing to fear from foreign rivalry—"in vain would one seek among the foreign exhibitors an artist without a peer"—whereas the French painters have no such preëminence to boast of. Jules Chaplain (with seventeen medallions) and Auguste Rodin (who exhibits but a single piece, a spirited portrait bust) receive highest praise; the work of a young woman, the "chastely passionate" group "Çacountala," executed by Mlle. Camille Claudel, is called "the most extraordinary novel work of the Salon." A sketch of it accompanies the text.

A new periodical, the *Revue de Famille*, has just begun its existence in Paris. It is under the direction of M. Jules Simon, with M. Louis Ulbach as assistant editor, and an attractive list of contributors, chosen from those authors who, if they do not always write unexceptionably for family reading, may at least be expected to

do so upon occasion. The name of M. Jules Simon is a sufficient guarantee for the moral elevation and the literary excellence of this new "recueil littéraire et artistique." It will be published fortnightly, in the usual large octavo form, by Émile Testard & Cie.

Petermann's Mitteilungen for May opens with an account of the "Development of the Population of the United States," by Dr. R. Lüddecke. It is accompanied by a beautifully executed map with two insets, the one showing the distribution of the negroes, the other that of the foreigners. G. Rohlfs, the veteran African traveller, argues very forcibly against the use of elephants for the purposes of exploration. The present number contains Capt. van Gèle's report of his late expedition up the Ubangi in the *En Avant*, together with a map of his route.

In the double number 135,136 of the *Zeitschrift* of the Berlin Geographical Society, scholars will find a noteworthy supplement to Yule and Nicholson's article on Sir John Mandeville in the 'Encyclopædia Britannica.' Dr. Albert Bovenschen collects a great many contemporary notices of Mandeville and his pretended book of travels, and then analyzes this work, assigning with great particularity the sources of the patchwork. His paper is entitled "Untersuchungen über Johann von Mandeville und die Quellen seiner Reisebeschreibung." In summing up, even less originality and authenticity is allowed to Mandeville than by the learned Englishmen above named. The rest of the number is devoted to the rainfall of the Iberian peninsula, with a map.

The twenty-second instalment of the 'Geschichte der Deutschen Kunst,' issuing by Grote, Berlin (New York: Westermann), is still occupied with Painting. The illustrations, after the Holbeins, L. Cranach, Beham, Schongauer, etc., are of unusual excellence and interest.

We receive from the same firm the concluding parts (80–88) of the eighth volume of the admirable 'Allgemeine Weltgeschichte.' They deal with Europe in the middle and end of the seventeenth century, the age of Louis XIV., with whose death the narrative ends. The richness of this period in historic events and personages is perfectly reflected in the illustrations, chosen with exquisite regard for the reader's edification as respects men, manners, arts, scenes, and engagements of note. In this particular, as in the authenticity of its text, the work continues to be a model.

The 'Annual Register' for 1887 (Rivingtons) has made its appearance, extending the useful series to which it belongs. We have little to remark upon it, save that we see no reason why the analysis allowed in the table of contents to current events in English history should be denied to those in foreign countries. The present volume offers a very good illustration of this defect. In the six chapters devoted to Great Britain, we may name the new rules of Parliamentary procedure, the passage of the Crimes Bill and the Land Bill, the Queen's Jubilee, the Trafalgar Square riots, the Plan of Campaign imprisonments, and yet have mentioned no event comparable in importance to President Grévy's forced resignation and the Boulangist dictator's progress, or to President Cleveland's tariff message, none of which appear in the table of contents under the bare rubrics "France" and "United States." While repairing this neglect of the table, we think it would be well to emphasize with type the *leading* events. In this, human foresight will of course sometimes be at fault, but that will not matter. There is in this issue the usual chronicle of incidents, summary reviews of literature, art, drama, science, etc., and obituary with an alphabetical index.

We have delayed too long a mention of Mr. W. W. Cook's timely legal *brochure* on 'Trusts, the Recent Combinations in Trade' (L. K. Strouse & Co.). One may get from this an intelligible notion of the different varieties of this noxious fungus, and of the legal considerations which are applicable to it. There is also a considerable citation of cases.

"Dickens vulgarized" is all we can say of the "Dickens Aquarelles" which come to us in a neat portfolio from J. W. Bouton. This set of characterizations is in illustration of the 'Pickwick Papers,' and is in no sense admirable as art or as imagination. "Stylus's" first series ought to be his last, for he has mistaken his vocation. The designs being hand-painted, the edition is limited.

Refinement cannot be predicated, either, of "*Puck's* Opper" (Keppler & Schwarzmann), a portfolio of designs by this well-known delineator of such humor as lurks in violent action and reaction, in Chinese, Jews, negroes, tramps, policemen, country boarders and rural life, horse-car amenities, delirium tremens, etc.

From the Bufford's Sons Lithographing Establishment we have a life-size head of Gen. Sheridan. The portrait is in profile, and the drawing is spirited and free.

The thirty-seventh meeting of the American Association for the Advancement of Science will be held at Cleveland August 15–21. The local secretary is Elroy M. Avery, Ph.D., 407 Superior Street.

A special session of the School of Philosophy will be held at the Hillside Chapel, in Concord, Mass., Saturday, June 16, commencing at ten A. M., and will consist of an Alcott memorial service. There will be no other session of the School the present summer.

—There can be no doubt of American participation, of a very glad and spontaneous kind, in the projected memorial to the late Mrs. Craik, author of 'John Halifax, Gentleman,' of "Philip, my King," and of so many other writings, in prose and verse, for the elevation and cheer of all who read. A marble medallion in Tewkesbury Abbey, England, is contemplated. "Tewkesbury," reads the circular before us, "was the place selected by Mrs. Craik as the home of 'John Halifax, Gentleman,' and it was the last place visited by her before her death." The church is a noble one, well kept, and well calculated for the good display of a mural monument. It is proposed to limit the American subscriptions to five dollars as a maximum, and a list on this basis has already been begun. Sums of any amount will be received by Mr. Joseph W. Harper of Harper & Bros., New York. In London, Mr. A. Macmillan, 29 Bedford Street, Covent Garden, is the recipient. The English membership of the committee having the memorial in charge is, as might have been expected, very distinguished.

—The twenty-third volume (T-Ups) of the Encyclopædia Britannica (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons; Boston: Little, Brown & Co.) is characterized by a remarkable richness of subject-matter, although, perhaps, affording less light reading than the majority of its predecessors. Among the technical articles that appeal almost wholly to the specialist are Tables (mathematical), by J. W. L. Glaisher; Thermodynamics, by Prof. P. G. Tait; Tides (twenty-eight pages), by Prof. G. H. Darwin, and Trigonometry, by E. W. Hobson. Somewhat less technically treated are the articles: Telegraph, Telephone (both by Thomas Gray), and Telescope, the last, from the pen of the astronomer David Gill, covering twenty pages. We notice that Prof. Tait, in his treatment of Thermodynamics, makes no mention—not so inexcusable in this place—of the name of Tyndall, a peculiarity, if we mistake not, which also marks the article Light (vol. xiv.), by the same authority, and that on Heat (vol. xi.), by Sir William Thomson. The reason of this omission will probably be apparent to those who are acquainted with the Thomson-Tait-Tyndall literature of some twenty-five years ago. The only zoölogical articles of significance are those on Trematoda (by Hoyle) and Tunicata, the latter a satisfactory treatment of an obscure group of animals by the well-known authority on this subject, Prof. Herdman. His conclusion that the Tunicata represent a degenerate group of the Chordata, rather than an advanced type of the Mollusca, will probably be accepted by most zoölogists. In the article Taste, by Prof. M'Kendrick, emphasis is laid upon the necessity of separating from that sense the perception of flavor, a quality which really belongs to the sense of smell. Thus, it is alleged that, blindfolded and with the nose firmly closed, we cannot distinguish between the "tastes" of an apple and an onion, or between red and white wines, a relation generally overlooked, but which received much fuller treatment at the hands of an American writer, Mr. Henry T. Finck, in an article published in the *Contemporary Review* about a year ago. Among the more important articles of general interest may be mentioned Theism and Theology (both by Prof. R. Flint), Theosophy (by Prof. Seth), Trent (Council of), Theatre, and Typography, the last covering thirty pages, and being very useful for reference by reason of its typographical illustrations. The biographical notices include among others the names of Talleyrand, Jeremy Taylor, Thackeray (by Walter H. Pollock), Thales, Thiers, Thucydides (by Prof. Jebb), and Turner. Mr. Reid of the Royal Scottish Academy, the author of the last-named notice, furnishes a less extravagant biography of the distinguished painter than many who have undertaken the task of glorification before him, yet holds that, as a water-colorist, Turner was "unquestionably the greatest master in that branch of art that ever lived." Thoreau is characterized as "one of the most strongly marked individualities of modern times."

—Among the special geographical and historical articles may be enumerated Tibet (by Gen. Walker and Terrien de Lacouperie), Troad (Prof. Jebb), Turkestan (Prince Krapotkin), Turkey, and the United States. These, as well as others not here indicated, are in part singularly defective, a weakness distinctive of this branch of literature of the 'Britannica.' We have already had occasion to point out such anomalies as that under neither "France" nor "Germany" does the name of Moltke occur. In the article Tonk-King in the present volume the whole of Paul Bert's connection with the protectorate is dismissed with a single line, wherein mention is merely made of his death. All the events of Turkish history that have occurred since the close of the Berlin Congress are disposed of in six lines, and although the kidnapping of Prince Alexander of Battenberg is referred to, no mention is made of his successor. The absence of an article on the Thirty Years' War, which is in conformity with the rules of the 'Britannica,' is all the more regrettable from the meagreness with which the subject is treated under Germany and Austria. The article United States, the joint production of Prof. Alexander Johnston (history), Prof. J. D. Whitney (geography),

and Gen. Francis A. Walker (statistics), covers just 100 pages, and is the *pièce de résistance* of the volume. Prof. Whitney, who in his portion of the article has devoted close attention to the geology, mineralogy, vegetation, and climate of our domain, apparently overlooked the faunal characteristics—a serious neglect in an extended treatment like the present one. In the pages of biography appended to the history of the United States, we notice that the date of the death of Pulaski is given as October 11, 1780, instead of 1779, and that the death of Taney is omitted. We find incidentally under "Universities" the statement that the Johns Hopkins University was founded in 1867; it was inaugurated in 1876. The minor geographical articles on American subjects are inadequate. The articles on astronomy and mathematics show perhaps as conclusively as anything else the arbitrariness of the editing. For example, one would consult "Trigonometry," content, perhaps, to ascertain what that science is, its history in outline, and the general method of development of its principles. Instead of that alone, the complex formulæ of analytic trigonometry are elucidated with the fulness of a compendious treatise. The article "Telescope" is excellent as far as it goes; but the treatment is insufficient and ill-balanced. There is no attempt to tabulate even the greater telescopes of nowadays, with their locations. As in all previous volumes, American work is signally ignored. The labors of the Clarks, *facile principes* of lens-makers, receive but the slenderest notice; while the details of some other telescope matters suggest the idea that the author's original MSS. must have been passed by some editor who, to get it into small compass, has made arbitrary excerption answer for careful condensation. "Time" and "Transit Circle" are nearer what one would expect in a general encyclopædia. We note the minutes of longitude of Paris from Greenwich misprinted 6 instead of 9. Chandler's new Almucantar, an instrument of great significance in the future of spherical astronomy, was certainly worth a half-dozen lines; but it is nowhere mentioned. All the astronomical illustrations are the muddiest of prints, and would do no credit to the pictorial department of an American daily.

—A new work by M. Alphonse Daudet is always something of an event, and the subject of his latest one adds to the usual interest. 'L'Immortel,' begun in *L'Illustration* for May 5, is the long-promised novel of which the subject is to be the French Academy and all that revolves around it and converges towards it. In the few numbers that have already reached us, the scene changes with bewildering frequency for every new group of characters introduced, and is often crowded with personages who, whether they are to be actors of the first importance or only characters of secondary or still less consequence, are all presented with that vivid reality with which M. Daudet imposes even his most extravagant creations upon his readers. That many of them—how many, we at this distance can only guess—should be skilfully varied reproductions of well-known people in Paris, will surprise no one who remembers the wonderful processions of scarcely disguised masqueraders which make the pages of 'Les Rois en Exil' and 'Le Nabab' resemble those paintings of the Italian Renaissance in which the princes and prelates and artists of the time look out from crowds of saints and angels, or troops of Oriental kings, in their very aspect as they lived. Among the many Academicians already introduced, the Immortal to whom the book owes its title is an old acquaintance of the reader of M. Daudet's 'Tartarin sur les Alpes,' the famous historian, Astier-Réhu, the *vir ineptissimus* of his German rival, Schwanthaler. Another old acquaintance, from 'Les Rois en Exil' this time, is the Princess Colette de Rosan, whose youthful widowhood is still buried in retirement with memories of her slaughtered husband, but whose lovely hair, which she sacrificed upon his grave, is growing long enough to curl becomingly around her pretty head, and whose thoughts are divided between the mausoleum of Herbert de Rosan which she is erecting, and the young architect Paul Astier, with whom she holds private consultations concerning it. Like most of M. Daudet's work, 'L'Immortel' is extremely lively, and full of the most amusing, ironical, and even comic touches; but it is bitterly and despairingly gloomy in its real spirit.

—Sybel's *Historische Zeitschrift* (vol. lx, Part 1) contains an important article on the origin of the English House of Commons by Dr. Ludwig Riess. He rejects the prevalent view—first advanced by De Lolme—that the primary object of the meetings of this body under Edward I. was to grant money. Such grants, he contends, did not become numerous or important until the reign of Edward III. The evidence afforded by the Statute Rolls, Rolls of Parliament, and contemporary chroniclers all militates against the theory that Edward I. surrendered his right to tax the commons. The celebrated "Articuli de tallagio non concedendo" of 1297 was nothing more than a proposition of the barons which the King rejected, and hence is not on the Statute Rolls. The "Confirmatio cartarum" of the same year is merely a renewal of article xii of the Magna Charta—a concession not to the commons, but to the barons and prelates only. It relates to feudal exactions ("auxilia," etc.), not to taxes that concerned the commons ("tallagia"). Edward I. created the House of Commons not as a legal instrument for the assessment of taxation, but for two wholly different purposes: (1) to facilitate local administration by enabling the commons to lay their grievances before him and his council, and thus to secure redress; (2) to aid him in executing his own measures, such as raising taxes and the like. Though Dr. Riess may err in some of his details, he presents, on the whole, a strong case, which students of this subject ought not to ignore.

—At last there is a prospect of our soon seeing in English the whole of the 'Rig-Veda.' As long ago as 1850, the late Professor H. H. Wilson of Oxford brought out the first volume of his translation of it, which was followed, in 1854 and 1857, by the second and third volumes, completing four out of the eight divisions of the entire work. In 1866, six years after the death of Professor Wilson, appeared the fourth volume, edited with great care and marked ability by Mr. E. B. Cowell, now Professor of Sanskrit in the University of Cambridge. The fifth volume, under the joint editorship of Professor Cowell and Mr. W. F. Webster, has just been published by Messrs. Trübner & Co. of London; and the sixth and concluding volume is announced as being already in the press. More than half the contents of the new volume is substantially the work of the editors; Professor Wilson having left in a most crude and fragmentary condition all of his translation that he did not live to print. "The aim of this translation," says Professor Cowell, "is to represent the traditional interpretation of the Rig-Veda, as given by Sâyana; and, consequently, but little attention is paid to the views of modern scholars. This work does not pretend to give a complete translation of the Rig-Veda, but only a faithful image of that particular phase of its interpretation which the mediæval Hindus, as represented by Sâyana, have preserved. This view is, in itself, interesting, and of an historical value; but far wider and deeper study is needed to pierce to the real meaning of these old hymns. Sâyana's commentary will always retain a value of its own, —even its mistakes are often interesting; but his explanations must not for a moment bar the progress of scholarship. We can be thankful to him for any real help; but let us not forget the debt which we owe to modern scholars, especially to those of Germany." Professor Cowell, with his usual thoroughness, has translated, in an appendix, the eleven deutero-canonical Vâlakhilya hymns, the Englishing of which would hardly have been expected from Professor Wilson, as is evident from his passing by other additions to the 'Rig-Veda' of a similar apocryphal character.

MAHAFFY'S GREEK LIFE AND THOUGHT.

Greek Life and Thought, from the Age of Alexander to the Roman Conquest. By J. P. Mahaffy. Macmillan & Co.

We may accept, with some amusement and, probably, with some allowance, the complaint of Prof. Mahaffy, that, under the influence of the taste for "pure scholarship," the period he treats of is no longer studied in England, either at schools "or by the superannuated schoolboy who holds fellowships and masterships at English colleges, and regards himself as a perfectly trained Greek scholar. A man may consider himself, and be considered by the classical English public, an adequate and even distinguished Greek professor, who has never read or even possessed a copy of Strabo, Diodorus, or Polybius, who has never seen the poems of Aratus, Callimachus, or Apollonius, and who does not know a single date in Greek history between the death of Alexander and the battle of Cynoscephalæ." In the United States, our own classical professor, we fancy, has not reached the luxury of such prejudices; in a land where he is still exposed occasionally to the scalping-knife of Mr. Charles Francis Adams and the other braves of his tribe, he cannot plead that he is fettered by traditions of "pure scholarship." But we experience the same difficulty in classical study which is doubtless felt at the English schools and universities —we are perplexed, as they are, by the abundance of our riches. While the scholar has no excuse for an antiquated eclecticism, the student is often obliged to waver between literature and history, or between different periods of history. If it is a question of periods, he prefers the fifth and fourth centuries B. C. to the third and second. If it is a question of literature, it is hard to leave out Thucydides for Polybius, or Xenophon for Arrian. It happens, moreover, that the more recent great historians, Grote and Curtius, do not reach the Alexandrian period; Finlay begins with the fall of Corinth and the final submission of Greece to the Roman power. Hence the ignorance of this important period which Prof. Mahaffy deplores, and which he has attempted to remedy by departing from the plan of his former work on Greek morals, and devoting a considerable space to the history and the literature of the age.

It is an epoch not so much of decay as of transformation. Wittingly or not, Alexander opened the door through which Greek culture and ideas wandered out into the world. Mace-

donia, Asia Minor, and Syria, and, above all, Alexandria, succeed to the old inspiration and activity; Athens becomes a place of pilgrimage and a university town; Greece proper is either largely under Macedonian power, or perpetually swept by gusts of petty warfare and pillage, except when a portion of it rises into a temporary unity and importance under the Achæan league. If we examine all this fermentation and apparent degeneracy, we are struck most of all by the vast importance and the modernness of the ideas which it evolved. We meet with repeated instances of this in the pages of Prof. Mahaffy's fresh and interesting narrative.

We see, for example, philosophy really touching life for the first time, descending out of the clouds—as has been often said—ceasing to be the intellectual exercise of a coterie of select and speculative minds, and occupying itself instead with men's conduct, in the practical systems of Zeno and Epicurus. And not only does it come down to the earth, where Socrates wished it to dwell, but it makes proselytes; it spreads far and wide among the generality of the people, and becomes to them an ethical guide of life, such as their out-worn religion could not be, and, indeed, had never professed to be. As philosophy became democratic, and the long step was making from the aristocratic Plato to the porter of Alexandria, philosophers rose in importance and consideration. They associate with kings, and are honored by cities. They are expected to offer advice, and to administer rebuke or consolation, like the clergy of the present day. Diogenes uses his customary impudence on Alexander; Callisthenes, for years, before his fall, lectures him in season and out of season; and Zeno is intrusted with the keys of that city which a century before had noticed Socrates chiefly when it decided to put him to death. In Athens the philosophers found corporations, with an endowment and a legal succession; and the Academy of Plato becomes the germ and model of the schools in all parts of Greece, and of the college or university in every civilized land.

By far the most important of all these foundations was, of course, the Museum and Library of Alexandria, without which, however important Alexandria might have been as a commercial centre, the "Alexandrian Age," so called, would never have had an existence. It was to the court of the Ptolemies, in particular, that Greek culture earliest migrated, and it is to their fostering care that we owe the large inheritance we have received from the Alexandrian Age. Prof. Mahaffy gives a full account of the constitution of the Museum, and an interesting comparison of its workings with those of English universities. Unlike the universities of Athens, it was a royal foundation, and it had the defects and the advantages which spring from royal patronage. Prof. Mahaffy, who has always in mind the questions of our own day, thinks he sees a failure in the later achievements of this school because the "Fellows" began to undertake tutorial work instead of devoting themselves to research. Be that as it may, we can hardly complain of the labors of that group of learned men who, under the second Ptolemy, "sifted the wheat from the chaff and preserved for us the masterpieces of Greek literature in carefully edited texts."

Nor were the original productions of this same coterie by any means insignificant, as every one knows who is familiar with the period, and as several chapters in this work abundantly testify. Pastoral and idyllic poetry, the romantic novel of adventure, even the Pompeian decorations on our walls, have all filtered down to us from their inventive faculty and from the art by which they were surrounded. It was their literature (not that of the much greater age of Pericles) which inspired and awakened the best of the Roman poets; it was their Cupids and Venuses and Ariadnes which descended through generations of copyists to the frescoes of Pompeii. Æschylus and Sophocles discourage imitation, while Callimachus and Apollonius Rhodius provoke it; and so Virgil and Catullus condescended to translate and to borrow from them. In our own time, Mr. Morris has done exactly what Apollonius did for his contemporaries: each has told a tale on an antique model, into which he could not avoid letting slip a feeling and a tone that are distinctly modern. Just as our own pseudo-Chaucer, "the idle singer of an empty day," as he calls himself, drifts on with melodious languor and sadness that are entirely alien to the spirit of an heroic Orpheus or Jason; so Apollonius, while imitating in epic verse the episode of Nausicaa, gives a picture of the maiden love-struggles of Medea that is utterly unhomeric and unheroic, but is to us all the more valuable for its anachronism, because it marks a great transition, a phase in the history of woman, which every student of Greek life and manners will admit to be novel and full of importance. Few read Apollonius now; but his incident, his nice analysis, his delicacy, which the latest French novelist would call prudery, still gleam through the story of Dido in the 'Æneid.' The same strain of feeling was quite as fully represented by his great rival Callimachus, librarian, poet-laureate, and literary dictator of his circle, whom one is tempted to call the Dr. Johnson of his time, save that Johnson was a worse poet and a much better man. That dexterous versifier and courtier, whose hymn to Apollo was at once a satire on his rival and an encomium on his king, wrote the tale of 'Acontius and Cydippe,' which seems to have been distinctly a romance of love and adventure, and whose pattern was imitated in the 'Daphnis and Chloe' of the fifth century A. D., in various Italian and French romances, and in the 'Arcadia' of Sir Philip Sidney.

Now, these Alexandrian cupids, this picture of feminine passion which Apollonius so delicately and skilfully painted, these love stories whose peculiarities are still faintly echoed at the present day, were all undoubtedly made for women. What causes led to this novel status of woman in life and literature—whether it was due to Dorian influence in Alexandria, or to the example of the independent position of Egyptian women before the law, or to the court influence of powerful princesses—Prof. Mahaffy does not distinctly trace. He notices, however, what no student can fail to notice, the important part played by women in Plutarch's pictures of Spartan life and manners. He does not remark that, notwithstanding all the charms of such women as Chilonis and Agesistrata, notwithstanding their high spirit, their self-sacrifice and conjugal devotion, and their enormous influence with the Spartan men, which Aristotle wonders at and Plutarch repeatedly attests, they do not seem to have softened or humanized in the least the manners of their countrymen. The monotonous string of aphorisms which Plutarch records of these ladies simply mirrored the narrow and semi-savage military ideal of Lycurgus.

The critic who serves up a poet had better be something of a poet himself; otherwise he is likely to offer a Barmecide feast. Prof. Mahaffy does not exactly do this for Theocritus; his dissection is careful and complete, but it is a little dry. He does not, like Mr. Andrew Lang in his genial appreciation, give us something of the charm and flavor of that poet so much beloved of the poets; he does not make it clear that he was a man of genius among men of talent. He even speaks of him once as a "pedant," by which he means that he was a scholar and a deliberate artist; but he might as well apply the epithet to Tennyson, and much better to Browning. We note that the second Idyll is referred to as evidence of manners in Alexandria: the scene is laid in a city by the sea—it may be Syracuse; the poem itself decides nothing. We are inclined, also, to take exception to the estimate given of the Anthology. There is artificial taste in it, as Prof. Mahaffy complains, and inferior workmanship; there is plenty of base metal and late coinage; but the best of it is small change for a good tragedy or comedy, and it is coin which bears the Greek stamp and the Greek perfection of form.

If we turn from the literature of Alexandria and glance at life and politics, we encounter various developments of a decidedly modern character. There is, in the first place, a great increase of diplomacy and arbitration. The statecraft which fills so large a place in the pages of Polybius, and which leads Prof. Mahaffy to call him the Machiavelli of his time, begins to be reflected still earlier, in so unexpected a place as the heroic poems of Apollonius. His instructive anachronism reaches the ludicrous when we find Alcinous, King of the Phæacians, engaging to extradite Medea to her father, if he ascertains that a marriage with Jason has not been consummated! Joined with this (on the whole) salutary tendency, we see springing up the idea of the balance of power and the right of armed intervention. A most instructive instance of this is the interference of the Rhodians about 220 B. C. The Byzantines had recently been levying toll on all vessels passing their port, to the great inconvenience of all Greek commerce through the Black Sea. The Rhodians, as the chief maritime power of the Mediterranean, were appealed to, and, after formal remonstrances and a brief conflict, brought the Byzantines to terms. The singular part of the affair is, that the Rhodians behave exactly as a modern European nation would under the circumstances. They take no vengeance and no advantage; they simply demand that in future no toll shall be exacted, and they restore the Byzantines to the *status quo*. Of this occurrence Prof. Mahaffy remarks:

"Here, then, was an armed intervention on behalf of trade interests carried on without hate or revenge, backed up by complicated diplomacy, and ceasing the moment the end was attained. The men who pursued this kind of politics were no longer Greeks, but citizens of the world."

It is only one step further in the same direction to find the recent fortune of our own cities, Charleston and Chicago, exactly paralleled and anticipated. Polybius narrates at length how, a few years before the Byzantine war, a great earthquake overthrew the Colossus, ruined all the docks and public buildings of Rhodes, and crippled her resources. The city at once sent embassies over the world to ask for help, and this appeal was answered from all the borders of the Mediterranean by the most lavish contributions in money, naval supplies, ships, and artillery, the value of which is reckoned to have amounted to the enormous sum of a million sterling. The issue of the catastrophe left the citizens immediately better off than they were before. Yet a few years after the Rhodians received gifts and complimentary resolutions, and their allies exhibited this enlightened sense

of the solidarity of commercial interests and this astonishing specimen of international charity, the citizens of Abydos were piteously slaughtering themselves, their wives and children, upon their own walls, in accordance with a public resolution, rather than allow their families to fall into the hands of Philip V., their besieger; and Polybius, as a stoic, deplores the perversity of Fortune which prevented them from carrying out fully so glorious a resolution. His comment and the occurrence are equally significant. So sharp are the contrasts presented by the age; so unequal and so refluent is the tidal wave of civilization!

Supreme in importance and interest, to an American, at least, is the growing fashion of leagues between the smaller States for mutual protection, whose constitution approaches very closely the modern conception of federal government. Prof. Freeman, in his 'History of Federal Government,' and in some brilliant lectures, has discussed the constitutions of these leagues, and in particular of the Achæan League, the best known, the most important historically, and the most powerful of all. Already we find in its constitution, under various titles, a President, a Cabinet, a Senate, and a principle of representative voting. Nominally, it is a democracy—every citizen votes; but really, the necessity of distant travel to the places of meeting of the Assembly practically limits the franchise to the wealthy and influential, and converts the system into "a mild and liberal aristocracy." The workings of the League, its connection with the great names of Aratus, of Philopœmen, and Polybius, and its relations with the Roman Empire, naturally occupy a large portion of the later pages of Prof. Mahaffy's volume, and call forth his liveliest interest; for no Irishman and no Englishman of the present day can neglect the most distant analogies to the question of Home Rule and English interference. This question, indeed, protrudes itself constantly from the beginning to the end of the volume, and its aspects inevitably color certain of our author's judgments. He sees in Achæan Home Rule many warnings against Irish Home Rule; he sees the sentimentalism of Titus Flamininus reflected in Mr. Gladstone; at the same time he sees clearly the Roman obtuseness and indifference to the Greeks, their fundamental want of sympathy, repeated between the English and the Irish. Far be it from us to deduce from so conflicting comparisons Mr. Mahaffy's own conclusions. He is fond of "strong governments," and distrusts democracies and popular orators. "We must judge the party of Demosthenes kindly as we judge all the other old men who have done mischief in the world." So piquant a sentence must be aimed at Mr. Gladstone, who is still alive, and old, rather than at Demosthenes, who has been so long innocuously buried.

The contact of the Jews with Hellenism at Alexandria and Antioch, in Syria, and even in Sparta, forms the subject of some curious and interesting chapters; and we are, apparently, promised a continuation of this series, to be entitled 'The Spiritual Life of Hellenism.' The task here undertaken is, in some respects, peculiar and exacting. The author who approaches it ought to have the gifts of the novelist as well as the conscience of the scholar and the historian; he should have the sympathetic imagination of the romancer, and yet deny himself romances. Dr. Ebers has been lately giving us pictures of antiquity which are neither fish, flesh, nor fowl—neither honest fact nor interesting fiction. Prof. Mahaffy's method is far more satisfactory. *Juvat integros accedere fontes.* Every English student and every intelligent reader will appreciate the opportunity given, by copious extracts from original authorities, to verify for himself the opinions and the conclusions of the author, and the amount of learned research which is here presented with so much freshness and vivacity.

CARLES'S LIFE IN COREA.

Life in Corea. By W. R. Carles, F.R.G.S. New York: Macmillan & Co. 1888.

This book is interesting as being the first in English about the once "Forbidden Land" and "Hermit Nation," by one who has been inside the country and among the people. Though shipwrecked sailors, gold prospectors, geologists, ornithologists, naval men, and missionaries have recently lived and travelled in Corea, these have not yet been provoked by either enemies or friends to write a book. Mr. Percival Lowell's 'Chôsŏn,' charming as a piece of literary work, does not describe much of the country beyond the capital and the port Fusan. The Rev. John Ross, who wrote ably upon the history and language of Corea, set foot in the land, for the first time, during the winter of 1887-8. Mr. Carles, on the contrary, besides some months' residence as British Vice-Consul at the port nearest the capital, made a journey of six weeks, the tracing of which on the map forms a rough parallelogram covering one-third of the peninsula. Besides collecting his papers furnished to journals, geographical and Government publications, he has added much material from his note-books, so that the narrative before us is the pretty full story of an eye-witness, with the out-door flavor of an active traveller, sportsman, and business man alert to trade openings.

Sir Harry Parkes, the able British Minister to Peking, made a treaty with Corea in 1882, and in the autumn of the following year prepared to go to Séoul to exchange ratifications. At the same time Mr. Carles was invited to visit the country privately. On the 8th of November, 1883, he came in sight, from shipboard, of the red granite and richly colored rocks of the west coast. The party of three Englishmen and a Dane, with Chinese servants, ponies, and the regulation assortment of dried and tinned meats, soups, and jams, succeeded, after the usual banging and bumping, in transferring themselves to a Corean boat. This "fortuitous concurrence of planks," innocent of nails, iron, or paint, dubbed even by the Chinese junk-sailors "a shoe," finally reached shore, where what seemed to be a group of penguins, with white breasts and black heads, turned out, on nearer view, to be venerable Coreans smoking long pipes. Choosing between the rough plank hovels and native mud huts of Chemulpo and the risk of being locked out of the city gates of Séoul after a twenty-six miles' ride, two of the party pushed on. Not until well within the city, and in side lanes, did they see a woman. This half of Corean humanity usually flies at the approach of foreigners, and to more than one embassy or company has the strange country appeared to contain males only. Admiral Welles's party saw not a single woman. The French missionaries, however, declare that the normal proportions of a census in other lands obtain, and that many of the females are comely in figure and beautiful in countenance. One numerous class, usually mistaken at first by newcomers for females, consists of unmarried boys and young men, who wear their hair in a long plait, like school-girls in our country. These bachelors are "boys," and, like the universal small boy, are frisky and playful, even though thirty years old, until they marry, for until wedded they are not supposed to have any sense, or an opinion worth listening to. Indeed, the bright little ragamuffins whom Mr. Carles saw in the streets and roads seemed the liveliest things in an otherwise sombre country.

"By the time that their pigtails had been tied in a married man's knot . . . their whole manner had altered, their humor had vanished, the whole of their thoughts seemed devoted to tobacco, and even the features of the face seem altered, owing to the constant strain on their facial muscles, used in supporting three feet of pipe-stem."

Another noticeable figure, the very reverse of the jolly small boy, is the mourner, dressed in hemp cloth, girt with a coarse belt, with the head completely hidden under wicker hats reaching to the shoulders. They further covered their faces with screens of hemp cloth stretched on two sticks. Etiquette allows no one to address a mourner, nor need he speak or reply to any one. This offered an obvious resource to the French missionaries who lived for years among the people, with a price set on their heads, often reading the Government proclamations adjudging them to death as soon as arrested. By means of this insulating costume, venturesome Japanese have succeeded in traversing the country, when death to all aliens found inside the provinces was the rule.

The custom of making the males keep inside the house at nights, and allowing the women to promenade the streets and take exercise at night—so striking in its contrast to our method of allowing the normal use of the night-key to gentlemen—is still kept up in Séoul. Mr. Carles thus confirms statements for making which some writers on Corea have been criticised. In the daytime the chief item of excitement on the streets was the passage of some officer who, with his outriders and foot-runners shouting to the crowd, made fuss and excitement. Perched on their stilted saddles resting on tiny stallions, the cavalrymen made up, with the saddle an intervening medium between man and beast, for the amazing diminutiveness of the native breed of horses, which are as vicious as they are lively. A peculiar species of vehicle, the monocycle, is used by the political grandee, who is half carried, half trundled along by four bearers. With leopard-skin robes, huge hat, and throat-lash of colored stones, the person and progress of a Government officer are highly imposing. After the passage of such a procession, the throng of blind men feeling their way with sticks, drunkards lying by the roadside, and bulls hidden under enormous loads of brushwood, lent an air of calm repose to the scene. Another characteristic sight was that of the women washing and whitening clothes. Soap is unknown, but none the less the men wear white clothing, and, as the outer robe must be spotless, the labor entailed upon the women is immense. The clothes are boiled three times, cleansed with lye, and washed in running water; then, all day long and through the earlier hours of the night, the women are engaged in beating the cloth on a flat board with a wooden ruler. The result is a gloss on the cloth of almost a silky nature, which lasts for a considerable time.

The above will show how good an observer of the details of life in Corea Mr. Carles is. What he especially brings to view is that which has been omitted by most writers on this land of white coats and big hats. Evidently, Corea is one of the oddest, quaintest, and most old-fashioned of countries. Even the Chinese complain that the style of writing in vogue is that of centuries ago, while the costume and coiffure are those once fashionable in China dynasties ago. A country that seems behind the times to Chinese must indeed be old. The author not only describes the capital, but takes us into the

villages, points out the fortified monasteries, the queer roadside posts carved with grotesque human heads, and colored to represent the Corean devil; the dragon-pillars in honor of literary bachelors, and the rows of tablets of iron and stone set up to commemorate good magistrates. Evidently Corea suffers under the curse of being over-governed, and the number of the official class who prey on the community goes far to explain the poverty of the country.

With a keen scent after trade openings, the author made one overland journey from west to east, and a second long and interesting trip through the northern provinces. As Mr. James (as was noted in his book on Mantchuria) saw the once "neutral strip" between China and Corea occupied and cultivated by Chinese farmers, so Mr. Carles, looking from the eastern side, saw new and flourishing Chinese towns lining the side of the Yalu River, and the Coreans seeking employment as farm laborers under Chinese landlords, even as they cross the Tumen to get under Russian masters. Such a state of things reveals a shameful rapacity on the part of the Corean magistrates, which calls for a reform such as Japan has safely achieved.

Mr. Carles found game plenty, and, though he bagged no tigers, had frequent evidences that they, as well as leopards, deer, and other wild quadrupeds, were numerous. Wolves, however, he neither saw nor heard of. His long journey was extended to very near the centre of the northern frontier, to Wen-san, a lively port almost more Japanese than Corean, and thence across country to Séoul; the details of which fill the bulk of his book. He afterwards lived officially at Chemulpo, the new port near the capital, frequently visiting the capital. He gives a correct summary of recent political history, but is not sanguine as to the future commercial possibilities of the country. His experiences in attempting to discover possibilities, and to interest the interior magistrates in the subject of commerce, were both amusing and pathetic. The absolute stolidity on the subject shown by natives in authority show how deeply they dread the impending social revolution which trade will surely bring. It seems certain that the merchant has a great missionary work to do in this commercially benighted country, and the surest way to rid the oppressed people of the incubus of bad government is to stimulate production and improve the condition of the industrial classes. At present, notwithstanding its great natural resources, paralysis rests on the country which once gave Japan scholars, artists, and artisans.

The author's style is simple, clear, and attractive. He seems scrupulously adherent to facts and things seen, and his unpretentious book is a most valuable contribution to our knowledge of a land which still piques curiosity. An excellent map, a number of illustrations by native artists, and a full-page picture of one of the colossal stone images called Mir-iok, together with good print and binding, add to the pleasures derived from an honest piece of literary workmanship. Though the three southern and richest provinces of Corea are still unexplored, and though these have most sentimental interest as being the scene of Hendrik Hamel's life and travels, we are grateful that so observing a traveller in the northern and central portions has told his tale so well.

BANCROFT'S HISTORY OF MEXICO.

History of Mexico. Vol. VI, 1861-1887. [Vol. XIV of Bancroft's Works.] By Hubert Howe Bancroft. San Francisco: The History Company. 1888.

THE strongest impression left upon the reviewer as he closes this last volume of the series is the same as that with which he rose from reading the first, on its appearance—an impression, namely, of almost envious wonder at the immense range of material which Mr. Bancroft has laid under contribution. It may have been the reviewer's fortune to have picked up some unusual bits of information at first hand; for example, he may have been a guest in a remote and almost inaccessible Mexican village, quite off the travelled routes, and have asked his host to account for the charred beams to be seen in the ceiling, hearing, in reply, a long and strange tale of the ferocities of partisan warfare and of vengeful blows struck by foreign imperialists. Scarce a house in the whole village, in fact, but showed the marks of the torch. Yet even so minute a piece of knowledge as this, come at in such a chance fashion, floats along in its place on the broad stream of Mr. Bancroft's narrative, and an incidental note (p. 258) tells the story of Zitácuaro. One may have learned from natives, speaking in a half whisper, of the peculiar terrorism exercised for so many years in Guerrero by the Alvarez family, in which the Governorship of that State seemed to be vested as a feudal possession. Juan, the father, and Diego, the son, ruled like sultans, defying the Federal arms, laughing at the decisions of the Federal courts, robbing right and left like Turks. This little *peculium*, too, Mr. Bancroft sweeps into his great net, and shows (p. 127) that he knows all about it.

As to knowledge to be derived from printed books and manuscript collections, the case is hopeless from the start. A man will not be in haste to speak of the few rare books he may happen to possess, of a specimen or two of sixteenth-century Mexican typography, in the presence of Mr. Bancroft's royal resources—literally every authority, the rarest manuscripts, *incunabula* of the Mexican press. It would be Mudie versus the British Museum. Indeed, Mr. Bancroft's material is too great. No one man can handle it. The embarrassment of riches sticks out in every chapter. Careful indexing, thorough epitomizing, impartial abstracts by twenty hands, can never, though dovetailed together with the greatest skill, be equal to the product of a single mind in which all the ore has been fused. Thus it is that a sense as of ravelled threads, of a want of a continuous and philosophical grasp of the whole, is unavoidably connected with Mr. Bancroft's volumes. But this, after all, is little more than saying that man is a mortal and finite being.

Desiring, then, only to call attention to the distinctive merits of this final volume on Mexican history, we find its greatest value in the handling of the first seven years of the period in hand. These years are given 364 pages, as against only about a hundred for the remaining twenty. This is, of course, but a natural preference shown to a distinct and completed era—the French Intervention—over the less rounded-out events of the succeeding years. Mr. Bancroft might be thought to be also exercising a natural delicacy in speaking so succinctly of living Mexican statesmen and measures still pending, were it not that he is betrayed into something very like adulation with reference to Presidents Gonzalez and Diaz. We do not dispute, however, the general accuracy of his estimates of those great figures in contemporary Mexican politics. The volume closes with seven chapters, covering 230 pages, which are summaries, such as no one but Mr. Bancroft could write, packed with information on Mexico's government, mining, manufactures, railroads, agricultural resources, ecclesiastical affairs, society, and education.

The book should be mainly judged by its success in telling the story of the Intervention, and the decision must be that the success has been very great. Until the French and Austrian archives yield their secrets, or until more Mexicans find their tongues, as they have been doing so remarkably in the past twelvemonth, we know not how more could be expected in the way of a thorough, all-sided, impartial, and penetrating treatment of this striking epoch in Mexican history. Its public and private aspects, its European and American relations, the long intrigues which led up to it, and the scheming and doubling which it covered, its political and its ecclesiastical aims and results, all leap into sharp outline under Mr. Bancroft's hand. Nowhere else is so much material brought together to bring out clearly the figure of Maximilian himself. Without any formal attempt at characterization, he stands before us in these pages, as in life, a strange mixture of worthy ambition and self-love—conceiving large projects and bringing to birth only petty results; deceived and helping to deceive others in regard to Mexico; an Emperor at a desk heaped high with proposed laws, when he should have been at the head of the army; mired and at last suffocated in Mexican officialism, incompetence, and deceit. The fact is well brought out, too, that Maximilian more than half thought of his Mexican "episode" as furnishing him a convenient stage on which to play to an audience of admiring Austrians, who had already had a taste of his art as Governor-General of Lombardy, and who might be led to devise some means of getting him over the obstacle of a single life which stood between him and the Austrian throne, if only he should well play the part in Mexico of a wise and liberal ruler. But the historical plays have their tragedy, as he found out to his surprise.

The only thing which could be called an omission to be noted in this part of the work is an absence of all reference to the highly important revelations made last summer by Gen. Escobedo in regard to the final scene at Querétaro. This, of course, simply means that the new light came too late for Mr. Bancroft's use, though it would seem as if a new edition or added page would be demanded in consequence. The doubt expressed in respect to the unaffected nature of the welcome given to the Emperor on his arrival in Mexico might have been given more color by a citation of the warrants on the Treasury, recently published by the Mexican Government, drawn to pay for the "spontaneous" festivities, triumphal arches, etc. That Bazaine made treasonable propositions to Gen. Diaz might also have been stated as something more than a suspicion, if due notice had been taken of the latter's recent allegations on this head. Again, one might wish that a little more attention had been given to the Empress Carlotta as a force in public affairs. Perhaps more striking than her social and charitable activities was her attitude as regent during some of Maximilian's absences from the capital—her dash and vigor compared to his good-natured indolence.

Several misprints disfigure the volume, and the oft-noted faults of Mr. Bancroft's style are only a little less offensive than in other books of his. On page 480 a blank half-page follows a promise to subjoin a statistical table. The index, which is to the six volumes of the series, is seriously defective in a few particulars in which we have tested it.

DAWSON'S GEOLOGICAL HISTORY OF PLANTS.

The Geological History of Plants. By Sir J. William Dawson, C.M.G. D. Appleton & Co. [International Scientific Series.]

THE author of this work has been occupied with the study of fossil plants for about half a century, and has enjoyed exceptional opportunities for acquainting himself with the forms found in this country, and more particularly in Canada. The diligence with which he has improved these advantages is sufficiently attested by his voluminous contributions which have appeared in the reports of the Geological Survey of Canada. It is not an easy matter to bring within the narrow limits of three hundred pages a connected account of the fragmentary records of fossil vegetation, especially when restricted by the additional limitations imposed by the demands of a popular exposition. It has seemed to us that the author has been embarrassed in still another way. Most naturalists look nowadays upon the existing vegetation of the globe as derived by evolution from preëxisting vegetation—the plants of earlier periods being regarded as the progenitors of the plants of the present. The author does not share in these views; nevertheless, he is impressed by what he calls "a certain rough correspondence between the order of rank of plants and the order of their appearance in time." In working out the history, he has appeared to keep in mind so prominently the exceptions which make the correspondence "rough," instead of exact, that the history itself is here and there thrown somewhat out of proportion, and the honest endeavor to guard against this has seemed to be no slight source of embarrassment.

After an introductory chapter on geological chronology and the classification of plants, the author enters on the discussion of the vegetation of the early palæozoic and its antecedent formations. On the second page of this discussion we come to this statement: "Certain forms known as *Eozoon Canadense* have been recognized in the Laurentian limestones, which indicate the presence at least of one of the lower types of marine animals." We do not find any hint in this volume, designed for popular instruction, that there is any doubt at all as to the animal nature of *Eozoon:* it seems to us as if the statement should be somewhat qualified, in order that the general reader may know that some geologists are not quite of this way of thinking. The remains of plants found in the earliest formations are obscure and highly puzzling. Of the many questions regarding them which the author takes up and treats in a candid manner, one may be of general interest. In 1859 he described a plant from Gaspé which appeared to him to present many points of resemblance to the Gymnosperms, to which our pines and yews belong, and to this plant he gave the name of Prototaxites. Other investigators, notably Carruthers, regarded the plant as far lower in the scale, being, in short, an alga or sea-weed. A reinvestigation of the subject, based on different specimens, and especially the careful examination by Prof. Penhallow of the minute structure, have caused Dawson to modify his original view in many particulars. He now holds that

"the tissues of these singular trees, which seem to have existed from the beginning of the Silurian age, and to have finally disappeared in the early Erian, are altogether distinct from any form of vegetation hitherto known, and are possibly survivors of the prototypal flora. . . . They are trees of large size, with a coaly bark and large spreading roots, having the surface of the stem smooth or irregularly ribbed, but with a nodose or jointed appearance. Internally, they show a tissue of long cylindrical tubes, traversed by a complex network of horizontal tubes thinner walled and of smaller size. The tubes are arranged in concentric zones, which, if annual rings, would in some specimens indicate an age of one hundred and fifty years."

But concerning the latter point, Penhallow says, in a note at the end of the chapter, that the plant was not truly exogenous, and the appearance of rings is independent of the causes which determine the layers of growth in exogenous plants.

The Erian, or Devonian, forests which followed were composed of gigantic ferns, scouring-rushes, and clubmosses, together with two types of plants allied to our pines. The ferns and their allies are reproduced not by seeds, but by bodies known as spores. The recognition of the immense quantities of spores which accumulated during this period, in places where they had drifted or been washed, has led to a very curious conclusion on the part of some, namely, that a certain large part of the petroleum and other inflammable substances characteristic of some of the black shales is chiefly due to the minute spores of Rhizocarps and the like, growing in Devonian times.

"The America of this Erian age consisted, during the greater part of the period, of a more or less extensive belt of land in the north, with two long tongues descending from it, one along the Appalachian line in the east, the other in the region west of the Rocky Mountains. On the seaward sides of these there were low lands covered with vegetation, while on the inland side the great interior sea, with its verdant and wooded islands, realized, though probably with shallower water, the condition of the modern archipelagoes of the Pacific."

The great coal period follows:

"When the land emerged, we find it covered with the rich flora of the coal-formation proper, in which the great tribes of the Lycopods and Cordaites attained their maxima, and the ferns were continued as before, though under new generic and specific forms. There is something very striking in this succession of a new plant world without any material advance. It is like passing in the modern world from one district to another, in which we see the same forms of life, only represented by distinct though allied species. Thus, when the voyager crosses the Atlantic from Europe to America, he meets with pines, oaks, birches, poplars, and beeches of the same genera with those he had left behind; but the species are distinct. It is something like this that meets us in our ascent into the carboniferous world of plants. Yet we know that this is a succession in time, that all our old Erian friends are dead and buried long ago, and that these are new forms lately introduced."

The question cannot be kept back—Whence and how were they introduced? At the close of that period did the curtain fall for a change of scene; or, on the contrary, was the succession of organisms practically unbroken? We find no attempt to answer this question until we reach the final chapter:

"With regard to the introduction of specific types, we have not as yet a sufficient amount of information. Even if we freely admit that ordinary specific forms, as well as mere varieties, may result from derivation, this by no means excludes the idea of primitive specific types originating in some other way. Just as the chemist, after analyzing all compounds and ascertaining all allotropic forms, arrives at length at certain elements not mutually transmutable or derivable, so the botanist and zoölogist must expect sooner or later to arrive at elementary specific types, which, if to be accounted for at all, must be explained on some principle distinct from that of derivation."

The views of many modern chemists as to the ultimate constitution and the relations of the chemical elements would appear to impair the force and even imperil the safety of the analogical illustration which the author has here employed. In any event, cannot the word *must*, which is twice used, be better replaced by *may?* And would not an admission, even if not free, that "ordinary specific forms, as well as mere varieties, may result from derivation," be helpful to the general reader for whom this book is designed? Could not the author, at the close of his paragraph on the coal-plants, have said: These new forms, lately introduced, are, in all probability, the descendants of the plants of the preceding period?

The author takes strong ground against the views of those who regard spores and sporecases as the chief source of the coal deposits. He believes, as well he may, that the cortical and woody matters of the coal plants are the most important ingredients in all the ordinary kinds. The luxuriant vegetation of the coal period he ascribes to (1) the smaller amount of land in the higher latitudes and a consequent difference of climate (Lyell), (2) a larger percentage of carbonic acid in the atmosphere, "obstructing the radiation of heat from the earth, producing almost the effect of a glass roof or conservatory extending over the whole world" (Tyndall). It is by no means certain that the amount of carbonic acid in the atmosphere then was very much larger than it is at present, although recent investigations have shown that plants are, after all, tolerant of a somewhat increased amount of this gas.

In the earlier part of the reptilian age which came next, there was a remarkable development of flowering plants, not only of the simpler gymnospermous type which had appeared in the preceding period, but of palms and some exogens. Later came the modern types of our forest trees, the same genera being represented in plane-trees, magnolias, maples, and the like, which we have as constituents of our woods today, but with differences in foliage which forbid our regarding these as species identical with ours. The oaks and poplars are not our own species, but there can be no doubt as to the genera. The relations between these precursors of our flora and the plants which now cover the continents have been brought out in an interesting manner by the late Dr. Gray in his 'Sequoia and its History,' a memoir to which Sir William Dawson frequently refers in terms of praise. But we fail to see that in this treatise he has adopted even with reservation the views as to genetic relationship which give to Dr. Gray's treatise its chief value.

Dawson's 'Geological History of Plants' is a useful book. Although it is unsatisfactory in that it presents with a certain vagueness the author's views as to the origin of species and even of "specific types," it may, nevertheless, serve as somewhat of a check on those who think that they can explain by a word the sudden irruption of variant forms at certain epochs. It is, moreover, in the main, a trustworthy, interesting, and convenient handbook for the general reader.

Correspondence of Henry Taylor. Edited by Edward Dowden. Longmans & Co.

THE ethics of publication in regard to private correspondence are sufficiently plain. There have been certain men—Charles Lamb, for instance, and Lord Byron—whose letters, from a literary point of view, are so excellent, lively, and attractive as to constitute a clear addition to the standard literature of the world. There are other letters, again, which possess a perennial interest from the stirring scenes or the remarkable society from the midst of which they were written. They add, that is, to our historical knowledge. The correspondence before us cannot plead its right to a public existence

under either of these heads. It adds nothing to the sum of human knowledge, and very little to the sum of human entertainment. That Sir Henry Taylor and his correspondents, male and female, are superior and admirable personages, we do not deny. All that we assert is, that in the letters which Professor Dowden has here published there is nothing of sufficient importance or interest to repay one for the trouble of reading them. The greater part of them are written by Sir Henry Taylor himself, and, as Professor Dowden observes in the brief preface he has prefixed to them: "This volume will interest those readers most who are best acquainted with Henry Taylor's 'Autobiography.'" Now, Sir Henry Taylor, to judge from his own account of himself, was, to use the jargon of the day, too admirably adapted to his environment for the element of conflict to come into his life. Rather his life becomes curious as showing what a very pleasant place a civilized world is to live in, if only a man knows how to do it, and is tolerably well favored by Fortune. Sir Henry Taylor was a poet of no small excellence, but one who furnishes a conspicuous exception to the dictum of Shelley, that poets "learn in suffering what they teach in song." He was a thinker, but one who could contemplate "the burden and the mystery of all this unintelligible world" as something apart from and independent of himself. He was, for many years, the chief permanent official at the London Colonial Office, but, caring little for either history or politics, he was troubled with no misgivings as to the future of the British Empire or the destiny of the human race. The world he lived in was a very good world, abundantly peopled with intellectual men and sympathetic women; good dinners and good society were to be found everywhere; wife and children and friends were his, as well as an ample portion of material prosperity; and, possessing all these things, Sir Henry was wisely content. He did not expend his energies in a fruitless search for better bread than can be made of wheat, or break out with piteous outcries because he could not find it. He took the goods the gods provided him, and asked for no other.

Such interest as there is in the 'Autobiography' arises mainly from the loving particularity in which Sir Henry draws out all the details of this sustaining self-contentment, and this profound and placid satisfaction with himself and his surroundings is the trait which characterizes nearly all his letters in this volume of his 'Correspondence.' No storms in the world outside disturb his equanimity; no inward doubts or questionings produce a ripple upon its untroubled surface. Seeing, then, what manner of man Sir Henry Taylor was, upon his own showing, it is not a little amusing to find him charging Sir Walter Scott, not without asperity, of "a defect of moral force." "Scott," he writes, "seems to be always disposed to approve of rectitude of conduct, and to acquiesce in the general rules of morality, but without any instinctive or unconquerable aversion from vice—witness his friendship for Byron." To have a feeling of kindness for Byron was, in the eyes of Sir Henry Taylor, a sin that could not be forgiven, on account of the sarcasms against Wordsworth and Southey in which Byron was in the habit of indulging. From a like cause, he writes with an excess of bitterness of Jeffrey, who, when Sir Henry was visiting Edinburgh, had been sufficiently indiscreet to show him a great deal of hospitality.

"The person," he writes to Southey, "of whom I saw most after Wilson was my Lord Jeffrey; and, though Hudson and the Major may have been better men, yet the Lord Rector was worth seeing, in order to understand by what small springs mankind may be moved from time to time. There came from him, with a sort of dribbling fluency, the very mincemeat of small talk, with just such a seasoning of cleverness as might serve to give it an air of pretension. . . . When one looks at the clever little worldling, and remembers that for twenty years he was enabled to keep the sunshine from the cottage-door of a man of genius, one cannot but wonder how so small a man could cast so large a shadow."

The scattered notices which occur in these letters from "the man of genius" are, perhaps, the best things in them. The 'Correspondence,' indeed, opens with a letter from Wordsworth to Taylor, on the subject of Byron's plagiarisms, which it was hardly kind of Sir Henry to have left for publication. Passing this by, the following is Taylor's description of the great poet in 1835, Wordsworth being at the time a visitor in his house:

"This old philosopher is one of the most extraordinary human phenomena that one could have in the house. He has the simplicity and helplessness of a child in regard to the little transactions of life; and whilst he is being directed and dealt with in regard to them, he keeps tumbling out the highest and deepest thoughts that the mind of man can reach, in a stream of discourse which is so oddly broken by the little hitches and interruptions of common life, that we admire and laugh at him by turns. Everything that comes into his mind comes out—weakness or strength, affections or vanities—so that, if ever an opportunity was afforded of seeing a human being through and through, we have it in the person of this 'old man eloquent.' He is very happy with us, and very social with everybody, and we have a variety of people to meet him every day at breakfast and dinner."

This, again, regarding Carlyle, strikes us as very good and true:

"Carlyle seems in better health than usual and talks away lustily, and there is always something to take one's attention in his talk, and often a sort of charm in it; but less instructive talk I never listened to from any man who had read and attempted to think. His opinions are the most groundless and senseless opinions it is possible to utter; or, rather, they are not opinions, for he will utter the most opposite and contradictory and incompatible opinions in the most dogmatic and violent language in the course of half an hour. The real truth is, that they are not opinions, but 'shams.' And I think it is the great desire to have opinions, and the incapacity to form them, which keeps his mind in a constant struggle, and gives it over to every kind of extravagance. It is wonderful that a man of no opinions should exercise such an influence in the world as he appears to do; but I suppose it is an influence of concussion and subversion rather than any other."

There are other notices of eminent men up and down these letters—Coleridge, John Stuart Mill, Alfred Tennyson, and others—which are interesting enough; but five-sixths of the 'Correspondence,' we repeat, ought not to have been published—not because there is anything positively objectionable in it, but because it is negative and characterless. What harm, it may be asked, is done by the publication of a book even if it be profitable for nothing? No harm, we reply, if it be not ushered into the world under the shelter of an attractive name. But if, as in the present instance, it comes before us weighted with the double authority of Sir Henry Taylor and Professor Dowden, it does actually constrain thinking men to spend their time in reading it; and when one remembers the vast expenditure of valuable time in unprofitable reading that we cannot escape from, to be thus constrained without good cause is a not insignificant calamity. Finally, be the book intrinsically worth much or little, it belongs to a class which ought never to appear without an index; and yet it has none. Should not the publishers as well as the editor be held responsible for this omission?

A Library of American Literature, from the Earliest Settlement to the Present Time. Compiled and edited by Edmund Clarence Stedman and Ellen Mackay Hutchinson. In ten volumes. Vols. 1-3. Charles L. Webster & Co.

THREE periods are covered by the first issues of this 'Library'—the Early Colonial, the Later Colonial, and the Revolutionary, ending in 1787. The literature of the Republic will fill the seven remaining volumes; the last five will deal with the last half century, and the last two will embrace the years since the outbreak of the civil war. The undertaking seems to us one of much merit, both in design and in execution. Inevitably in the beginning the historical interest predominates over the literary and rhetorical; and perhaps the highest value of the compilation as a whole will consist in its exhibition of the development of American culture, or civilization, in the broadest sense of the term. Proceeding from Capt. John Smith, we observe in the first volume few important sources for early colonial history that have been overlooked or purposely disregarded. We should name Lechford's 'Plain Dealing' as one of these, and John Clarke's 'Ill News from New England'; the latter particularly because of its relation to a famous episode in the religious intolerance of the Bay Colony, and because the Quakers have been so well cared for by the compilers. Clarke was a Baptist, and, with Obadiah Holmes, was a concrete example of the persecution which Roger Williams here denounces in very vague terms, not likely to impress themselves on the memory. In the case of the Quakers, we are given not only the equally vague Scriptural warnings and censure of oppressors, but a specific enumeration of cruel inflictions, as made in the protest and appeal to Charles II. by ear-clipt Rouse and Copeland, Southwick, and other suffering New England members of the denomination. The body of poetry in the first volume is naturally as small as it is poor in quality. Portions of the Bay Psalm Book and the whole of Peter Folger's "Homely Plea for Toleration" are the chief instances.

Theology and superstition are, by extension, the leading lines of the second volume. To the Cambridge Platform succeeds the Saybrook Platform; to the harrying of heretics, the harrying of the witches. These aspects are summed up in Cotton Mather, who is well represented—more so than any author, not excepting Jonathan Edwards. One might have liked more of Samuel Sewall, but the three pieces quoted are certainly characteristic—his confession concerning his error in the witchcraft trials, his courtship of Madam Winthrop, and his 'Selling of Joseph.' With this anti-slavery tract (complete except for the authorities cited in Latin at the end), the compilers begin a series of excerpts bearing on the great evil in the constitution of American society. Anthony Benezet's 'Caution and Warning to Great Britain and her Colonies' against the slave trade follows after an interval of sixty-six years; but of this, of course, only a fragment can be given.

In the third volume John Woolman appears with his testimonies against slavery, wherein his vision was "by that which is immutable." Samuel Hopkins seconds him in Rhode Island. From Franklin nothing is quoted on this subject, nor perhaps was anything available; but Jefferson might have been drawn upon, and, well chosen as are the extracts from his correspondence, his 'Notes on Virginia' deserved, for many reasons, to be exemplified in this collection. His opinion of the capacity and view

of the future of the negro race are landmarks of the sentiment of his generation, and will long have a curious interest. John Jay's account of the way in which slavery was fastened upon the United States is cited, as is James Madison's approval of colonization. We regret that some mediocre verse of St. George Tucker's was preferred to extracts from his most honorable 'Dissertation on Slavery.' Phillis Wheatley's performances are admitted among the still feeble poetical products of the period 1765-1787; and we hope that her color will be represented further on in extracts from David Walker's 'Appeal,' a black man's response to Jefferson's 'Notes' more fiery than Banneker's. In this third volume we remark also the biographical apparatus—Gov. Hutchinson on the character and rule of Gov. Burnet, Dr. Hopkins's admonition to Aaron Burr, John Adams's character of Franklin, Jefferson's anecdote of Franklin and portraits of Hamilton and Adams, Benjamin Rush on the life of Benezet, etc., not omitting mention of Aaron Cleveland's poem on "The Family Blood," which is just now a national concern:

> "If found in Cleveland's blood a trait
> To aid you in affairs of state. . . .
>
> Then rule my head—and keep my heart
> From folly, weakness, wit apart:
> With all such gifts I glad dispense,
> But only leave me—*common sense.*"

The only state paper is Washington's Farewell Address, unabridged and with due notice of the aid of Hamilton and Jay.

It were easy to descant at still greater length on this 'Library,' and we have conveyed but an inadequate idea of it, yet enough, we trust, to indicate its worth to the student, and its attraction for the average reader. It would certainly enrich any domestic library, and in all schools of the higher grade it should be on hand as an adjunct in teaching both history and literature, and as an aid in rhetorical exercise, whether reading, declamation, or composition. The typography is excellent, and we have no error to point out, except that on p. 185 of vol. 3 a figure has been dropped from the date of Benjamin Church's death—177[6]. In vol. 2, p. 129, Cotton Mather's story of Margaret Rule is ascribed to Calef (*i. e.*, to 'More Wonders of the Invisible World'). We wish the editors would abandon in subsequent volumes the exasperating "[From the Same]"—a lazy finger-post, entailing much needless labor on the searcher. There are portraits in all these volumes, and they add something to the value of the text.

L'Homme selon le Transformisme. Par Arthur Vianna de Lima. Paris: Félix Alcan. 1888.

This book forms part of a library of contemporaneous philosophy, in which are works by many of the ablest investigators in this field. The writer, a young Brazilian, author of an 'Exposé Sommaire des Théories Transformistes de Lamarck, Darwin, et Haeckel' (Paris, 1886), is not, however, identified with research in the broad field of biology or the narrower one of anthropology. His subject, the derivation of the human species, is treated in the usual order, commencing with the bodily structure, and ending with the intellectual and spiritual nature. It is considered not as an unsolved, but as a fully solved problem, and the author states his thesis in the introduction with great emphasis, viz., that man, considered in every way, bodily, mentally, and spiritually, is simply a member of the animal series. It is, perhaps, natural that, starting with this settled conviction, and not apparently having had the severe discipline of original investigation, the author should select for his book the facts and conclusions which strongly support and confirm the truth of his thesis, and that where the admirably arranged and sifted material to be found in Darwin's books was not sufficiently strong, he should adopt the more confident and radical statements of Haeckel and other writers. On the whole, however, the first part of the book, treating of man's zoölogical position and bodily structure, represents fairly well existing knowledge, but it cannot be said that new light has been added, or that the light already possessed has been concentrated on the salient points in such a way as to enable the reader to distinguish easily the important features in the great and often detailed mass of facts and hypotheses presented.

The second part of the book is devoted to a consideration of the mental and spiritual nature, and is far less satisfactory than the first. The author states without reserve that the religious sentiments are not inherent in human beings, and cites in support of this the testimony of many persons that there are, even at the present day, whole tribes with absolutely no religious ideas and no notion of the supernatural or mysterious (p. 175). A little further on, however, to show that the germ of religion is to be found in the sense of the mysterious displayed by many animals, he quotes the case related by Darwin of the dog that was frightened at the movement of an umbrella by the wind when no one was near. As the book contains no hint of the degeneration or the "fall of man," the critical student would have to conclude from the above that part of the human race had developed from an ancestor having a sense of the mysterious, and, therefore, according to the author, the germs, at least, of religion, and that another part had descended from one having no such sense, and, since becoming human, had not acquired it. A great deal is said concerning the sexual characters and passions of men and animals, and, finally, several pages are given up to the revolting vices of human beings. What the bearing on the evolution of man this recital is intended to have it is not easy to see, for the lower animals are entirely free from most of the traits mentioned. If the possession of peculiar vices is to be taken as a serious evolutionary argument, it will be necessary to understand quite literally the expression, "descent of man."

Actual misstatements are too frequent throughout the entire book. For example, it is stated that in man and all the other primates the eyelids, except for the eyelashes, are entirely devoid of hair, that typhoid fever is a disease common to men and monkeys, and that the primates alone possess a discoidal placenta. The author is very fond of using the expressions "absolute, demonstrated," etc., and perhaps the worst feature of the book is the frequent recurrence of unqualified or exaggerated statements respecting matters really far from satisfactorily determined.

Whatever may have been the belief or the insight of the great Linnæus with reference to the origin of the human race, he placed man, in his classification, in the same group as the apes and monkeys, calling all *primates*. It is, however, since the time of Lamarck, but more especially since the whole thinking world was stirred by Darwin's assertion that by *natural selection* "light would be thrown on the origin of man and his history," that the greatest activity has been shown in trying to determine the relationship between the animals themselves, and wherein is their point of contact with the human race. The classical work of Huxley in determining the structural relations of man's body to that of the lower animals, especially the anthropoid apes, and his conclusion that man's structure, even to minute details, is like theirs, has received the most abundant confirmation by later investigators. Brilliant efforts have also been made in attempting to find prototypes of all man's mental and spiritual activities in the "beasts of the field"; but the final settlement of this problem remains for the future. As, therefore, the human body is undoubtedly similar in structure to that of the lower animals, thinking men, creationists as well as evolutionists, are logically driven to the belief that the origin of man's body is inseparably connected with that of the animals; and whenever it is as clearly shown that all the intellectual and spiritual powers of the human mind differ only in degree from those of the lower animals, then the same logical necessity will establish the belief that the origin of the entire man was linked inseparably with that of the animals.

As all books on the descent of man must inevitably be compared with Darwin's, this may be so compared in a word by saying that in Darwin the sole aim seems to be to arrive at the truth, in this to establish a thesis.

Pictures of East Anglian Life. By. P. H. Emerson. London: Sampson Low.

This is a delightful book. By means of thirty-two large photogravures and fifteen smaller reproductions of photographs, Mr. Emerson has admirably illustrated his observations on the life and peculiarities of the inhabitants of the eastern counties of England. He tells us that all the local information has been taken direct from the field and the peasants, from the sea and the fisher-folk, and he offers it "fresh and redolent with newly-turned earth and newly-blown flowers, with sea-breezes and sea-tangle." And, indeed, no one can study the illustrations and read the accompanying text without becoming imbued with the author's enthusiasm, and without feeling that he has gained an entirely new insight into the character and surroundings of the English peasant. So artistic are the illustrations, with their Corot-like softness of outline, that in future no book that deals with an unfamiliar country will seem complete without such aids; and it is pleasant to contemplate that, as the photographic art improves, the scenic delights of travel will constantly be made clearer to the minds of those who must perforce stay at home. There should be, and no doubt there will be, books such as this about every corner of the globe, and Mr. Emerson is to be thanked for setting the example.

The keynote of the artistic side of the book is to be found in the fact that the author is a worshipper of Nature. He believes the old Greeks to have been the happiest race that has yet lived upon the earth, because they thoroughly appreciated the beautiful; and he is deeply impressed with the shortcomings of the modern artist in his efforts to reproduce the glories of Nature. He says:

> "The poet, the artist, the naturalist, are truly they who drink life to the brim, yet often their hearts are sad because of the exquisite beauties they see and are silent upon. . . . The music of the breeze, as it sighs, rustles, and breathes in the gorse brakes, the play of light on the gnarled stems, the water-beads after an April shower, now clear as glass, now shining like the sun as the light is reflected from them, who can tell of these? . . . Who shall describe what none can paint—the unsurpassed splendor of the golden gorse? . . . We sympathize with Linnæus, of whom it is written that he fell on his knees when he first saw an English common covered with gorse in full bloom. . . . Form and atmosphere and tone we can now accurately and subtly render by the help of the sun itself, but, alas! not so with

color. The nearer we get to Nature, the sweeter will be our lives, and never shall we attain to the true secret of happiness until we identify ourselves as a part of Nature."

Mr. Emerson loves not the conventionalities of the painter's art, but he evidently has an abiding faith that photography will some day solve the problem of color, and that then Art will be infinitely nearer to Nature, and therefore infinitely truer than it is at present.

In regard to the peasantry and fishermen, Mr. Emerson finds that their ruling passion is avarice, and that they are envious and unwilling to give information to one another. He states "on good authority" that they would rather see a horse kill a man than tell him how to manage it! It is interesting to note that they constantly make use of such words as "cute," "tarnation," "guess," "riled," which the uninformed Englishman sets down without hesitation as pure Americanisms. They have many excellent qualities, and, judging from some of the anecdotes in this book, are not devoid of a sense of humor. Take, for instance, this reply of a hungry lad, one of a large family, to the childless rector who had endeavored to comfort him by remarking that as God sends the children he will also provide food for them: "Thet's all wery wal, passon, for yow to tark so, for all tha food go to yours, and all tha babes to ours." Here, too, is a definition of the gentleman fisherman which certainly applies to a great many lovers of the gentle craft: "The gents who went fishin' was them as liked to get away into the country, and didn't want to appear kind o' idle; so they brought rods and tackle and all that with them." The life of the East Anglian peasant seems to be an uncommonly hard one. He lives in a miserable, unwholesome cottage, works from morn till night with "endless, hopeless regularity," and with great difficulty keeps the wolf from the door. Nor is the lot of the fisherman any easier than that of the agricultural laborer. No wonder, therefore, that Mr. Emerson strongly advises them to emigrate to milder climates and more fruitful soils; and, with all due deference to the Laureate and the cultured classes to whom alone his well-known lines apply, comes to the conclusion that, "for the starving peasant of Europe, better perhaps a decade of Otaheite than a cycle of Great Britain." He believes that English farming will improve as the virgin soil of America decreases, and as more labor and capital are required on this side of the Atlantic to produce grain; but if this is the only hope of the English farmer, his regeneration is surely relegated to the remote future.

Mr. Emerson describes in strong language the many evils that result from the effort on the part of the landlord class to enforce the mediæval game laws, and his sympathies are evidently enlisted on the side of the poacher. He shows by means of the evidence collected by a Parliamentary committee that game preserves occasion a serious destruction of agricultural products, and he claims that the upper classes have no real love of sport in the true sense of the word, and only preserve game in order to increase their incomes by becoming game-dealers on a large scale. His indignation is also aroused by the encroachments which the landowners are constantly making on the *broads* and other public waters, with a view to fish preserving; and he charges, in addition to all this selfishness, that the upper classes, instead of doing anything to improve the condition of the laborers, are deliberately and strongly opposed to any such improvement.

It seems almost ungracious to find fault with a book which is certain to give so much pleasure, but it must be said, nevertheless, that it contains a number of grammatical errors. The table of errata is typical of this kind of carelessness, and is in itself a curiosity. It contains but two corrections, and they are both wrong! At page 45 the reader is asked to substitute "sargossic" for "saragossic," though the word should be sargassic; and at pages 55, 56, he is told to read "fera naturæ" instead of "feræ naturæ," and is left to wonder why. These, however, are comparatively small matters, and would call for no special remark if the book, as a whole, were not one of unusual excellence.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allen, W. B. Kelp: A Story of the Isles of Shoals. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co. $1.
Burbank, W. H. The Photographic Negative. Scoville Manufacturing Co. $1.50.
Campbell, Helen. Roger Berkeley's Probation: A Story. Boston: Roberts Bros. 50 cents.
Bishop, W. H. The Brown-Stone Boy. Cassell & Co. 50 cents.
Clark, Rev. F. E. Danger Signals. The Enemies of Youth. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co. 75 cents.
Craig, Lieut. J. E. Azimuth. With a Sketch of the Astronomical Triangle, and of the Effect of Errors in the Data. John Wiley & Sons.
Crawford, F. M. Mr. Isaacs: A Tale of Modern India. Macmillan & Co. 50 cents.
Dod, S. B. Stubble or Wheat? A Story of More Lives than One. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $1.25.
Dippold, Dr. G. T. Richard Wagner's Poem, The Ring of the Nibelung, Explained and in Part Translated. Henry Holt & Co. $1.50.
Ely, Prof. R. T. Taxation in American States and Cities. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. $1.75.
Erskine, P. Iona: A Lay of Ancient Greece. Boston: Cupples & Upham.
Fisher, Prof. G. P. Manual of Christian Evidences. Chas. Scribner's Sons. 75 cents.
Holden, E. S. Hand-Book of the Lick Observatory of the University of California. San Francisco: The Bancroft Co.
Lamartine, A. de. Jeanne D'Arc. Macmillan & Co. 50 cents.
Leslie, Mrs. Frank. Rents in Our Robes. Belford, Clarke & Co.
Lock, Rev. J. B. Trigonometry for Beginners as far as the Solution of Triangles. Macmillan & Co. 60 cents.
Lockwood, Sara E. H. Lessons in English, adapted to the Study of American Classics. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.25.
Macfarran, Prof. G. A. Addresses and Lectures. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.25.
Mario, Jessie White. Agostino Bertani e i suoi Tempi. Florence: G. Barbèra.
Meyer, G. Kurzgefasste Albanesische Grammatik. Mit Lesestücken und Glossar. Leipzig: Breitkopf & Härtel.
Piatt, J. J. Poems of House and Home. Revised ed. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Proctor, R. A. Old and New Astronomy. Part II. Longmans, Green & Co.
Puck's Opper Book. Reprinted from *Puck*. Keppler & Schwarzmann.
Stoddard, Elizabeth. Two Men. Cassell & Co.

Henry Holt & Co.

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By Count L. N. Tolstoi. Translated from the French by Huntington Smith. 12mo, 75 cents.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 21, 1888.

The Week.

As we go to press, the Republican Convention at Chicago is getting into working order. The speech of Mr. Thurston, the temporary Chairman of the Convention, throws light upon a dark place. The very decided stand he has taken against the nomination of a candidate who has declared that he would not accept it, proves that there was danger of Mr. Blaine's nomination after all, and that this danger was such as to warrant the presiding officer in making it the chief subject of his opening address. When we remember that Mr. Thurston was selected for the temporary Chairmanship over a Blaine man from California only by the casting vote of Mr. Jones, the head of the National Committee, it becomes plain that the strength of the Blaine-or-Busters in the Convention is formidable.

The *Tribune* has been publishing a number of interesting letters from random writers on the Republican nomination for the Presidency, which go far to supply the place of good editorial matter. The most significant of the series is the letter of Judge West of Ohio, sometimes called the "blind man eloquent," but more fittingly known as the blind leader of the blind, on account of his passionate prediction in the Convention of 1884 that Blaine would sweep the country if nominated. Mr. West confirms the statement, obscurely made by Murat Halstead two or three times, that Sherman sent word to Blaine before the Toledo Convention of last year that if Blaine were to be a candidate this year, Sherman would not stand in his way; and that the Florence letter was the answer to Mr. Sherman's communication. Judge West not only confirms this statement, but says that Halstead himself was the bearer of the communication. The fine logical deduction which the blind man eloquent draws from these premises is, that Sherman and everybody else ought to withdraw in favor of Blaine.

What may be called an inside history of the famous "Blaine Belshazzar Feast" at Delmonico's on the eve of the election in 1884, has been furnished to the Chicago press by "Steve" Elkins, who gave out the following statement there on Monday in reply to an assertion which had been made in the Chicago *Tribune*:

"Mr. S. B. Elkins has been much annoyed by a statement made in the *Tribune* yesterday, which charged him with responsibility for what is known in political history as 'Belshazzar's Feast,' a dinner given a few days before the Presidential election of 1884 by Cyrus Field, Jay Gould, and a number of New York millionaires. From a political point of view the dinner was an unfortunate event, because it was charged that Mr. Blaine was hand and glove with the money king of Wall Street. Mr. Elkins saw it would be unwise to have Mr. Blaine attend such a dinner, and he not only did all that he could to prevent Mr. Blaine's presence, but refused to go himself, thereby incurring Mr. Field's displeasure to such an extent that they did not speak for many weeks. These are facts well known to all persons who were in the Republican national headquarters in 1884."

While the dinner was, as Mr. Elkins says, "an unfortunate event from a political point of view," we have always understood that its greatest disappointment consisted in its failure from a financial point of view, campaign contributions from the millionaires present being much less generous than had been expected. Mr. Elkins's statement bears evidence that there has been an active search for a scapegoat for that feast going on in the party since the election four years ago.

There was a lively scene in the House of Representatives last week when Mr. Rayner of Maryland read the appeal for funds which James P. Foster, President of the Republican League of the United States, sent out confidentially a few weeks ago, a copy of which was published at the time. It was in this appeal that Mr. Foster quoted the words of a United States Senator in which the desire was expressed to put the "manufacturers of Pennsylvania under the fire and fry all the fat out of them," because they had refused to contribute to the campaign fund. We have tried in vain to satisfy our conjecture that this Senator was either Morrill or Edmunds, our inference from Foster's description of him being that he must "hail" from Vermont. When Mr. Rayner read the circular, Mr. Grout of Vermont said the Senator in question was not a Vermont man, and another member expressed a belief that a Kansas Senator was the person quoted. Mr. Grout also said that the charge that Edmunds or Morrill said it had been contradicted, but he did not say when or by whom, and we very much wish that he had. Will he kindly furnish us with the particulars for publication? There has been a dead silence on the subject of Foster's great appeal in all the Republican localities with which we have any means of communication.

Everybody at all familiar with Western sentiment knows that it is bitterly hostile to the railways. As one Republican editor said on Thursday: "The Western people are insane on the railroad question." Mr. Depew is, in our opinion, an innocent victim of this insanity, but that he would be a victim of it was so obvious from the outset of the talk about him as a candidate that we have never been able to understand how either he or his friends could for a moment look upon him seriously as a candidate. At the same time we are free to say that the Western hatred and fear of him as a monopolist who is a menace to the country, is entirely misplaced. The monopolists who are threatening the country's prosperity and safety are not the railway presidents, but the protected manufacturers and protected Trusts, and it is against them rather than against the railways that the popular wrath of the whole country should be directed. The railways are not helped by the tariff, but, on the contrary, are obliged to pay a heavy bonus on every steel rail they use, and are sufferers in common with the masses of the people in struggling along under the burdens which the war tariff places upon them.

The Richmond *Dispatch*, a Democratic paper which has forgotten the traditions of its party in the matter of centralization, laments the fact that the Blair bill, which it has supported, was "overlooked" by the Committee which constructed the St. Louis platform. We have serious doubts whether the measure was overlooked, for its friends never fail to push it upon attention on all possible occasions. The fact probably is, that the Committee on Resolutions recognized the absurdity of endorsing an un-Democratic measure, which the candidate nominated for Vice-President is committed to defeat if it should ever be left to his casting vote in the Senate, and which the candidate nominated for President is bound to veto if it should ever come to him from Congress. The veto of the Texas Seed Bill by Mr. Cleveland a year ago last winter insured the final defeat of the Blair bill, and it would have been an amazing exhibition of stultification if the St. Louis Convention had endorsed the moribund scheme. It is now an interesting question whether the Republican Convention will lend any countenance to a measure which many good Republicans have denounced as unconstitutional.

The speeches made at the dinner of the Reform Club on Saturday evening were elevated in tone, earnest in purpose, and full of hope and confidence as to the great campaign now beginning. One thing was made clear by Mr. Mills, and that is that the Tariff Bill now pending is *going to pass the House*, no matter how much time it takes. The Democratic party is pledged to this, and is going to redeem the pledge if it takes all summer, This was a cheering promise, not so much for what the bill itself contains, as for the assurance that there is no longer any hesitation or doubt among the majority as to the duties and necessities imposed upon them. The duty is to reduce the surplus. The necessity is to compel the Republicans to show their hand, and thus make an issue that has some meaning. The lessening of the revenue is something that all are agreed about; but so long as the Republicans can shout "protection" without telling what protection means, they will have the same advantage which they had in Oregon—the advantage of appearing to favor American industry as a whole as against foreign industry. But this false issue cannot be preserved after they shall have told us by their votes in the Senate what their method of reducing the surplus is. If they are for free whiskey as an alternative to *any* tariff reduction, let them say so. If they are in favor of any tariff re-

duction at all, we shall at least have the chance to see what foreign industries they favor at the expense of American industries, and in what respect those foreign industries are better than the ones which they tell us the Mills bill favors.

Protection has been running mad in the House ever since the tariff debate began on the separate items, but it ran madder on Wednesday week than ever before. For example, a paragraph of the Mills bill was taken up which puts jute-spinning and jute-weaving machinery on the free list. Here the venerable Mr. Kelley came out strong. He had heard it said on this floor that jute machinery was not made in this country. He did not credit that statement. He had good reason to believe that it was made at Bridesburg, Pa. At all events he was sure that it was made somewhere in the New England States, because he had met a man from Boston, Mr. William Whitman, who had told him so. But even without Mr. Whitman's testimony it was ridiculous to suppose that it could not be made here, and if it was not made here, it ought to be. There was no difference in principle between jute machinery and cotton or woollen machinery. The only difference was in detail, and therefore the customs officers would not know a jute machine from a cotton machine when it was imported, and might let in a cotton machine free of duty by mistake, to the detriment of American industry. Mr. Breckinridge of Arkansas questioned Mr. Kelley in order to find out what he knew specifically and precisely—whether jute machines were or were not made in this country—and found out that Mr. Kelley knew nothing at all except what Mr. Whitman had told him. Further cross-examination of Kelley showed that Mr. Whitman was not in the jute-spinning business, and that his assertion was probably altogether conjectural, like Kelley's own. Then Mr. Breckinridge stated that the Committee of Ways and Means had had before them the leading jute-spinners of the country from Brooklyn, Boston, St. Louis, and Charleston, and that "the testimony of all these gentlemen was that not a particle of this machinery is made in this country." So far was it from being true that cotton and woollen machinery were substantially the same as jute machinery, in point of fact the different kinds of jute products required different kinds of machinery. For example, the machines used for making burlaps could not be used for making bagging.

The House proceeded to the tax on tin plates. Here again is an article not produced in this country, although protected by a duty of 35 per cent. ad valorem. The tax yields $6,000,000 of the detested surplus. One would suppose that there would be no opposition to the repeal of such a tax. On the contrary, the opposition was of the most stubborn kind, and predictions were made by Mr. Dalzell of Pennsylvania and Mr. J. D. Taylor of Ohio of great disasters to American industry if tin plates were admitted free? Why? Because the sheet-iron makers would lose a part of their trade. It was said that sheet iron was used for the roofing and siding of houses to some extent, and, if people could get tin at a reduction of 35 per cent., they would prefer it. How, then, would your sheet-iron workers get a living? Moreover, it was contended that, although tin plates were not made in this country now, they might be made here some time if the tax were retained, and especially if it were increased, as it ought to be. In answer to the argument that 60,000,000 consumers of tinware had some rights, it was stated by Mr. Butterworth that the consumers would never derive any benefit from the repeal of the duty, because it would all be absorbed by the middlemen—as though the middlemen were not American citizens, but some kind of "blarsted foreigners." Mr. Randall was very severe on the Standard Oil Company as a large consumer of tin plate, and seemed to think that it ought to be severely mulcted, forgetful, for once, of the fact that the money made by rich corporations descends in a grateful shower on their workingmen. The Standard Oil Company furnishes employment to more workmen than all the steel-rail mills in the country—and much steadier employment, we may add. Why these workmen should be singled out by Mr. Randall for punishment we are at a loss to understand. Although we have no tin-plate workers in this country, England has 50,000 such, and this fact was a great grievance to Mr. Joseph D. Taylor, who said: "We are feeding and clothing this great army of men under the British flag." It was Mr. Taylor's idea either that these English tin-plate workers were supported at our expense, giving us nothing in return, or that they were giving us tin plates gratis, and asking nothing from us in return; for if we pay for the tin plates, we pay with the products of our labor, and consequently as full employment is furnished to the workmen who supply these products as would be furnished if they were making tin plates.

There used to be a good deal of discussion of the question whether or not Mr. Cleveland was stronger than his party, but it appears to be decided in the affirmative by the testimony of Republicans as well as Democrats. "It would seem now that almost any Democrat might be elected President," says the Richmond *Dispatch*, a leading Democratic paper of Virginia; "but if we had taken the risk of nominating any other man than Cleveland, we should probably learn that he is, as has often been said, stronger than his party." The Atlanta *Constitution*, the leading Democratic paper of Georgia, is equally frank. "It is Cleveland that is stronger than party or platform," says the *Constitution*, adding that he is "the sturdiest and safest and best leader either party has had since Abraham Lincoln led the Republican party to its first victory." Republican testimony to the same effect is also forthcoming. "Mr. Cleveland is stronger than his party," says Mr. A. W. Tenney, ex-District Attorney and a prominent Republican politician in this State, "and the Republicans must match him with a candidate stronger than his party, or they are beaten."

The brief press despatch which last week announced the appointment of three postmasters in New York State by the President was not likely to arrest attention or attract remark, and yet it was not without significance. It means that well along in the fourth year of a Democratic President there are still Republican postmasters in important offices, who have served out under a President of the opposite party the greater part of the term for which they were appointed by a Republican President. It is a thing unknown before, since the spoils system was introduced by Jackson, for lucrative offices to be left by an incoming administration in the hands of men politically opposed to it for one, two, and even three years; but this is what has happened under Cleveland in the cases of three-fourths of the Presidential postoffices, which, as everybody knows, are the most important and desirable ones. The serious lapses of the Administration in the matter of civil-service reform during the last six months must not obscure the honorable record which Mr. Cleveland made by refusing to allow a "clean sweep," and by permitting a large proportion of the Federal officers with a four years' term to serve out that term.

There is a visible anxiety among the Republican managers in this State for the President's friends to make the mistake of acquiescing in Gov. Hill's desire for a renomination. They are all declaring that a "deal" has been arranged between the President and the Governor, the condition of which is that the latter shall be renominated. It is extremely doubtful if there is any basis for these reports. The President's friends in the Democratic party of this State are shrewd enough to see that Hill's candidacy this year would be a serious handicap for Cleveland to carry. The dislike of Hill is not only hearty and unanimous among the Independents, but it prevails largely among Democrats, the respectable portion of whom are disgusted with his trickery and "peanut politics." He would be an extremely weak candidate, also, because of the open antagonism of the labor parties, all factions of which are bitterly incensed against him for his veto of the Ballot-Reform Bill. If he were to run, and there were danger of his defeat, he would not hesitate for a moment to attempt a "deal" with the Republicans by which he could be elected at the expense of Cleveland.

The Chicago papers publish an interesting correspondence between Senator Edmunds and Mr. Melville W. Fuller, the President's nominee for Chief Justice. Under date of June 11 Mr. Edmunds wrote Mr. Fuller that he had been charged, in a communication filed with the Judiciary Committee, "the name of the writer of which the Senate rules forbid us to disclose," with having been instrumental in obtaining from the Board of the West Side Park Commissioners of

Chicago $103,000 for land worth but $30,000, and taking for himself or a clerk in his office $5,000 or $10,000 of the amount, and with having requested Mr. King, one of the attorneys in the case, to suppress or leave out part of a record. Mr. Edmunds informed Mr. Fuller that "any statement he had to make in reference to the matter the Committee would be glad to receive." Under date of June 13 Mr. Fuller wrote Mr. Edmunds as follows: "While assuring the Committee that I intend no disrepect to them, I cannot consent to reply to anonymous aspersions of the character referred to in yours of the 11th. With your permission, I will publish your letter, with this reply." Under date of June 14 Mr. Edmunds answered: "Unable to consult Committee, but think you can, so far as the Committee is concerned, do what you think proper." Under date of June 15 Mr. Fuller replied: "Thank you. In my judgment publication will dispose of these fabrications without subjecting me to the humiliation of having to notice them." So it proved. Judge Loomis of the United States Court, before whom the condemnation proceedings were held, promptly declared "that there is not a particle of truth in the charge," citing numerous facts to prove that Mr. Fuller's part in the transaction was that of a high-toned gentleman and attorney. Mr. King, referred to by the anonymous enemy of Mr. Fuller, said: "The statement is absolutely and unqualifiedly false. Mr. Fuller is incapable of such conduct, and I have written to Senator Edmunds my denial of the statement, in answer to a communication from him." Mr. Fuller's dignified treatment of the matter will do much to strengthen the impression that he is worthy of the office for which he has been nominated.

The passage by the Senate of the resolution authorizing the President to enter into negotiations with all foreign Powers to provide for the settlement of international disputes by arbitration, is the most civilizing expression of any public body in this country since the abolition of slavery. The resolution seems to have been passed with substantial unanimity, but a reconsideration was moved by Mr. Riddleberger on the ground that it would settle the fisheries dispute without more ado, and in a sense contrary to the recent report of the Committee on Foreign Relations. That it would settle the fisheries dispute is unquestionable, and this is one of its great merits. That it would settle that dispute on fair terms is undoubted, because they would be terms upon which impartial judges should agree. But, on the other hand, the country would be relieved of any apprehensions growing out of the rejection of the treaty, and this would be a fair compensation for any trifling inconsistency in the action of the majority of the Senate.

Since writing last week on the "*Bridgewater* Case" we have received a copy of the *Free Press* of Ottawa, Canada, together with other information which leads us to think that the owner of the American ship *Bridgewater* has a just claim against the Dominion Government. We stated, upon information that we considered trustworthy, that Mr. Allen, the agent of the *Bridgewater*, was asked to deposit the money claimed for duties on the ship when she was offered for sale, and to receive it back when the repairs should be completed and the ship should take her departure. A copy of the alleged offer to refund the deposit, if it should be made, is before us. In it the acting Commissioner of Customs of the Dominion Government says:

"I beg to call your attention to the option which was given to the owner in this case by this Department to pay the duty, and so comply with the strict requirements of the law, with the understanding that, when the vessel was fully repaired and taken out of the Dominion, an application would be received and considered for a return to such owner of the whole of such duty, or such part thereof as might be considered equitable under the circumstances."

This is not an agreement to return the money, but is an offer either to return it or to keep it, either in whole or in part, and of course could not be accepted by a person who denied that any duty was payable under the Canadian law or under international law. That no duty was payable is sufficiently evidenced by the fact that the *Bridgewater* was eventually released unconditionally. The Ottawa *Free Press* is clear in the opinion that no British Minister will justify the detention of the *Bridgewater*, and that consequently the owner is entitled to compensation as for unjust seizure of his property. The case has nothing to do with the fisheries, but as it comes up while the fisheries dispute is under debate, it is likely to create a prejudice against the treaty.

Unusual interest is lent to the canvass in Maine by the action of the Republican Convention. Two years ago the Republicans nominated and elected a millionaire named Bodwell, who would undoubtedly have been renominated this year, according to Republican custom, if he had lived. His death, after a few months' service, promoted the President of the Senate, Mr. Marble, a man of excellent character and high standing, who was as much entitled to a second term as Mr. Bodwell would have been. But he was repugnant to the Machine, which is run by Joe Manley, and State Treasurer Burleigh was picked out as the ring candidate and forced upon the party, despite the fact that the State Constitution requires the Treasurer's accounts to be examined by the incoming Governor, and thus, in spirit if not in letter, debars the Treasurer from becoming Governor.

The result is the development of a strong Mugwump sentiment. Even before the Convention met, it was openly stated that a number of Republicans would vote for the Democratic candidate if the Machine should carry through its programme, and the revolt seems likely to gain strength. The Waterville *Mail*, a Republican paper, publishes a striking letter from a representative of these Independent voters. After saying that no sufficient reason had been given for refusing the usual courtesy of a second term to the present incumbent of the Governorship, the letter says: "We have seen nothing but insult to our judgment and freedom in the zeal of party managers to herd us with the supporters of their candidate. We have seen neither propriety nor decency in the use of all the party machinery that the leading Republican organizer of the State can control, to force us into acceptance of a nominee with whom he calculates to be the power behind the throne. We have seen nothing but disgrace to our party in sneak-thievery of caucuses by the managers of the party." The *Mail's* correspondent predicts that the dissatisfaction of self-respecting Republicans with the Manley performance "will voice itself so that it will be understood," and says: "There are a great many men in Maine who never voted anything but a Republican ticket in their lives, who are now debating the question whether they will submit to the dictation of a State convention which does not seem to them honestly representative of the rank and file of the party. Some of us, who have not even been classed as Mugwumps—except when the party whippers-in have wanted to remind us that an opinion of our own is a violation of discipline—would not regard a vote for Hon. William L. Putnam as the most roundabout way of bringing our Republican managers to their senses." That there is danger of this threat being carried out and proving effective, appears clear from the warning words of the Portland *Press*, a Republican paper of prominence, which protested against the nomination of Mr. Burleigh.

The Emperor Frederick III. expired at Potsdam at eleven o'clock on Friday, after a reign of three months and six days. His long sufferings, his patient bearing, his steadfastness to duty, and his truly heroic mould have drawn the whole civilized world as watchers at his bedside during more than a year, while an incurable disease was making its way to the seat of life. He died, as he had lived, a brave, upright man, performing his duties to the last, earning the love of his subjects with his latest breath, and leaving to his country and his children the priceless legacy of a lofty character in all the great stations to which he was called. As a soldier he had won a great renown in the crisis at Sadowa, and in other fields in the greater war which followed after Sadowa. Yet he so abhorred bloodshed that his accession to the throne was heralded in all the capitals of Europe as a guarantee of continued peace. Of the successor into whose hands the sceptre of the greatest Power of Europe now passes, little is known, but it is known that Bismarck is still the Chief of Germany, and that no government will be possible without him so long as life and bodily vigor are spared to him. But he is now past seventy, and infirmities are advancing upon the man of blood and iron.

FREE WOOL AND FOREIGN COMMERCE.

THE direct interest of the consumers and manufacturers of woollen goods in the proposition to place wool on the free list has been pretty fully set forth; our immense indirect interest in the effect of such a measure upon our general foreign trade deserves more attention than has been given it. We invite attention to a part of that effect, such as may reasonably be anticipated in our South American commerce.

One reason for testing the matter there is, that Chili and the Argentine Republic are among the leading wool-exporting countries. A stronger reason is, that we have the highest and most sacred Republican and protectionist authority for maintaining, first, that an extension of our South American trade is highly desirable; and, secondly, that our tariff on wool is the greatest obstacle to that extension. The Commission appointed by President Arthur under the act of July 7, 1884, had for its duty "to ascertain and report upon the best modes of securing more intimate commercial relations between the United States and the several countries of Central and South America." In his instructions to the Commissioners, Secretary Frelinghuysen directed them to endeavor to negotiate reciprocity treaties as "the means of inaugurating this advanced step in our national policy." But not a single treaty was forthcoming. In every case the Commissioners ran against the dead wall of our high tariff. In their final report they admit their entire failure, and give the reason for it in the words: "In any convention we, on our part, must admit wool or sugar free of duty or at greatly reduced rates. They are the peculiar products of those countries, . . . and are precisely the two we felt we had no authority to even consider in our negotiations." More specifically, in the report on the Argentine Republic, it was said that until we were ready to admit wool free there was no use in discussing a reciprocity treaty with that country.

The Commission certainly reported ample testimony to bear out their conclusion. Take the following bit from the statement of an American resident in Chili, Dr. J. H. Trumbull, for twenty-eight years a practising physician in that country:

> Q. What has been your observation as regards American trade here? A. Since I arrived it has grown beautifully less.
>
> Q. What is the cause? A. I think it is the want of a return cargo from here. There is a desire on the part of merchants and everybody to bring American goods here, but there is no way of paying for them. You have clapped, some years ago, a duty on copper and wool, and the consequence was that the vessels that came here—Hemenway's, Fitzgerald's, etc., from Boston and Baltimore—had to give up this trade. Everybody wants to import American goods. All the people say, "Why can't we go back fifteen or sixteen years ago, when we could have those American goods?"
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> Q. You have only wool that we can take? A. That is all. You undersell us in copper; the hides are all used here.
>
> Q. Can our Government do anything except to modify the tariff? A. No, sir.
>
> Q. How would it be to establish a direct line of steamers? A. Hemenway tried it. It was a failure.

And Mr. Edward A. Hopkins, for forty years a resident of the Plate Valley, in the midst of his rather hysterical calls for subsidies and the restoration of the duty on coffee, makes it clear that the real trouble with our trade with the Argentine Republic is our tariff on wool. In his recent address before the Chamber of Commerce in this city, he asked only for a revision of the duty, asserting that the result would be "a jubilee of enthusiasm manifested towards us throughout the whole Argentine land," and that "our commerce would at once increase almost fabulously." He had just before remarked: "If Congress declare for free wool, which is not to be supposed, we have nothing more to say on this account." We should think not, for if a simple revision would make a "jubilee," no language would be left to describe the effect of making wool entirely free.

The Argentine Republic exported in 1885 283,047,000 pounds of wool, of which we took 10,222,817 pounds, or about one-twenty-eighth. Very strikingly, though naturally, our entire trade with the Argentine Republic last year was just about one-twenty-eighth of the total foreign commerce of that country, or a little less than 4 per cent. In 1860 we had a much larger proportion, about 8 per cent. If we had only held our own all these years, we should have had a trade with the Plate River of more than $17,000,000 in 1887. If we had shared in the foreign trade of Chili in 1886 in the same proportion as in 1860, the amount would have been $10,000,000 instead of the $4,930,000 it actually was. On the simple basis, thus, of twenty-eight years ago our glutted markets would have been eased last year of at least $8,000,000 worth of products, if only we had been in a position to take the pay Chili and the Argentines offer us. And it ought not to be a question of our trade merely holding its own. Every one knows that, if we had not deliberately shut ourselves out of the South American markets, our old proportion would have become greatly enlarged. England's trade with the Argentine Republic has increased as much as 46 per cent. in a single year. So might ours if, with our commanding lead of thirty years ago, we had kept on as an active competitor in the market, willing to buy as well as sell. So that, in estimating the loss we have brought upon ourselves in the restriction upon our foreign trade by our wool tariff, we are justified, in the case of the two countries mentioned, in speaking of the possibility of added exports not to the amount of $8,000,000 merely, but of vastly more.

As we said at the beginning, this line of argument is originally and legitimately protectionist and Republican. And it should be remembered that the effort to push our trade in South America—an effort that means, if it means anything, lowered or abolished duties—still has the highest Republican sanction. When the McCreary bill for calling a Pan-American Congress was before the House, our readers will recall that a man so near the fount of pure and undefiled protection as Mr. William Walter Phelps appealed to the great name of Blaine in support of the measure. But that also looks to reciprocity treaties, and a reciprocity treaty means, as we have seen, free wool. At least, we hope that none of our delegates to the Congress will mention a reciprocity treaty unless they also mention free wool, for it would not be pleasant to have a Chilian say in Washington what one said in Valparaiso: "The United States Government has by means of its heavy tariff pretended to realize the impossible, or the absurdity of selling to all the world without buying anything from anybody."

NEEDFUL AMENDMENTS OF THE CHACE BILL.

THE *Publishers' Weekly* for June 2 prints, among other interesting copyright matter, the Revised Statutes relating to copyrights, as amended by the Senate act of May 9. This publication (for which Mr. Solberg, the Secretary of the International Copyright Association of Washington, is responsible) enables any one interested in the subject to discover for himself the real bearing of the alterations proposed in the present law by the "Chace" bill. Wherever any portion of the original law has been struck out, the place of omission is noted, and the displaced words are printed in foot-notes, while the new text is given in its proper place and distinguished by the use of italic type. We have frequently and at length commented upon the various provisions of the Copyright Bill, and the effect they would have upon the law now in force, and only wish at this time to point out certain discrepancies which become noticeable when the old and new texts are thus brought into juxtaposition. The conflicting provisions to which we refer are in no wise accessory to the chief purpose of the bill, viz., to secure an honest property protection for the works of foreign authors in this country; and as they are certain to cause confusion, leading to vexatious litigation, and to occasion unintentional injustice, there is every reason why the text of the act should be corrected by the House of Representatives before it finally becomes law.

In the rewording of section 4956 of the Revised Statutes, the stipulation that the author must "within ten days from the publication thereof deliver at the office of the Librarian of Congress, or deposit in the mail addressed to the Librarian of Congress at Washington, District of Columbia, two copies of such copyright book or other article," was changed to require that the deposit shall be made "*not later than the day of publication thereof* in this or any foreign country," and that this deposit shall consist of "two copies of such copyright book or dramatic composition printed from type set within the limits of the United States." But section 4959 of the Revised Statutes contains a repetition of the stipulation as to the deposit of copies of a copyrighted book, to the effect that "*within ten days after its publication* two complete printed copies thereof, of the *best edition issued*," shall be delivered to the Librarian of Congress, or deposited in the mail addressed to that officer. This second requirement of the deposit of copies in the same sta-

tute is unnecessary, but its appearance there is readily accounted for. The previous copyright legislation had required the deposit of two copies of every book copyrighted; one copy each in two different places, within different periods of time. The Commissioners appointed to revise the statutes amended the law by changing both clauses relating to the deposit of books, so that each uniformly required that two copies should be sent to one and the same place, within the same period of time; and in the draft of the revision, printed in 1872, they recommended that the superfluous stipulation contained in section 4959 should be omitted. Why their suggestion was not acted upon at that time it is difficult to know, but it is even more difficult to understand why this provision should be allowed to remain now, when not only is it equally useless, but when, furthermore, it conflicts with the new stipulation of the "Chace" bill, not only as to the time of deposit, but also as to the edition to be deposited—for it by no means follows that the copies "printed from type set within the limits of the United States" are of the "best edition issued." Section 4959, therefore, should be amended so as to relate only to the deposit of a copy of a revised edition of any book previously copyrighted.

Section 4956, as amended by the "Chace" bill, contains the following clause: "In the case of books in foreign languages, *of which only translations in English are copyrighted*, the prohibition of importation shall apply only to the translation of the same, and the importation of the books in the original language shall be permitted." The words which we have italicized would seem to indicate that the intention was to extend copyright security to an author's translation of his work when the original was in a language which would preclude its circulation in the United States. This would be just to the foreign author, and would give him a proper stimulus to prepare an edition of his book for the benefit of American readers. But section 4952 is amended by the insertion in the "Chace" bill—in lieu of a simple reservation to authors of the right to dramatize or to translate their own works—of these words: "Authors or their assigns shall have the exclusive right to dramatize or translate any of their works *for which copyright shall have been obtained under the laws of the United States.*" The practical result of this paragraph will be to destroy entirely the value of the clause in section 4956 quoted above for any foreign author who has not obtained an American copyright for his original work; and it would seem, furthermore, practically to offer a premium upon the piracy of a foreign book by translation, inasmuch as such translation would be given the copyright monopoly of an original work, and this would carry with it (according to section 4956) the prohibition of the importation of a subsequent translation published abroad *with the author's sanction.* Surely this effect cannot have been contemplated, because it not only is a manifest injustice to the foreign author, but involves a possible serious injury to the American reader, for it is easily seen that inadequate translations will be hastily prepared for the sake of being the first to secure copyright; and, once copyrighted, no matter how indifferent such translations may be, the American reader will be obliged to content himself with them, although better ones are published abroad.

THE DISLIKE OF FARMING.

A MOVEMENT has been started lately in London, under the impulse of some Bostonians, and notably Mr. Joseph Cook, to induce Englishmen to come over and settle on the numerous deserted farms of Massachusetts and other New England States, many of which are now being taken up by Irishmen and Germans, but chiefly the former. We presume the effort, in so far as it originates on this side of the water, is due to a not unnatural desire to see the abandoned farms occupied by men of the same race and faith, and, if possible, the same standards of living as their old owners, or, in other words, to revive in the nineteenth century the emigration to New from Old England which began and ended in the seventeenth. It is hardly likely to have any perceptible success, however. The English farmer is not an emigrating man. He would not have gone to New England in the seventeenth century if he had not been driven by religious enthusiasm. Besides this, he can have to-day as much land as he wants in England, with all sorts of comforts and "improvements," for very little more than the labor of cultivating it. In other words, there are two landlords in pursuit of every farmer in England who is looking for a farm or would be at all likely to cross the sea in search of one. There are but few English farmers, too, prepared by nature or education for the life of a farmer in any part of New England. There is hardly any cultivator of the soil less fitted to struggle with the difficulties of a new country, or wring comfort from an unfruitful soil, than the English farmer. He has been so petted and taken care of by the landlords and Parliament that he has lost most of whatever courage and initiative he may once have had. When things go wrong and the landlord cannot help him, he is a very forlorn man. Why any one should suppose that he would be able to extract a comfortable living from soil which the hardworking, frugal, and ascetic Yankee has deserted in disgust or despair, we cannot imagine.

But, in addition to all this, it is a mistake to suppose that it is in New England only, or the United States only, that farm labor and life are becoming distasteful, and that all the younger generation brought up on farms are eager to quit them whenever any opportunity offers itself of getting into the great towns. The same tendency is visible in other countries in which railroads are numerous and the art of reading is widely diffused. In England, not only are farms lying vacant in great numbers, owing to the fall in agricultural prices, but the supply of farm labor is rapidly diminishing, in the teeth of a marked and steady advance in wages and greatly increased inducements in the shape of improved cottages. Mr. Kebbel, in the last edition of his well-known book on the 'Agricultural Laborer,' sums up the testimony he receives on this point from all parts of England by saying: "The rising generation of peasantry take no interest in agricultural work. In many villages the men who can cut a hedge, drain a field, or thatch a rick may be counted on the fingers of one hand, and they are old men. . . . The best boys from the schools all set their faces towards the town and scorn the plough. Those who remain get higher wages, but they neither know their work nor care to know." He declares, in fact, that there is "an exodus from the soil."

It must be remembered, too, that there has always been and still is in England a feeling of reverence for "the land" as a calling—that is, a feeling that a man who gets his living directly from the soil, whether by rent or labor, is somehow the social superior of the man who gets it by trade or by a handicraft. It is easy to see how this feeling arose in England, but there is nothing like it in any other country. A recent writer in one of the magazines, giving advice to the sons of impoverished landed gentry who think of emigrating to the United States or Canada, tells them that they must not expect to find that a farmer in these countries enjoys any more social consideration than the clerk or salesman or mechanic, or to find many, if any, farmers' sons who are not ready joyfully to exchange the hoe or the plough for the yardstick or high stool if they get a chance. The sentimental view of the land will probably die out gradually now that the landed interest has ceased to be a political power, and is no longer the wealthiest class in the community. On the farm laborers it has now no influence whatever. They flock eagerly into the towns in search of any employment they can pick up, especially on the police force and as porters at railroad stations. What rural England will be under these changed conditions it is hard to say, but the chances are that it will lose that exquisite finish which during the last two centuries has made it the wonder and admiration of foreigners of all lands. For it is a melancholy truth that to secure neat gardens, well-kept roads, parks, and demesnes, trim hedgerows, and clean fields, the love of order or an eye for beauty, or even a full purse, is not sufficient. Labor must be abundant, easily procured, cheap, and very manageable.

In France the very same movement of the agricultural population towards the towns has begun to excite serious alarm. A M. Baudrillart has been investigating the subject in fifteen of the departments, and these the richest and most prosperous, comprising the old provinces of Marne, Anjou, Touraine, Poitou, Flanders, Artois, Picardy, and the Île-de-France. He finds a positive diminution of population in all of them, it is true, but he also finds that the population of the towns increases. The young men, and especially the young women, will not live on the farms if they can help it. Agriculture offers greater inducements than ever in the shape of higher wages and better food and lodging, but these have little or no effect on the rising generation: This disinclination for farm life is,

he thinks, to be accounted for in the same way as the small number of children to a marriage. "Moral progress," he says, "has not marched abreast with material progress." Everywhere the aspirations of the rural classes are out of proportion to their intelligence and resources. The rise of wages has created a crowd of more or less factitious wants, which are difficult to meet and which keep alive a constant sense of privation. Education has created in the farming man an intellectual curiosity which it is hard to satisfy, and which keeps him constantly in mind of his isolation, of the loneliness and dulness of his life. One effect of this state of things in France is the influx from Italy and Belgium of a very low grade of laborers, whom the farmers are only too glad to hire to prevent their fields from lying waste, but who are anything but a wholesome addition to the French population. In this country we are witnessing much the same phenomenon. Wherever we find the natives abandoning in disgust the cultivation of the soil, we find a lower grade of labor, a less civilized man, who asks for less both from nature and the State, coming in to take their place at the plough.

Everybody who writes on this subject of the growing distaste for agriculture in the highly civilized countries lays a great part of the blame on the purely literary education given by the common schools. Anything, in fact, better fitted than this education to create a dislike for manual labor, and a solitary and monotonous life, it would be hard to imagine. It turns the child's thoughts almost wholly towards sedentary pursuits, and to places in which men swarm. The world which reading opens to him, both through the newspapers and such books as he is likely to get hold of, is a world of gayety, of cities, and theatres, and amusements, and luxuries; a world in which the farmer is more or less a butt for ridicule, in which the happy people are those who make fortunes by strokes of wit, in which physical labor is rarely undertaken except for amusement, and in which all rise in the world is marked by increasing abstention from toil of every description. It is, in truth, an education which originated at the Renaissance for the benefit of priests and gentlemen, and never was intended to be popular. Whether we shall ever see children trained in schools for the life they are actually to lead, or whether any such education in schools is now possible, it would take a very wise and far-seeing man to say.

TECHNICAL EDUCATION IN FRANCE.

A WRITER in the *Nineteenth Century* observes that the French mind, at once logical and mobile, is always the first to catch and focus the influences which are slowly beginning to tell on neighboring states, and "its evolution possesses for us the unique interest of a glimpse into stages of development through which other national minds may also be destined ere long to pass." For this reason perhaps it is that our Consul at Tunstall, Mr. J. Schoenhof, has selected that country to constitute his first study with regard to Technical Education in Europe, the report of which to Secretary Bayard furnishes suggestive reading.

It is very satisfactory to find that the experience of other countries on this subject is to be looked into by so wise and thoughtful an observer, for Mr. Schoenhof's own observations and reflections on what he saw are by no means the least valuable part of the pamphlet. For instance, when he tells us that "a people's state of civilization can be measured best by what its *working* classes consider necessaries of life," we see that we are on the right track. He also sees clearly that it is "unreasonable to expect of one nation the same work and results as of another, as it would be useless to engraft upon one nation an exact copy of the methods of another because the latter have been found to bring out good results there." He knows that we must see a nation *at work* if we would understand it, and this is why we are profoundly interested, not so much in its finished results as in its daily activity, and the means which it uses to train up its future workmen. Because France felt that she was losing ground as against her neighbors in the technical arts, she has made great efforts to regain her superiority, and to that end has laid her basis for improvements broad and deep by using the public-school system as their instrument. With her characteristic clear-sightedness, she has done this; her rulers have distributed the elements of Technical Education upon a broader basis than Germany, Austria, Belgium, Holland, Switzerland, or England. It is for this reason that we may be repaid for a study of her ways of working.

The rapidity with which the French statesmen have increased their means of education may be gathered from the following statement:

"To begin with 1830, the almost ludicrous sum of 116,000 francs was all the city of Paris could then find for educational purposes.

"In 1840, under the Orleans Government, it had grown to 858,000 francs.

"In 1869, the last year of Napoleon III., 6,192,000 francs were devoted to this subject. In 1871, immediately after the Franco-Prussian war, it had grown to 7,241,000 francs; in 1875, to 10,300,000 francs; in 1878, to 12,650,000 francs; in 1881, to 17,633,000 francs, and now to the *net* sum of 23,500,000 francs, after deducting the extra receipts and the outlay for building purposes."

Ten per cent. of the whole expenditure of the city of Paris is devoted to educational purposes. The city expends now for this purpose the same amount that New York city does, viz., $6,000,000, and it expends it on the education of 200,000 children, about the same number as that of this city, where the average attendance for last year was 155,000, though the total attendance was 306,000. In all France, the sum used for educational purposes was $60,000,000, the special schools for war and commerce, however, not being provided for under this sum. One very keen observation of Mr. Schoenhof is that the "inefficiency of the private schools, which the children of the so-called better classes attend, and the efficiency of the public schools, to which the children of the poorer classes flock, cannot fail to exert in time a powerful influence upon the constitution of French society." Another suggestive fact is, that the Socialists in France "make captious opposition to the workshop practice in the schools, though the working classes take well to it, the Socialists opposing everything which tends to increase the ability of the workingman, in the erroneous belief that by the degree of efficiency attained by individual workingmen their standard will be raised and the opportunity of their fellow-workingmen for finding employment correspondingly lowered." How short-sighted and false such an opinion is, is shown conclusively by the statistics given in Mr. Schoenhof's introductory letter to Secretary Bayard, where we see how illusory is the old standard of day wages used by writers on political economy. Although the same kind of machinery is used in different countries, we find that "the day earnings of the operatives (weavers) vary so much between one country and another that weavers in Switzerland earn but 2¼ to 2½ francs (44 to 49 cents), in Germany on an average 2 marks (48 cents), in French mills 2¾ to 3 francs (53 to 58 cents), with a working day from five o'clock in the morning to half-past seven in the evening, and 2½ hours of rest in the day; in England about 65 cents, with nine working hours, and in America from 80 cents to $1.12½ a day of ten working hours (average 85 cents, taken from the work account of a mill). If all things were equal, if with the same machines and working agencies the results of a day's work per hand employed were the same, of course the countries where the higher earnings prevail would be in a hopeless condition in competing with the others. But the reverse is the truth. In fact, the cheapness of the labor product stands in an inverse ratio to the weekly earnings of the operative."

This last statement points to more potent causes for difference in day wages, and hence in the comfort of the workman, than those generally put forward. Why do the same number of spindles in a cotton-mill in Bombay put out only one-half as much yarn as in Massachusetts? Another factor which we cannot afford to disregard in cost and prices of manufactured articles is the methods of distribution. We discover that "high earnings can be obtained only by great quickness, deftness, and uninterrupted attention and application, qualities which again can be supplied by none but the best conditioned labor, enjoying the highest standard of living." That the average weekly earnings of a workman at Waterbury, Conn., are $10.71, four times as high as in the Black Forest or Switzerland, while the Waterbury watches can be sold at an almost incredibly low price, shows the value in an economic point of view of excellent machinery, and skill, and great quickness of labor. Again, the chief value of an article often depends on artistic design, and here the value of technical schools becomes at once apparent. An interesting observation is that of the director of one of the apprentice schools to the effect "that the best pieces coming under his observation were those made by workingmen who still worked on the old method, that is to say, making every part of the work themselves without the help of labor-saving automatic machinery." Another

gives us a fact not less instructive. He says: "It has often happened that I have received apparatus, apparently perfect, made by an expert, but having one small defect: it would not do. Well, sirs, in most cases, the cause was simple, but unknown to the man who brought me the instrument. He knew how to work, but he did not know for what his work was intended." Mr. Schoenhof goes on:

"Fortunately self-interest begins to see the drift, and to understand that ignorant, or, what is synonymous, cheap labor, is as incompatible with maintaining position in competition as the old methods in transportation against the railroad and steamship. Recognizing the force of this axiom, France was quick in adapting its school system to the demands of a new epoch in the history of man. The elements of knowledge and the elements of workmanship which the public schools place within the reach of everybody, prepare the aspiring pupil for the highest branches of technical education put at his disposal by the liberal care of the State. Through the means for extending technical education in both directions, production is well taken care of."

This calls attention to one very important fact, that in the public schools the aim is not so much to train to one special trade as to give general power. How this is sought to be attained in the training of the young for the practical arts of life, in the French Republic, is fully shown in Mr. Schoenhof's report.

THE INDIAN GOVERNMENT AND THE STATE OF THIBET.

LONDON, May 2, 1888.

THE Indian Government has become involved in a difficulty with the State of Thibet which, unless treated with the utmost patience and gentleness, may easily grow into an issue of a truly formidable character. It has, thus far, attracted so little attention in England that in the United States it, not improbably, may have escaped observation altogether. But that is generally the way with our Indian troubles. They start from such very small beginnings as to elude observation during the stages of their growth, when they could be successfully encountered, and only then succeed in attracting public attention when the possibility of a peaceful solution is passing away. So does it threaten to be in this matter with Thibet.

Our Indian Empire, as I have pointed out in previous letters, is walled off from the rest of Asia by the stupendous barrier of the Himalaya Mountains. We are indebted for this isolation to the rapidity and comparative ease with which we overran the country and consolidated our power therein. The mountain barrier, also, marks the limit where the profitable occupation of the country ceases. A double reason, therefore, ought to have restrained us from all action which tended, however remotely, to encroach upon the line of fortifications which Nature herself would seem to have thrown up for the protection of India. The one reason was that it is impossible to extend our frontier beyond the Himalayas without aligning it with that of China on the northeast, and Asiatic Russia on the northwest. The other reason was, perhaps, even stronger: as the revenues of these mountain-lands could not nearly repay the costs of their occupation, every such extension of territory involved the imposition of additional taxation on our Indian subjects, and, *pro tanto*, tended to destroy their loyalty to a rule which claimed their allegiance mainly on the ground that its taxation was light, and that it added largely to the wealth of the country.

Regardless, however, of either consideration, the Indian Government has, for more than half a century, been busily engaged in piercing the Himalaya Mountains—now at one point, now at another; and has persisted in this policy in the face of the plainest evidence of its disastrous character, politically as well as financially. Our relations with Afghanistan constitute the part of this policy that is best known to the world, but even here its financial and political consequences to India are very inadequately appreciated. Financially, we have expended about a hundred millions of the wealth of India, and increased the annual cost of our Indian army from twelve to close upon twenty millions, with the result that we have established ourselves in a single corner of Afghanistan which will become immediately untenable if the Russians in Asia occupy Herat, which they can do whenever they choose. That the Indian Government is well aware that our position in Afghanistan is untenable in the event of a Russian advance, is shown by its taking part in the demarcation of the frontier dividing Afghanistan from Asiatic Russia—an act without meaning unless it had resolved to regard the violation of this frontier as a *casus belli*. As it is absolutely certain that, in the event of a disagreement with Great Britain in Europe, Russia will not respect this frontier, but will occupy Herat and all the country lying between the Oxus and the Hindu-Kush, the expenses already borne by India, in order to obtain a footing in Afghanistan, are as nothing compared with those which are impending in a not distant future, when, as a consequence of its present policy, the Indian Government will be compelled permanently to occupy both Kandahar and Kabul.

Now, just as the deserts and hills of Afghanistan divided India from Asiatic Russia on the northwest, so the territory of Burmah divided India from China on the northeast. This barrier, also, the Indian Government has deliberately thrown down, and the results to India, financially and politically, threaten to be only less disastrous than most which have ensued upon its policy in Afghanistan. Upper Burmah shows no signs of quieting down. On the contrary, at no time since our occupation have the "dacoits," as they are called, exhibited greater activity, or the attacks upon our posts been of so determined a character. The fact is, the conquest of Upper Burmah was undertaken in total ignorance of the peculiar difficulties attaching to the enterprise. Even in Afghanistan there are several centres of population, such as Kandahar, Ghuzni, Kabul, Jelalabad, the occupation of which gives an invading force the command of the districts from whence they draw their supplies. But there is literally only one city in Upper Burmah—Mandalay—which has always been fed from British Burmah. All the rest of the country, so far as it is peopled at all, consists of little hamlets, self-supporting, and divided from one another by great tracts of all but impenetrable forest. Until this forest has been cleared, the rivers bridged, and roads opened up in every direction, to establish a government or get any real hold of the country is a physical impossibility. Meanwhile, no revenue can be collected; the country remains, indeed, in a chronic state of semi-famine, as the peaceable population have in large numbers abandoned their villages and flocked into Mandalay and other military centres, where they have to be fed by the State. We have (inclusive of military police) about forty thousand troops scattered in small detachments through the province, and the heavy cost of keeping up this large force falls exclusively on the Indian Exchequer.

Such, so far, have been the financial effects of the conquest of Upper Burmah. Politically its consequences threaten to be no less serious. In the hills which divide Burmah from China and Siam dwell a number of wild tribes—Chins, Kakhyens, Shans, and others—all of which profess a certain allegiance to the Emperor of China. They constantly raid into the defenceless Burmese villages from their mountain fastnesses, but as yet these proceedings have received neither the sanction nor the assistance of the Chinese Government. If that sanction were given, if the Chinese Government allowed its officials in Yunnan to distribute rifles and ammunition among these tribes, then our difficulties in Upper Burmah would be aggravated ten-fold, and, though we doubled our army of occupation, we should be unable to give protection to our subjects, or to follow the raiders into their own country. It is at this moment, when a state of cordial amity with China is a matter of vital importance, that the Indian Government has drifted into a difficulty with Thibet which places that amity in extreme peril.

Thibet, as every one knows, is regarded as sacred territory by the Mongolians and other Buddhist subjects under the sway of the Chinese Emperor. It would in all probability cost the Emperor his throne if he tamely acquiesced in the occupation of the capital, Lassa, by a foreign force, and the whole strength of the empire would be put into the field in order to avert the contingency of its permanent detachment from China. So long ago as the time of Warren Hastings, the Indian Government made an attempt to establish commercial relations with Thibet; and these attempts were renewed a little later on. They led to no result, and the rapidity with which the British overran and conquered India has strengthened the Thibetans in their resolve not to allow us, under any pretext whatsoever, to get a footing on their soil. There is no reason why we should desire to do so. Thibet is, perhaps, the poorest country in the world, inhabited by a scanty and stationary population, and incapable of supporting a larger. At the same time, ever since we conquered Bengal, there have been commercial dealings between British India and Thibet. This commerce, on the Thibetan side, has been carried on by a colony of Cashmeree Moslems which has been settled at Lassa for a great many years, and is in high consideration there, and the route followed by them has been through the independent State of Nepal into India. Had we been content to allow matters to continue on this footing, our present difficulties would never have occurred. Unluckily, British merchants, especially during periods of commercial depression, are unceasing in their endeavors to discover new markets for British commodities; and a few years ago, when Lord Randolph Churchill was at the India Office, mercantile influence persuaded him that an effort ought to be made to bring the Thibetan trade down to Calcutta by a directer route than through Nepal. It was represented to him that this commerce was heavily crippled by transit duties levied by the Nepalese Government, whereas, by making a new channel for it through the small hill-state of Sikkim, which was under our protection, not only would these transit duties be evaded, but the distance between Lassa and British territory would be greatly shortened. The Government in Calcutta was alive to the political danger of this proceeding, but Lord Randolph overruled its objections, and insisted upon the organizing of

a mission, upon a formidable scale, which was to make its way to Lassa for the purpose of executing a commercial treaty with the Thibetan authorities there.

Great was the consternation in Lassa when this intention became known. That consternation increased as the magnitude of the mission went on increasing. It is likely that the reports of this magnitude gave to the mission the dimensions of an invading army before it reached Lassa. The fate which they had so long dreaded and striven to avoid seemed to be coming on them at last. Their fears were not diminished by the accounts which the Cashmere colony gave of the habitual policy of the English in India. Commercial missions, according to these experienced observers, were, with these insidious people, the invariable preludes to armies of invasion and forcible occupation of a country. Meanwhile, however, a British force had marched to Mandalay, deposed King Theebaw, and annexed his territory. Now, the sovereign of Upper Burmah stood in some vague position of subordination to the Emperor of China. It was the custom, at intervals of ten years, and on the accession of a new King, to send presents to Peking, thus, in fact, acknowledging the suzerainty of the Chinese Emperor. If such tribute was withheld, it was in the power of the Chinese Government to liberate the Burmese people from the duty of allegiance to their nominal sovereign. After our annexation of Upper Burmah, the Chinese Government consented to rocognize the validity of British rule, on the condition that we abandoned our intention of sending a commercial mission to Thibet. We accepted this condition, the mission was broken up, and there seemed to be an end of the incident.

It was not so, however. The road, or what in those wild latitudes passes for a road, from Thibet into Sikkim enters the latter State through the archway of a fort which has been built for its protection; and, presumably with the view to be beforehand with the Indian Government in case it should revert to its abandoned policy, the Thibetans placed a garrison in this fort. Now, the fort is within the Sikkim frontier, and Sikkim is under our protection. The Thibetans, therefore, could not be allowed to remain upon soil which was not their own. At the same time, unless we were ourselves to establish a garrison in the fort, it was difficult to see how they could be kept out of it. Now, the fort is 300 miles distant from the nearest British cantonment. It stands at an elevation of 14,000 feet above the level of the sea, and, from the beginning of October to the end of May, the garrison would have to live in a climate of frightful severity, and entirely cut off from British India. In fact, the fort could not be garrisoned. Application, accordingly, was made to the Chinese Government to use its influence to persuade the Thibetan Government to withdraw from what was virtually British territory. The Chinese Government tried and failed. The Thibetans declined to retire, and, at length Lord Dufferin had no alternative but to send a force of 3,000 men to drive them out. After a toilsome and difficult march, this force reached the Sikkim frontier, and, as soon as it appeared, the Thibetans fled. They remain, however, just within their own frontier. They refuse to listen to any terms of agreement. It is certain that as soon as our troops are withdrawn they will again take possession of the fort. What are we to do? The British troops, even if they desired to do so, have neither the carriage nor the supplies necessary to follow the Thibetans far into their own country. In three weeks at the furthest, the monsoon will break over the Himalaya Mountains, when it will be impossible for them to remain under canvas. The fort, therefore, until next spring, will have to be left in the possession of the Thibetans.

But even then it is difficult to see what the Indian Government is to do. It cannot send 3,000 men every summer to this distant point in order to drive out the Thibetans, allowing them to reoccupy the fort as soon as the bad weather sets in. A march in force to Lassa, on the other hand, would be an operation to which the march to Kandahar was mere child's play, and, indeed, could not be attempted without provoking the Chinese Government to acts of retaliation in Upper Burmah which would make our position there supremely difficult and ruinously costly. The Indian Government is on the horns of a most painful dilemma. If it yields to the Thibetans, it risks a loss of prestige which may have a most damaging influence on its authority in India. If it determines to coerce them into submission, it plunges into a regular jungle of difficulties, financial and political, the issue of which is beyond the reach of human conjecture.

ROBERT D. OSBORN, Lieut.-Colonel.

THE GOETHE SOCIETY IN WEIMAR.

WEIMAR, May 28, 1888.

IN April, 1885, died the last of the Goethes. The archives passed unconditionally into the hands of the Grand Duchess of Saxe-Weimar. Her Royal Highness, conscious of the wide responsibility which the legacy entailed, summoned about her the leading representatives of the "Goethe Wissenschaft," and under her protectorate the society was founded. Fifteen years ago the expression "Goethe Wissenschaft" would have been found, to say the least, novel. Those engaged in the special study of Goethe were moved by an intense dilettante enthusiasm, but had, for the most part, no connection with the University. There was at that time in the capital city of the new empire no professorship of modern German literature. Herman Grimm, who had won his fame as the biographer of Michael Angelo and as a graceful essayist, occasioned something like a sensation when, in 1874–5, he delivered a series of lectures at the University of Berlin on the life and times of Goethe. Besides furnishing the worthiest life of Goethe that has yet appeared, these lectures accomplished further that a chair of modern German literature came to be regarded as a necessity, and Wilhelm Scherer was called to create the new department. Such a professorship is now held to be of supreme importance. Thus the opening of the Goethe archives finds a well-developed Goethe Wissenschaft ready to use and edit the treasures; the study of German literature enters herewith upon a new era; from Weimar, as of old, a steady influence has begun to go out, and thitherward many pilgrims turn their steps yearly in the week of Whitsuntide.

That the success of the undertaking is thus by the experience of three years assured, was the conviction of all who were present at this third annual meeting. A buoyant spirit was abroad, which only those can have whom indubitable success is spurring on to continued effort. One had the feeling that all went well. Moreover, there is a witchery about Weimar itself that gives to these annual meetings an especial worth and charm. The beautiful park has been called a poem of Goethe's, and to each of us it seems to belong, with the same right that his poems belong to all who can read them. The sepulchre where the poet princes lie by the side of the princes of the house of Weimar, has become a pilgrimage chapel. The Goethe House is a National Museum. A half-sad romantic interest attaches to the pleasant rooms of the Frau von Stein, where something of the ideal spirit of an *Iphigenie* has left its impress, which the scornful wit of the cynical can never quite erase. With a certain merry poem of Goethe's in mind, one visits the grand-ducal castles on the wooded heights about Weimar; Tiefurth, the castle of nooks and corners, where, on the banks of the Ilm, the "Fischerin" was played; Belvedere, overlooking the pretty town in the valley; and Ettersburg, where the "Iphigenie" was first performed with Goethe as *Orestes*. A visit to the archives, too, brings a rich reward. The letters to the Frau von Stein speak in the handwriting of Goethe a mute language which the printed editions cannot reproduce, and the painstaking care with which he has written the 'Roman Elegies' reminds one of Rousseau's 'Nouvelle Héloïse,' written on tinted note-paper with delicate neatness. But it is, perhaps, the social phase of the Weimar assemblies from which the greatest advantages accrue. During these days the intercourse between the members has something of the character of a family gathering, where the youngest may raise his voice in inquiry, and the patriarchs of the world of letters give themselves freely. This is one of the most important forces in maintaining that community of sentiment to which the Society owes its influence, actual and potential. The benefits of the formal meeting, which fell this year on May 26, are greatly enhanced by the fraternal spirit which pervades the whole.

The order of the day was the usual one. The entrance of the grand-ducal party with their guest, the Crown Prince of Greece, was the signal for the opening of the meeting. Kuno Fischer of Heidelberg was the orator of the day; his subject, Goethe's "Iphigenie." It cannot be said that the address contained strikingly new material or that the view-point was a new one; but novelty may be uncomplainingly dispensed with when the well-known stories are so well retold. The plan of the drama, the psychological conditions out of which it arose, its slow growth, "like the orange tree," the gradual metamorphosis from prose into verse, and the consequent enhancement of the pure, strong repose of the heroine's character, all gained new force from the refined observation of Kuno Fischer and from his eloquent delivery. "Iphigenie," like "Tasso," was conceived in Germany; Weimar experiences gave the motives, and Italy furnished the classic form. The work went on in many places, and sometimes amid strange surroundings. Knebel tells a story of Goethe engaged in official duties among Thuringian recruits; upon the table lay the lists, beneath them some other papers, the MS. of the "Iphigenie"! It accompanied him through Verona, Vicenza, Venice, and Bologna to Rome, where it was completed. The speaker emphasized the religious element in the drama. The first act closes with a prayer, a firm faith in the divine love; the fourth act with the old Titanic tones, the half-defiant song of the Fates. Which spirit will prove the stronger, the saving faith or the old curse on the house of Tantalus? This question is the centre of the dramatic interest. The liberation from the ancestral curse through the pure devotion and moral strength of *Iphigenie* has a parallel in Goethe's own experience: the soul emerging from the Titanic struggles of the *Sturm und Drang* into philosophic contemplation and quiet trust. The heaven-storming spirit of his Prometheus, with the defiant question to the gods, "I honor you! wherefore?" is

calmed. The old rebelliousness against the divine justice echoes still in the song of the Fates, but like the memories of early childhood, the almost forgotten tones of long dead times; and to the angry "Wherefore?" of the *Sturm und Drang* the Hellenic repose of *Iphigenie* gives answer:

"Denn die Unsterblichen lieben der Menschen
Welt verbreitete gute Geschlechter."

Reconciliation in its widest sense is the theme of the "Iphigenie."

The speaker drew a brief comparison between the final version in verse and the prose version of 1781. The process of recasting the prose into metric form refined the conception of the whole, and suggested many delicate touches which the prose version had missed. The finer atmosphere of the verse required a further spiritualization of the beings that were to breathe in it. No reader can fail to be impressed with the singular purity which the very cadence of the verse lends to the heroine's character. In Bologna, before Raphael's St. Cæcilia, Goethe had resolved that his *Iphigenie* should never utter a word that might not have fallen from the lips of this saint. To Raphael's fine spirit are due, perhaps, many of the more subtle touches that distinguish the Italian from the German *Iphigenie*.

The oration was followed by some interesting communications from Erich Schmidt. Important MSS. relating to the second part of "Faust" have been found, though not in perfect preservation. The whole plan of the second part has been saved; it shows some insignificant variations from the form familiar to us—the incident of the paper money is, for instance, wanting; on the other hand, much new material has come to light, with some valuable hints from commentators. What Prof. Schmidt revealed stimulated, without gratifying, curiosity. He gave timely emphasis, however, to the fact that the days of "Sphinx" criticism are past, and the second part of "Faust" can no longer be thrust aside as a collection of disconnected old man's fancies. Quite as untenable is the view of the oracular interpreter who whispers of a wealth of mystic prophecy, as in the visions of St. John. A healthy appreciation of its high poetic worth has restored the second part to its proper rank as an inseparable member of the "Faust" poem. The conception of the *whole* of "Faust," wrote Goethe a few days before his death, was complete from the beginning. It had required sixty years to bring it to paper. He had conceived the plan of composing a poem of human life, and had waited for a *whole* life's experience to furnish him the materials. Erich Schmidt's address, as a specimen of philological scholarship, and Kuno Fischer's free, æsthetic treatment of his subject, afford excellent examples of the two forces united in the Goethe Society to the attainment of a common end.

The business reports were most satisfactory. The membership has reached nearly 3,000. England and America manifest a lively interest. The English branch publishes its first Year-book, and a new society has been formed in Manchester. Numerous gifts keep the treasury well filled, in spite of increased expenses. The library of MSS., letters, and printed books has been augmented by gift and purchase, and has reached a point of great completeness in the short space of three years. Through the efforts of the Grand Duchess, the literary remains of the Chancellor von Müller and of Eckermann have been secured—among the treasures of the latter being twelve *Volkslieder* collected by Goethe in 1771 from the lips of Alsatian peasants. The third publication of the Society, announced last year, will appear in the autumn; it will contain reproductions of twenty-two drawings from the hand of Goethe. Of the Goethe Museum little can be added to what readers of the *Nation* are already familiar with. One note is of interest. Besides the large collections of engravings, casts, geological specimens, and the numerous other evidences of Goethe's manysidedness, there is a collection of skulls. I am assured on good authority that, in the arrangement of these specimens seventy years ago, Goethe followed certain principles of his own which are to-day generally regarded as the result of the most recent scientific investigation and experience.

At the banquet in the afternoon some one hundred and fifty guests were present. Judge von Simson presided. It had been his office on two similar occasions to propose the first toast. The old enthusiasm was quieter this year, and there was something of sadness, hoping against hope, in the sentiment:

"Die Zahl der Tropfen, die er hegt,
Sei Euren Tagen zugelegt,"

with which each member raised his glass and drank the first toast to the Emperor Frederick. Grateful appreciation of the unwearied and disinterested energy of the high protectorate under which the Society stands, found expression in the toast of Herr von Loeper to the Grand Duke and Duchess of Saxe-Weimar. The Society listened then with much interest to an earnest story told by an old gentleman, who had known Goethe; it was the Hofrath Gille of Jena. He had often been employed as a messenger to the house of his Excellency, and remembers the kindly tone in which Goethe inquired into his boyish affairs. Of all days one is most memorable. The mourners were descending the Italian staircase as he entered. They had just left the room where shortly before the words "Mehr Licht" had been uttered and the great spirit passed away. It became Gille's duty to watch a whole night through by Goethe's side. The face lay in full, bright light; the classic features were in perfect rest, without sign of death, seeming to sleep—as if the body were immortal like the soul. The drawing which was made at the time, Gille assures us, is very like. The simple story of fifty-five years ago formed a pleasing incident in the festivities. The toast which was drunk to the President of the Society called forth a speech of unusual interest. In a few well-chosen words Simson sketched the story of his eventful life. He, too, had known Goethe. In the archives had been found a note from Eckermann introducing to Goethe "a promising young man of the name of Simson." Him who has seen Goethe fortune will never quite abandon, and to good fortune Simson modestly ascribed much of his success. He was a member of the Parliament of 1848, and was of the committee whose offers to the King of Prussia were peremptorily refused, as coming from the people. A strange turn of events brought him to Paris in 1870-1, and again he was of the delegation whose offers, as coming from the people, were not refused by the King of Prussia. It is a piece of rare historic and poetic justice that the member of Parliament in 1848 should still preside in 1888 over the highest court of the empire, in the building up of which he has played so interesting a part. Scattering toasts formed an easy transition from speech-making to general conversation, and need no mention here—except, perhaps, the toast to Schiller, which was appropriately addressed to his grandson, who was present, the Baron von Gleichen-Russwurm.

In the evening the Society met in the Court Theatre, as guests of the Grand Duchess. Two short plays of Goethe had been selected, and, thanks to the energy of the management, found favor in the eyes of an at first somewhat sceptical public. The first was the oldest that has come down to us of Goethe's plays: "Die Laune des Verliebten," a merry little idyl from the old student days in Leipzig, and reminding one of the paintings of Watteau. The second piece was the rollicking farce, "Der Jahrmarktsfest zu Plundersweilern," written already in the Frankfort period, and several times performed to the entertainment of the court at Ettersburg. Nothing could have been better adapted to the amusement of an after-dinner party; and the many-colored fun of these village revels, with the highly humorous shadow scenes from Old Testament history, brought the day to a merry close.

The departing guests of "Athens on the Ilm" took with them the memory of happy days in association with the great spirits of the past and the leading spirits of the present. The belief is gaining ground that the Goethe Society will not have finished its mission when the last volume of Goethe's works has appeared, but that it has a future in which it will be called upon to deal with problems of far wider range. The Grand Duke recently expressed the hope that out of this society, by natural and unforced development, a general parliament of German scholarship might arise, that should bear some resemblance to the French Academy, and, among other benefits, supply the German people with an "Academie der Sprache." Upon the initiative of the State such an institution is impossible, but the unifying and reconciling tendencies of a society such as this, render this hope, if not at first sight credible, at all events not chimerical. Rahel said of Goethe: "He is the point of union for all that goes under the name of man." About him as a point of union, the workers in the world of literature are already rallying. For Germany specifically, Goethe is perhaps the surest hope for the permanence of the united fatherland. A certain writer, whose genius and learning give his words weight, has recently said the time is coming when what Dante has been and still is to Italy, Goethe shall be to Germany. The Goethe Society is a form which this growing influence has taken. One of the toasts I omitted to mention; it was proposed by Herman Grimm to the Society itself, in the assured belief that not the members alone, but many thinkers and doers in many lands, will unite in the wish, "Sie möge gedeihen!" C. H. G.

PRIMITIVE CIVILIZATION IN ITALY.

RIETI, June 6, 1888.

THE most important elements in the recent archæological discoveries in Italy from the scientific point of view, are, I believe, those which throw light on the pre-Etruscan civilization of the peninsula. The recent discoveries at Sybaris, while a great disappointment to those who hoped to find the remains of a Greek city buried five centuries B. C., and therefore furnishing in its remains a definite line of demarcation in the arts, have on the other hand thrown an important light on the question of the state of Italian civilization prior to the advent of the Greeks.

The results of the excavations of the necropolis near the site of Sybaris show that it was the cemetery of a race which had not yet felt the influence of the Hellenic civilization, and as at best the site can only have been ten miles or so from Sybaris, it seems impossible that it should not have been anterior to the arrival of the Greeks. I say seems so, for Pigorini, who

is an eminent authority, holds that the remains are those of an Italic tribe which drifted down into contact with the Greeks after the advent of the latter; but as he gives no reason for his opinion, and the entire absence of traces of Greek art in the objects found is an excellent reason for the contrary, I consider his opinion outweighed by that of Fiorelli, our highest authority in such matters, with whom are Gamurrini, the most experienced excavator of prehistoric remains in the district which must provide the material for our decisions, and Barnabei, the head of this section in the department of antiquities, all of whom hold no doubt as to the prehellenic date of the material discovered in the necropolis of the Sybarite district. I do not know what are the opinions of Lanciani, our other great authority on Italic prehistory, but I believe, from his previously expressed opinion on the Latin finds, that he would be with Fiorelli.

But the importance of the attribution of these objects will appear only when we learn that they are identical with the earliest art found in Vetulonia, Civita Castellana (the antique Falerii), and the most archaic tombs of Corneto (Tarquinia) as well as, in certain details, with the finds in the lacustrine deposits of the northern provinces of Italy. Especially the finding in all these named localities of the cinerary urns of the hut type, whose discovery on the top of the Alban mountain under two strata of volcanic deposits had long been considered the earliest evidence of Italian civilization, must be considered evidence of a common Italic civilization distinct from the Etruscan. The occurrence of these evidences of it in a district like that of the Basilicata, where the Etruscans never went, proves its independence of them, while its priority in development to the remains recognizable as Etruscan in locations like Falerii, Tarquinia, and Vetulonia proves its widespread existence prior to any distinctly Etruscan domination, and, I believe, prior to the Etruscan colonization.

Great weight must be accorded to the opinion of Helbig, who maintains distinctly that all this early art is early Etruscan, and that the well-tombs which at Tarquinia disclose the hut-urns in perfection are but an earlier form of Etruscan burial—in other words, that early Etruscan and archaic Italic are identical. Helbig's opinions are those of a profound student and master in this province, and must be met, if rejected, by grave objections. Fiorelli, however, finds them untenable, as do the Italian archæologists with whom I have personal acquaintance, and the Sybarite tombs are of the most serious importance in this controversy. Fiorelli maintains the existence of a primitive Italic civilization anterior to the Etruscan, and holds the community of these products of an archaic art from such widely separated localities as proof of it. Gamurrini goes further, and would identify it with the Pelasgic civilization to which so many traditions testify. And Castellani, in his discussion (informed by a most intimate technical knowledge of his art) of the early goldwork of Italy, shows that the most beautiful and characteristic art in this branch comes from places where there is no question that the Etruscans never had a footing. The enormous remains of civic greatness in the southern provinces of Italy entirely beyond the range of Etruscan influence, the walls of the great cities of Alatri, Arpino, and innumerable others in that section of Italy south of the valley of the Tiber —the country of the Sabini, Marsi, and Hernici—and even as far as Sicily, make it impossible to admit the priority of Etruscan civilization; for even Helbig concedes that the Etruscans came in about 900 B. C., while we have no tradition of any contemporary political organization except that of the Latin tribes which preceded Rome, and whose evidences we have in the remains of Antium, Ardea, Lanuvium, etc.—probably contemporary with Etruscan domination further north, since they are by tradition long prior to the foundation of Rome, while the ruins of Alatri, Arpino, and Segni, only a few miles away, are of an art utterly diverse and unquestionably far more primitive.

But in one of the well-tombs at Corneto was found a bronze helmet and bronze sword of admirable workmanship—early, because prior to the knowledge of the art of soldering—and, according to all authorities, of eastern provenance, and with them a hut-urn and the most primitive forms of hand-made pottery. Helbig, to maintain his theory, must bring this deposit down to the ninth century, and accordingly he considers it Carthaginian; but is it not equally to be explained by Fiorelli's hypothesis of an earlier Italic civilization which had occasional intercourse with the East—intercourse common enough in the Etruscan days?

It seems to me impossible to crowd all the evidences we have into the centuries between the Dorian emigration and the Etruscan arrival and the beginnings of Roman history. The colossal ruins in southern Italy, all of a stone-working epoch, cannot be thus disposed of, and furnish, it seems to me, indisputable testimony to the reality of the great Italic civilization of which the Latin, the Sabine, and whatever others might lie beyond were the fragments and successors.

Here, at Rieti, the ancient Reate, the stronghold of the Sabines, we have still confirmatory evidence, for the earliest remains to be found are not Pelasgic, but of the early Latin epoch, long anterior, if judged by the technique, to the oldest fragments of Rome, but also long posterior to the remains of the Pelasgic cities found beyond it in every direction. Even on one of the hills which dominate the plain of Rieti are some remains of the walls of one of them, built when a lake was where now the plain is; and beyond, to the southward for many miles, they multiply. Here the Etruscan never came; the indomitable mountaineers yielded only to the steady invasion and organized resources of Rome. The last point at which, so far, we can find traces of the Etruscan overlapping the earlier work, is at Cesi, at the opening of this valley, and in front (so to speak) of the gate of this great mountain country where the Italic civilization held its own longest. And Cesi is one of the most interesting points in this comparative study which I have yet visited. The remains of the early wall are of what is known as the first Cyclopean style. Huge masses of rock, unworked in any way, form a defence around the foot of a cliff penetrated by numerous caverns, in which it is reasonable to suppose were the first dwellings of the citizens. It has long been agreed by the authorities on this matter that the dwellings of these Pelasgic cities were in wood or some other perishable material, for in none of them, where they were abandoned in the early period, do we find a trace of interior construction. Walls of loose stone laid in, and plastered with mud, to keep the wind out, may not have been unused, but there is no evidence of them, nor could we expect to find any, as such walls for dwelling purposes could not long resist the elements when abandoned to them; but such aggregations of stone as even these would have left do not appear, and we have a right to believe that the first dwellings in these cities were in wood or skins, and that wall-building was purely a defensive labor. Here at Cesi we find the civic condition in the transition from cave dwelling to city dwelling proper, for with the defensive wall the city began.

To my great surprise, no excavations in the caves of Cesi have been made, though they would seem to promise most important results. That the city was a very early one is clear, and of its importance we can judge by the remains which indicate extensive and unusually complicated defensive works in the second Pelasgic epoch, and subsequently the Roman, ending with the destruction of the city and the removal of the habitants to Carsoli, on a lower site a few miles away, and with the return to Cesi from Carsoli in the middle ages, when Carsoli was sacked by the barbarians. That the Etruscans held it, is clear from their cippi, found in the necropolis near by, though, as no systematic excavations have yet been made, it is quite impossible to place the few remains we have. A few cippi found in digging the fields around are built into the walls of the houses for preservation, and the enterprising and intelligent Syndic, Signor Eustachi, has gathered and will impart all we know of the history of the city. A charming drive of five miles from Terni brings us to the old city overlooking the valley of the Nera, and the country between Narni and Spoleto—a beautiful and healthful country, which must in all ages have been an attraction to the races that traversed Italy. W. J. S.

Correspondence.

FACT VS. THEORY OF LAW.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the *Nation* of last week a correspondent of yours expresses difficulty in understanding a distinction drawn by Von Holst, when writing on the President's veto power, between a *fact* and a *theory of law*. The distinction is doubtless too profound for most of us, but may be illustrated by an example from its author's 'Constitutional History of the United States.' This elaborate work, in discussing Jackson's veto of the Bank Bill, assumes broadly the theory of law that the United States Supreme Court's decision that the bank was constitutional was conclusive upon the President, and deprived him of any right to enter upon the question; and the author indulges in some little Teutonic eloquence upon the subject, maintaining to the full that the court had ended the matter, and that their decisions are, by our *theory of law*, always final and conclusive, even upon other departments of the Federal Government, upon all questions of constitutional power.

Some years ago, wishing to see how far authors would adhere to this doctrine when the court chanced to decide in a way which did not suit their ideas, Von Holst occurred to me as one who upheld the doctrine broadly when the court had the luck to be with him; so I turned on a venture to his pages on the question of the right to take slaves into the Territories, and found, as expected, that his *theory of law* went at once to the four winds of heaven. He there argues that Calhoun's position was "logically, historically, and constitutionally, absolutely untenable," and then says the "only one argument of real weight" in Calhoun's favor was that the Supreme Court had twice rendered decisions which, *if correct*, bore out his doctrine; and then, with supreme oblivion of the *theory of law* as to the finality of judicial decisions, he proceeds to prove to his own satisfaction that the court was *wrong*.

His opinion on the Bank Bill veto was certainly based on a *theory of law*, so probably his later cruel desertion of his own adopted child was based on some abstruse conception he would call a *fact*. Can one wonder that people call things "mere" theories when they are so easily cast away, like an old collar that has grown frayed and irritates one's neck?

Very respectfully yours, WM. M. MEIGS.

PHILADELPHIA, June 18, 1888.

Notes.

A PIQUANT work about to appear at Jacksonville is 'Carpet-Bag Rule in Florida,' being the inside workings of the reconstruction of civil government in that State after the close of the war, by John Wallace, late Senator from Leon County. The author, formerly a slave of unmixed African blood, sought freedom in the Union lines when Gen. Burnside was operating in North Carolina, and afterwards enlisted and fought on the Union side. He has served for twelve years in both branches of the Legislature, and now holds "that the ascendancy of the Democratic party to the State Government in 1877 has proved a blessing in disguise to the colored people of Florida."

Mr. Wm. Henry Perrin has prepared for the Filson Club a work on 'The Pioneer Newspaper Press of Kentucky,' which will be published by John P. Morton & Co., Louisville, Ky., and sold to subscribers in a limited edition.

'Uncle Tom's Tenement,' a novel by Mrs. Alice Wellington Rollins, will be published next month by the William E. Smythe Co., Boston.

Henry Holt & Co. will be the American publishers of 'A Modern Brigand,' by the author of 'Miss Bayle's Romance.' Its characters are, Daudet-like, thinly disguised contemporary notabilities in the British financial world, and even in politics.

John B. Alden announces 'A Fortnight of Folly,' by Maurice Thompson.

Clarke & Carruth, Boston, have in press 'Among the Theologies,' by Hiram Orcutt, LL.D.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. have in press a biography of Delia Bacon, who in her 'Philosophy of Shakespeare's Plays' announced and vigorously maintained the theory that Sir Walter Raleigh, Bacon, and others were the real authors. The book, from the pen of Mr. Theodore Bacon of Rochester, contains many letters of interest by Carlyle, Emerson, and Hawthorne.

An anti-Baconian work, in the sense that praise of any other Republican candidate is dispraise of Blaine, is 'William Shakspere Portrayed by Himself,' by Robert Waters, author of a 'Life of Cobbett,' announced by Worthington Co.

Mr. Chas. G. Leland's 'Dictionary of Slang, Jargon, and Cant,' now in the press of Whittaker & Co., London, will be followed directly by a work on 'Americanisms' from the same hand.

A new eclectic monthly periodical is announced, "*Current Literature:* A Magazine of Record and Review." Book reviews will form an original feature. Publication will begin next month at 42 West Twenty-third Street, New York city.

At the same time the Photo-Gravure Co. of this city will issue *Sun and Shade*, a periodical "composed exclusively of plates by the finer photographic reproduction processes." Each number will have as a supplement a plate, 14x11, in copper-plate photogravure.

The first number of *Belford's Magazine*, edited by Mr. Donn Piatt, is before us. This new venture patterns after *Lippincott's Magazine* in so far as it gives a complete novel each month. In other respects it is what the prospectus led us to expect. Mr. Thomas G. Shearman furnishes the opening paper, on "Protection, the Enemy of Wages"; Mr. J. S. Moore has something to say about "Free Wool"; Mr. Henry George addresses a word "To Workingmen"; Mr. Frank H. Hurd begins papers on "Tariff Reform"; while the editor himself lays about him vigorously in his own department, discoursing of "Free Trade and Congress." Evidently, the Republican managers must reckon with *Belford's Magazine* in the coming campaign.

A special distinction of size, paper, type, illustrations, and collaboration has been achieved by the *Universal Review* in its first issue of May 15 (London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: International News Co.). We recognize its general indebtedness to French models, particularly to the larger and costlier *Les Lettres et les Arts*. Sir Charles Dilke discusses "The State of Europe and the Position of England," having in mind the possibility of a Franco-Russian alliance as the result of Boulanger's rise to dictatorship. Emily Crawford depicts Boulanger's amiability of manner and character. Mrs. Lynn Linton analyzes those stories of Zola in which he has kept most faithfully (and also least indecently) to the *idée mère* of the Rougon-Macquart series. An anonymous writer deprecates distrust of American securities. The editor, Harry Quilter, criticises with great frankness the pictures in the Royal Academy. Earl Pembroke offers some brief considerations on the reform of the House of Lords. Classic learning is reflected in A. W. Verrall's "Roman of Greater Rome," with its metrical translations from Martial. Louis de Fourcaud vindicates, in French, Balzac's love or appreciation of music. Per contra, Daudet's new novel is begun in English ('One of the Forty'). The sum of all this prose is perhaps not very weighty. The poetry, though by Lewis Morris and Edwin Arnold, is of little worth. The illustrations, especially of the Academy paintings, are very good, being French-made. But the original sketches here reproduced as ornament are mostly feeble.

M. Salomon Reinach opens the March number of the *American Journal of Archæology* (Boston: Ginn & Co.) with an interesting comparison of an antique Greek head picked up at Smyrna with an inscribed portrait bust of Plato in the Old Museum at Berlin. A large photogravure of the former accompanies the article, and there is a little process cut of the Berlin bust. Whatever may be thought of the identification, the new head is a striking one. Mr. W. M. Ramsay contributes the second of his three papers on the antiquities of Southern Phrygia, with route maps; Mr. S. B. P. Trowbridge figures some archaic Ionic capitals found on the Acropolis of Athens, which serve as missing links in the evolution of the order; Mr. Alfred Emerson has a discursive and rather prolix article on a bronze votive offering in the Museum at Metaponto, Italy, and Dr. William Hayes Ward interprets two stone tablets, with hieroglyphic Babylonian writing, which are beautifully photo-engraved. There is the usual comprehensive and orderly miscellany of news, reviews, etc.

The eighth and ninth numbers of the current volume of *Vom Fels zum Meer* (New York: F. W. Christern) have a special interest at the present time. The first named contains a long biographical notice of the Emperor Wilhelm I., by Gottlob Egelhaaf, with a remarkable array of portraits from infancy to old age, and other illustrations, including a fine double-sheet engraving of the two Emperors whom Germany has been called upon to mourn since the year came in. This is followed by an anonymous paper on the Hohenzollerns, with more portraits, from Frederick the first Elector of Brandenburg down to Frederick III. Finally, Wilhelm I. is again the topic of an article by Theodor Braun. In the ninth number Eugen von Jagow gives brief reminiscences of the same monarch. Noticeable besides is an article on Paul Veronese, by Oscar Doering, with many illustrations.

Some useful suggestions for the teaching of rhetoric may be derived from a paper by Mr. William B. Chamberlain on literary work in colleges, based on a special inquiry made at Oberlin. It will be found in the pamphlet Transactions of the nineteenth annual meeting of the Association of Ohio Colleges (Columbus).

The Library Edition of Besant and Rice's novels (Dodd, Mead & Co.) is extended by 'Ready-Money Mortiboy,' 'The Seamy Side,' and 'The Chaplain of the Fleet.' The volume first named has an etched portrait of the late junior partner in this literary firm.

Roberts Brothers add 'Rhoda Fleming' to the Popular Edition of George Meredith's works.

Besides his 'Physiologie des Quais de Paris,' which we have already announced, M. Octave Uzanne is engaged on a 'Dictionnaire du Bibliophile,' a much needed work. His New Year's book will be 'Le Paroissien du Célibataire,' illustrated by M. Lynch.

M. Ernest Legouvé continues the publication of his "Théâtre Complet" (Paris: Ollendorff; New York: F. W. Christern). We have already noticed his volume of one-act comedies, and now comes a volume of 'Comédies et Drames,' containing "Louise de Lignerolles," "Par Droit de Conquête," and "Adrienne Lecouvreur." Most of the matter in the prefaces to these plays has already appeared in M. Legouvé's 'Souvenirs.'

M. Vitu of the *Figaro* has just issued the fifth volume of his 'Mille et Une Nuits du Théâtre' (Paris: Ollendorff; New York: F. W. Christern), in which we find the five hundredth night, and which covers only the performances of 1877. If critics are

> "miracles of learning
> Who point out faults to show their own discerning,"

we must express our wonder that any one as well informed as M. Vitu should seemingly be ignorant of the anonymous share which M. Sardou had in dramatizing Paul Féval's 'Bossu,' known in English as the "Duke's Motto" (p. 301). M. Jules Lemaitre sends forth the second volume of his 'Impressions de Théâtre,' as bright and as lively as the first. M. Lemaitre is fond of dwelling on the side-shows of the stage—the ballets, the *cafés-chantants*, the circus, and so forth; and this allows a critic the chance to suggest that he has apparently never read the delightful memoirs of Robert-Houdin, or he would not think him a representative of the old school of modern magic. The fact is, that it was Robert-Houdin who made over the whole art of conjuring.

'Paris—Histoire, Mouvements, Administration,' by M. Fernand Bournon (Paris: Colin; New York: F. W. Christern) is a young folks' history of the capital of France to be warmly recommended to all parents who are likely to take their children to the banks of the Seine. A bright boy or a clever girl would enjoy the

first part, in which the annals of Paris are sketched; and would gain a glimmering of architectural knowledge from the second part, which considers the chief buildings of the French capital chronologically. Nor would the final division, describing the organization of the city as it is to-day, be without interest. We wish that there were as good a sketch of New York, as exactly illustrated. Here are thirteen maps and one hundred and fifty woodcuts—none of them the fancy pictures only too often found in American books of the same class. M. Bournon is better equipped as an antiquary than as a literary historian; and this is perhaps the sole excuse for his strange blunder when (p. 334) he puts the famous first performance of "Hernani" at the Odéon instead of at the Théâtre-Français.

The present Servian Minister of Foreign Affairs, Mr. Tchedomil Miyátovitch, has just published, in the Proceedings of the Royal Servian Academy, a paper showing that both King Milan and Queen Natalie are descended through the family of Balshitch in the female line from Stephen Nemania, the first Servian King, who died 1159; and that thus the historical continuity of the Servian dynasty has been preserved in the present generation. It may be added that the Balshitch family is descended from the Seigneurs des Baux (near Arles), who were the ancestors of the House of Orange and furnished occupants of half the thrones of Europe. One of this family is said to have gone to the East during the Crusades, and to have founded a little principality somewhere in Albania. The Servian Academy has drawn up a plan for the preservation of public documents scattered in various places through the country, which have hitherto been greatly neglected. There is reason to hope that it will shortly publish a collection of interesting papers relating to the administrative activity of Prince Milosh, the founder of modern Servia.

The one hundredth anniversary of the birth of Vuk Karajitch, the great collector of national songs, and the founder of modern Servian literature and of the literary language, will be celebrated on August 15 (27). On the initiative of King Milan, the Government has contributed 10,000 francs towards the expenses of the celebration.

—A correspondent writes us from Chapel Hill, N. C.:

"*In re* a statement about State executive vetoes in your issue of May 31, I call your attention to the fact that in North Carolina the Governor never signed Acts of Assembly, and does not now. We had bad colonial governors, and our people have never forgotten it."

—We regret to learn of the death at Lucca, Italy, on May 31, of E. Gryzanovski, M.D., a man of very remarkable attainments, and of very brilliant qualities as a writer. In proof of the latter assertion, we might appeal to his contributions to the *Nation* during the years 1870-72. These almost untouched writings will also bear us out in stating that no foreigner in our experience ever used the English language so correctly and gracefully. Dr. Gryzanovski was, in fact, an extraordinary linguist. We learn from the London *Athenæum* of June 9 that he began life as an attaché to the Prussian Embassy at Rome forty years ago, but abandoned diplomacy for medicine, which he practised at Florence, Pisa, and Leghorn, enjoying the friendship of English residents of the eminence of Landor, Browning, Trollope, and Mrs. Somerville (Gryzanovski was, by the way, a profound mathematician). In statistics, too, he was at home, and skilled in the theory of music. Our last communication from him arose from his desire to enlist us in the crusade against vaccination.

—The first two parts of the great illustrated work on the Berlin picture gallery have just been issued by the Museum authorities. The first part deals with the Florentine school of the fifteenth century; the other is devoted to Rubens. Six full-page etchings or engravings accompany, without permanently belonging to, each part. When the work is complete, these plates will require rearrangement. They, of course, form the *raison d'être* of the publication, and challenge comparison with the engravings in similar "Illustrated Galleries," so many of which were issued in the great days of line-engraving. Some of the etchings are very good, notably those by W. Unger. We may mention especially the renderings of Rubens's "Andromeda," Velasquez's "Portrait of Alessandro del Borro," and Van Dyck's "Dead Christ." The line-engravings are delicate in general effect, but lack depth of insight into the feeling of the masters they would interpret. A number of vignettes are included in the text. These are either heliogravures, etchings, or woodcuts. The little etchings are particularly good, and the subjects chosen for heliogravure are well suited for treatment by that dangerous process. The woodcuts are not so good. That after Rubens's battle-piece is entirely inadequate to represent the powerful unfinished picture, which must certainly be considered one of the chief glories of the gallery so fortunate as to possess it. The text is contributed by Dr. Julius Meyer and Dr. W. Bode. It is, therefore, scholarly and authoritative. The essay upon the art of Italy in the fifteenth century is not light reading, but the biographies of artists are good and far more complete than might have been expected in such a work. The information about individual pictures is exhaustive, and would alone suffice to make this publication take rank as an indispensable book of reference. The text is well printed in large type on good paper.

—The April-May double number of the *Centralblatt für Bibliothekswesen* contains a useful list, compiled by H. Stein, of 189 indexes to French historical periodicals, including those devoted to such allied subjects as archæology, art, philology, etc. The titles are given with commendable fulness, and in most cases a brief note as to the utility and plan of the index is appended. The unsatisfactory index of the *Revue des Deux Mondes* receives merited condemnation, as do several others. The compiler promises a second list to include the indexes to non-historical French periodicals, and, if sufficient encouragement be received, proposes to give similar lists of the indexes to English, German, and Italian periodicals. An article by the editor of the *Centralblatt* gives a brief summary of the results obtained by Karabacek and Wiesner from their investigations among the papers of the Rainer collection, and calls attention to the recent experiments made by Martens on modern printing paper. It is stated that out of ninety-two periodicals examined by Martens, sixty-two were found to be printed on paper so largely composed of wood-pulp and other inferior materials that it is doubtful if many of them can be preserved in existence for more than a single century. Karl Trübner of Strassburg gives an interesting account of the negotiations undertaken by him, which led to the restoration of the Libri and Barrois MSS. in the Ashburnham collection to the French National Library, and the transfer to Germany of the famous Manesse manuscript, carried off from Heidelberg during the Thirty Years War, and afterwards presented to the French national collection. Among the book reviews in this number the "Bibliographical Synopsis" of the Ante-Nicene Fathers, prepared by E. C. Richardson, the accomplished librarian of the Hartford Theological Seminary, receives an appreciative notice. The second supplement number of the *Centralblatt* contains a valuable contribution to the knowledge of musical manuscripts in the Middle Ages, with special reference to work of the monks of Reichenau, by W. Brambach, and an attempt by F. W. Roth to clear up some of the confusion concerning the writings of Heinrich von Langenstein.

—The *Zoölogischer Jahresbericht* for 1886, recently issued, shows a marked change of plan, as compared with its predecessors. Instead of four main divisions, comprising over 1,300 pages, we have a single volume of about 450 pages, with 13 separate paginations; the alphabetical index is given up, and its place is taken by an index of authors, with special indexes for one or two of the chief groups. Systematic and faunal zoölogy, which occupied so large a space in former years, is omitted entirely, as are also the reports on Hungarian, Polish, and Russian literature. In the préface the editor takes occasion to censure the irregular ways of certain periodicals, and some of his remarks will bear repeating. In the interest of justice towards conflicting claims to priority of publication, he desires to call general attention to the fact that not a few periodicals, "including such well-known ones as the *Archives de Zoölogie Expérimentale*, the *Archives de Biologie*, and the *Annales des Sciences Naturelles*, follow a trade custom of giving to the completed volume the date of the first number, though several years may have elapsed between that date and the completion of the volume. Then, again, it sometimes happens (as in the case of the *Memoirs of the Museum of Comparative Zoölogy at Harvard College*, the *Archiv für Naturgeschichte*, the *Transactions of the Connecticut Academy*, etc.) that several volumes of one and the same periodical are in course of publication at the same time, their issues extending over a series of years. This must later, of necessity, lead to all sorts of unpleasant confusion. It may, therefore, be permitted to request that the custom of the *Zeitschrift für Wissenschaftliche Zoölogie* be followed, in giving on each number the date of its publication; and this date should be given in the contents of the completed volume, which should also state the year or years which it covers, not merely that for which it may originally have been intended. The question of separate reprints (or, more accurately, off-prints) also demands attention. In many cases it is only with difficulty that they can be recognized as articles from periodicals, bearing, as they frequently do, a separate pagination. It is high time to abandon this old, but nevertheless bad system. Not only should the original pagination be retained, but care should be taken to show plainly the origin of the off-print. To this end it is recommended that upon the first page a note be made of the volume, number, and date of the periodical from which it is taken. Still more to be censured is the custom followed by some authors of sending out these off-prints long before the appearance of the number of the periodical to which they belong, with the implied request that this distribution shall be considered as an actual publication. So far as the *Jahresbericht* is concerned, this cannot be done; it holds fast to the rule that only the publishers' edition of the number can be taken as determining the date of publication." It is doubtful if this protest

and request will have any effect, for the editors of learned periodicals seem to be a law unto themselves, and to have a hearty contempt for anything like regularity in their proceedings. It may not be out of place to add that, though Dr. Mayer's examples of the evils he deprecates have been drawn chiefly from American and French publications, the Germans themselves are among the worst offenders in this respect.

—One of the most noteworthy of recent contributions to the great educational discussion of the day is furnished by the May *Rundschau* in an article by Herman Grimm, entitled, "Die deutsche Schulfrage und unsere Classiker." The writer has in mind, to be sure, the German schools, but his reflections are such as to be of interest wherever people are debating the pedagogical value of the Greek and Latin classics. Grimm begins by formulating the "opinion of the public"—the opinion, that is, of those who hold that the gymnasia do not furnish the education that they ought to furnish. The two criticisms to which most attention is given, are, first, that the students do not learn German history, and, secondly, that they do not learn to handle the German language as they should. These complaints are found by the essayist to be abundantly justified by the facts. He then proceeds to contrast the present time with half a century ago, when the Greeks and Romans were really of supreme importance in education, because they supplied the student with a starting-point for high thought and high endeavor. Then, all antiquity was idealized by both teacher and learner; hence it did not seem absurd to give a great deal of attention to the battle of Pharsalia and only a little to the battle of Leipzig, since men's historical imagination somehow did not regard the actors and issues at Leipzig as belonging to the same order of events with the actors and issues at Pharsalia. But now all this is different. Historical and archæological research have brought to light a vast mass of detailed information concerning the Greeks and Romans, and in so doing have shorn them of their halo. We study them as we study a multitude of other ancient peoples. We have brought them down from the clouds and have learned to criticise and explain them in the terms of modern life. The result of all is, that they have ceased to be for the student an inspiration, and have become instead a cram to be got up for examinations. Such being the state of things, it *does* seem irrational that a German schoolboy should be required to spend so much time upon the study of ancient languages and history that he cannot be taught to wield his mother-tongue creditably, or to understand why his countrymen celebrate the anniversary of Sedan.

—All this, it may be said, is a tolerably familiar lament. The important question is, of course, the practical one, What shall be done about it? Here it is that Grimm's line of thought becomes somewhat novel. If the glamour of the Greeks and Romans is gone, he reasons, we must do something to bring it back. What gave them their importance a few years ago was the fact that they were looked up to; for what makes study profitable is not so much the knowledge obtained as the spirit which the student brings to his work. But now, the argument continues, the prestige of the ancients is not to be brought back by our present methods—neither by the pick and spade of the modern archæologist, nor by the philological hair-splitting of the modern professor. There is only one way to reach the desired end, and that is, for Germans at least, to learn to look at the ancients through the eyes of Goethe and his contemporaries. The schoolboy must learn to reverence antiquity by learning what antiquity meant to the great classical writers of a hundred years ago. Thus the classics may again become an inspiration, if not for their own sake, yet for the sake of the influence they have exerted upon the intellectual history of the fatherland. Such is the thought elaborated by Grimm, with all his well-known literary skill and breadth of historical outlook. He sums up the logic of the situation, as it appears to him, in this definite expression of opinion: "I believe that we are moving in a direction such as will ultimately make the German language and literature the starting-point of all instruction" ("Ich glaube wir treiben in einer Richtung, dass die deutsche Sprache und Literatur zu dem endlich werden wird, von dem alle Lehre ausgeht").

—The agitation which has been going on for the last few months in Italy about the name of Giordano Bruno shows that the conflict between Church and State is far more serious than Italian Liberals and Radicals are willing to admit. The question arose with a proposition to erect a monument to Bruno in the Campo dei Fiori in Rome, where it is said he was burned in 1600, at least in effigy; but it has since gone through a variety of phases, and has given rise to some absurd incidents. The original proposition was made without much reflection when the mania for erecting statues was raging in Italy—simply with the idea that it would be a fine thing to commemorate one of the apostles or martyrs of free thought in the very headquarters of intellectual slavery. There was at that time no political idea in the movement, which started with a few professors and literary men. A very small amount of money was subscribed, chiefly abroad—partly in America—and almost wholly by Protestants, who could not refuse this fine occasion of showing their contempt for the Pope. In point of fact, not enough money was raised to pay for the pedestal of the statue which a sculptor volunteered to make without remuneration. This artist is himself a violent Radical, and when the Municipal Council of Rome showed no signs of erecting his statue, and of allowing him his share of glory, he consulted his political friends, who resolved to use the occasion for a demonstration against the Pope and his claims to Rome.

—The Pope was celebrating his jubilee, and it was thought that the anniversary of the battle of Mentana would be a heaven-sent opportunity for erecting the statue, and for a display of Radical and Republican oratory. But now some of the chief supporters of the scheme, including the well-known statesman Bonghi, withdrew their support when they found that what was intended as a philosophical protest was being turned into an anti-clerical demonstration. The Radicals took up the matter throughout the whole country, public meetings were held in every large and small town, and fiery speeches were made by men who, up to that time, were totally ignorant of Bruno's life and achievements. There were innumerable articles in the journals, and every publisher thought it opportune to bring out a book or a pamphlet about the philosopher of Nola. One might have thought that some great Italian patriot was in question, and not an obscure disfrocked monk. Excitement increased to such an extent that it became necessary for the Roman municipality finally to settle the matter. Their first discussion of the subject was interrupted by the audience, but at last, on May 11, it was decided by a large vote to refuse permission to erect the statue. It came out in the course of the discussion that a bust of Giordano Bruno had been for a long time in the Pincio Garden, although none of the manifestants (if the word may be used) had ever noticed it. Luckily, it would be absurd now to crown it with flowers and laurel leaves. The worst feature of all this has been the attitude of the students throughout Italy, rendered worse by the want of firmness of the University authorities and the culpable negligence of the Minister of Public Instruction. Professors have been almost compelled to deliver eulogies on Bruno; others, who have refused or objected, have been hissed at and publicly insulted. The refusal to grant rooms in the University building for such demonstrations has brought about riots and rebellions of the students, so that it has been necessary temporarily to close several institutions of learning. Encouraged by their success in some places, the students have taken a taste for political manifestations, which led the other day at Bologna to some very disgraceful scenes.

—Two volumes of 'Souvenirs et notes biographiques,' by M. Désiré Nisard (Paris: Calmann Lévy; Boston: Schoenhof), have just been published by the family of the recently deceased Academician and literary critic. These memoirs were written for posthumous publication, apparently with the sole intention of placing in what appeared to the author to be their true light certain much discussed points in his own career, certain misrepresentations from which his memory still suffers. The manner in which he treats these ancient accusations and hatreds makes the principal interest of the volumes. Their literary value consists not so much in what they contain, interesting as that always is, as in the discussions to which they will give rise, and the consequent better understanding of a period which political passion has made legendary even in the most purely literary of its aspects. The general opinion in regard to the points in M. Nisard's life about which the most injurious accusations have been made, will probably change materially before his successor in the French Academy is elected, at the beginning of next winter; and the literary public, so large a part of which has heretofore been inimical to him, may be able by the time that successor is received there to listen with patience, if not with sympathy, to the eulogy of one who has had many enemies, who were always, it has been said, the enemies of his opinions and not of his person.

—Mr. James Gow, who has done creditable work in Greek mathematics, and is not to be confounded with the ordinary run of manufacturers of school-books, has undertaken to compress into a single volume a great amount of information, such as is presupposed in most of the editions of the classics that are intended for preparatory schools. In this compilation he has made use of the most recent authorities, and the young student will find in his 'Companion to School Classics' (Macmillan & Co.) the pith of many books in the space of less than four hundred pages. Of course, much had to be omitted, in order to make the book handy and legible. It does not take the place of a classical dictionary, there is no history of literature, no mythology; but much of the information given would be sought to no purpose in the ordinary manuals, and what is given is conveyed in its true connection, which is a great gain. The scrappy knowledge one gets from brief dictionary articles seldom abides, is seldom fruitful. At the same time, what seems to be an excellent index facilitates reference in the schoolboy's time of need. The illustrations of some of the points in textual

criticism are amusingly insular, but the book was intended for home consumption, and no right-minded man objects to local flavor.

A FAMILY LIFE OF BEECHER.

A Biography of Henry Ward Beecher. By William C. Beecher and Rev. Samuel Scoville, assisted by Mrs. Henry Ward Beecher. Charles L. Webster & Co. 1888.

THIS biography of Mr. Beecher is a volume of 713 pages octavo. A brief appendix and an index, tolerably full, cover about 25 pages, so that, in the remaining 688, the type not being very large, we have a good deal of matter. The preparation of so bulky a volume within the year succeeding Mr. Beecher's death means haste as well as diligence. The diligence would have been greater if the authors had not had recourse so frequently to quotation. They have used the scissors more freely than the pen, and generally with more discrimination. The extracts from Mr. Beecher's sermons and addresses are extremely copious, but they are always welcome. They are the best reading in the book, and their style, though frequently diffuse, and sometimes questionable upon the side of taste, is most agreeable in comparison with the style of his biographers. This surely is not good, whether we speak of Mrs. Beecher's contribution, which is confined (the acknowledged part) to an account of Mr. Beecher's courtship and marriage, or to the mingled work of Mr. Beecher's son and son-in-law. We are left entirely to the matter and the manner to decide which of the two is writing for the time being. Generally it is Mr. Scoville, whose style is marked by an effusive pulpit rhetoric, while Mr. W. C. Beecher's is that of the small local newspaper, tending to broad effects, and to that kind of wit and humor which consists in saying simple things in an involved and polysyllabic way.

Mr. Beecher's autobiographical part is in two sections. These are concerned with the most momentous situations of his life: his English round of speeches in 1863, and the Tilton complication. His account of the latter goes on for twenty-five pages and then comes to a sudden stop, while the affair is still in mid career. It was written in 1874. Confessedly, it has been much doctored by the editors, but, whether injured or improved, its quality is such that we cannot but regret that Mr. Beecher did not exhaust the matter. What his biographers have added is too much intent on fastening an opprobrious stigma upon some of his "enemies." The whole account of "the conspiracy" is very painful reading. It brings back the dreadful period of Mr. Beecher's tragical experience more vividly than to his friends in general will seem right and good. The busy years have done more for his fame than will these recollections and recriminations. Mr. Beecher's account of the matter has the accent of complete sincerity. But then how hatefully his letters and his actions lent themselves to base interpretations! How monstrous must have been the ingenuity that could turn his impulses of foolish generosity into instruments of torture for his sick and wounded heart! At times a great religious exaltation seems to have kept him strong and confident in the midst of his accumulating ills. But the impression is ineradicable that all the triumphs and successes of his life were outweighed by its one tremendous sorrow.

This sorrow would appear to have been hardly for a moment absent from the minds of his biographers. The tone of the whole book is colored by it in no slight degree. It is a tone of advocacy, of defence. Mr. Scoville and Mr. Beecher write almost continuously as if their father's greatness were a matter in dispute; as if it were necessary for them to come to his rescue with the phrases of a cheap and fulsome adulation. Their vaulting ambition frequently overleaps itself, as in the attempt to show that Mr. Beecher was the most prominent and efficient of all anti-slavery workers, and in the contention that he was the greatest preacher since St. Paul, backed by a running comparison of "the least of the Apostles" with the Plymouth pastor. Whether or not we have here errors of judgment, we have certainly errors of taste. Mr. Beecher was not himself superior to such, and some of them have been perpetuated here with excess of fairness, or unconsciously. There were elements in his nature which were as soft and delicate as the flowers he loved. There were also in him elements of coarser grain. His similes and metaphors might sometimes have been more refined without appreciable loss. It is not likely that his biographers would agree to this. A passage so grossly indelicate as that on page 599 is evidence that their own standard of good taste is not such that it would be likely to detect a fault in anything that Mr. Beecher ever said or wrote.

It is not perhaps a matter for surprise that this biography, though so voluminous, adds very little to our knowledge of Mr. Beecher's life and character. It contains no essential facts that were not reported in the various elaborate notices of him that appeared in the leading journals of the country at the time of his death. The material for such notices was abundant, a biography of Mr. Beecher having been published to celebrate his seventieth year, while his sermons and Yale lectures are full of biographical data. The present work confirms the earlier impression that few of our contemporaries have been able to indulge in personal reminiscence to the extent that Mr. Beecher did without offensive egotism, and he had himself at times "something too much of this"—too much for the unspoiled simplicity of his own self-consciousness, if not for the instruction and amusement of his congregation and the community at large.

The poverty of the book is most remarkable in a direction from which we had a right to expect a good deal that we had not had before—his correspondence. Such of his letters as are given are so delightful that our regret is greater that they are so few. And nearly related to this impression is another that is unavoidable—that of a certain solitariness in Mr. Beecher's life. The book gives this impression, but in doing so we do not believe that it is a faithful representation. We have Mr. Beecher presented to us as a famous preacher and a great public leader, and a most affectionate and happy husband and father; but in the relations of friendship he is not presented to us at all except in those that turned to bitterness. But surely Bowen and Tilton were not his only friends. He had many true and tried in Plymouth Church, if not beyond its pale, and that they make no sign is not only an injustice to their brave fidelity, but also to Mr. Beecher's appreciation of their worth; and the failure of the biographers at this point is not one of the least of many grave defects in their too hastily considered work.

A chapter of twenty-five pages is allowed to Mr. Beecher's work as a preacher. It describes the methods of his preparation and his pulpit manner, and pays some slight attention to his theology. Of course, this chapter is not exhaustive of Mr. Beecher as a preacher. There is in the volume considerable incidental reference to his preaching, especially in the chapters relating to his Western life. But evidently this aspect of his career does not touch the hearts of his biographers as does his political activity. His reputation as an anti-slavery reformer and shaper of political events is their peculiar care. It may be doubted whether their estimate of the relative merits of his preaching and his political function is an estimate that will stand fast. It is certain that his preaching is deserving of a more careful treatment than it has received. No stranger to Mr. Beecher's habits of thought and speech would ever get from these pages a just impression of the width of his divergence from the orthodoxy of his time, or of the disintegrating effect of his preaching upon this orthodoxy. As a theologian, he was vague and inconsistent, saying a thing to-day, unsaying it to-morrow; but a little patience on the part of any competent analyst would have brought out some things tolerably clear. The methods of his pulpit preparation—his subject seldom chosen before Sunday morning—were a premium upon that swift forgetfulness which is sure to overtake his sermons if it has not overtaken them already. He deliberately resigned the hope of literary excellence in them that he might increase their immediate effect. They are what we might expect from improvisation. Easy talking as well as easy writing generally makes hard reading. Harder reading than the volumes of 'Plymouth Pulpit' it would be difficult to find. Yet they abound in phrases, in illustrations, in parables, that could hardly have been bettered by the most careful predetermination. The exquisite beauty of Mr. Beecher's thoughts and fancies has little justice done to it by his biographers. They have given us enough of his more wilful and elaborate fine writing about lovely things; but it was the passing touch that best revealed the poetical quality of his mind.

If their treatment of the preacher is not satisfactory, their treatment of the editor is less so, if possible. Of his political work upon the *Independent* we have good examples. Excellent work it was, but not always excellent. There were "On to Richmond" editorials of the most heedless sort. Wendell Phillips's "slave-hound" epithet for Lincoln was hardly more abusive, and was less contemptuous, than Mr. Beecher's editorials, for which in his repentance he made large amends. But a good judge of character he seems never to have been. His biographers have given a much too favorable account of his relation to the Johnson Administration. However honorable his advocacy of a policy of the largest clemency towards the conquered South, his assignment of Johnson to the highest rank of patriotism and statesmanship, to the side of Washington in history, was a capital example of the tendency of his zeal to outrun discretion. The impeachment business was no doubt a great mistake, but that Johnson's utter political recreancy was not overrated by its most ardent promulgators is now established by a host of witnesses—Gen. Grant, perhaps, the most important. Of Mr. Beecher's connection with the *Christian Union* we have the barest mention, and that incidental to the Tilton trouble. Possibly a connection that tended strongly to be sinecure and nominal deserved little more, but the paper represented excellently well one of the most characteristic and most honorable aspects of Mr. Beecher's religious mind—his superiority to sectarian narrowness. If others did the work for which he received the credit on the *Christian Union*, it was a most efficient annex of his pulpit in its plea for unsectarian religion.

More prominence is given to Mr. Beecher as an anti-slavery agitator and reformer than as

an editor or preacher. Here his biographers would claim for him the highest distinction that he enjoyed, and indeed the highest of his time. That they should feel it necessary to make the disavowal contained in the first sentence of the following passage, has its amusing side, but there was really danger that they might not be understood:

"We do not wish it to be inferred from our words that Mr. Beecher was the only anti-slavery leader who was doing good service in those days. There were many others, and some perhaps were doing as effective work in a single line as he. But we believe that when the whole sphere of his activity was [*sic*] considered, he went far beyond any man of his time."

Mr. Scoville and Mr. Beecher are at considerable pains to clear their father of any complicity with the abolitionists. Their success is all they could desire, and their endeavor is the more significant because the claim of abolitionism is frequently put forth for those who were as innocent as Mr. Beecher of the faith of Garrison and Phillips. On page 267, comparing Mr. Beecher with the abolitionists, they write:

"He believed in love rather than hate, and most of all, with a triumphant, joyful faith, he believed in the person, presence, and leadership of the Redeemer and Reformer of the world. In all this he separated from the great body, individuals here and there excepted, of the Garrison and Pillsbury school of abolitionists."

The implication of this passage is doubly false; for it implies, first, that the abolitionists believed in hate; and, second, that the abolitionists, as such, were unorthodox, when Garrison himself was hyper-orthodox through the first decade of abolitionism, and his coadjutors were orthodox almost without exception. Mr. Beecher's own estimate of Garrison is given in a series of paragraphs which have the vice of nearly all the quotations from Mr. Beecher's writings and speeches in the book—there is no indication when they were written or whence they came. Other passages could have been quoted giving a very different and much fairer estimate.

Mr. Beecher was not a little infected with the disposition which gave Garrison so much trouble in New England—the disposition to subordinate the welfare of the slave to the glory of the Church. "My earnest desire," he said, "is that slavery may be destroyed by the manifest power of Christianity." And, again: "I would work for the slave for his own sake, but I am sure that I would work ten times as earnestly for the slave for Christ's sake." His biographers are very proud of these fine sentiments, but they will not make an equally favorable impression upon all.

The awakening of Mr. Beecher's anti-slavery consciousness was a late event. In a college discussion he took the abolitionist side against colonization, but in the West his silence only was remarkable. Once he preached two or three anti-slavery sermons at the requisition of the Presbyterian synod with which he was connected! Coming to Brooklyn, the new atmosphere was favorable to a disposition that ever had in it something of opportunist readiness or hesitation, according to the stress of time and circumstance. His biographers divide his anti-slavery work into five stages, two before the war and three succeeding. There was little need for them to bring their rhetoric or their comparisons to the enhancement of the greatness of the part he played at each of these. The simple facts and the quotations from his eloquent and impassioned speeches, sermons, and editorials, would have been quite enough. None who were active in the anti-slavery movement for ten years before the war, or as it dragged the war into the service of emancipation, will fail of gratitude to the writers who, with whatever incidental faults, have given them another opportunity to live over again the ardors and enthusiasms, the hopes and fears and passionate anxieties and glorious triumphs of those years, all of which Beecher saw, and a very great and helpful part of which he was.

There are many interesting portions of the book of which we cannot speak. The childhood and youth of Mr. Beecher are elaborately treated. His intellectual development was very slow. The chapters on his country life and personal traits contain much interesting matter. His passion for precious stones was a remarkable trait. He always carried a number about with him, and their colors were as soothing to him as strains of music.

There are twenty illustrations in the book besides the steel-engraving frontispiece from which every line that thought and care had made is stippled out. It does not compare with the wood engraving after Dielman's portrait that appeared in *Harper's Weekly* at the time of his death. The other illustrations are woodcuts. The most of them are pictures of Mr. Beecher from various photographs. Either the engraving or the printing has produced a miserable result in almost every case; or are they both in fault? The picture of the church as decorated for the funeral is a pitiful travesty of what was really very beautiful. Funeral services are said to have been held in "the three nearest adjoining churches" as well as in Plymouth Church. Churches in the near vicinity are meant.

It is greatly to be hoped that a biography of Mr. Beecher will be written at some future time more worthy of his genius and his fame than this which bears so many marks of haste, and for which the affection and the warmth of the biographers were no sufficient qualification. But the saying is, "A man cannot be hid," and the man that Beecher was has been only partially obscured by the effusion and the zeal of those who have imagined themselves set for his defence. His splendid animal spirits, his immense good-nature, his facile intellect, his cordial sympathies, his glowing eloquence, his broad humanity—all these illuminate the veil, and manifest themselves so clearly that often we forget that any veil is there.

RECENT LAW BOOKS.

THE enterprising "West Publishing Company" of St. Paul has done well in republishing Prof. Pomeroy's very interesting, important, and valuable essay on water-rights and riparian privileges in the Pacific States. It appears now, revised and edited by Mr. Henry Campbell Black, and is divided into sections, and accompanied by much illustration from later cases at the hands of the editor. The exigencies of mining in a new country, as carried on by a horde of people suddenly rushing in, gave rise to very important departures from the common-law doctrine of riparian rights. And the extreme importance of water for purposes of irrigation in such a State as California has raised questions of the greatest gravity and difficulty as to the respective rights of riparian owners and of others who live away from the stream. Of the "wonderful transforming powers of water," the author gives an illustration from his own observation, when,

"after riding . . . a whole day over the foot-hills, parched and brown and barren, I drove the few miles from the ferry at Merced Falls to the village of Snelling, through what was in fact a rural paradise, through green fields, roads overarched with rows of magnificent trees, and door-yards filled with flowers—all the effect of irrigation obtained from the Merced."

"In the great San Joaquin Valley, east of the San Joaquin River, . . . which at times seems to be an expanse of dry sand, there is hardly an acre which cannot be reached by a well-constructed system of irrigation, utilizing the water of the streams which rise in the high *Sierras*, cross the valley at nearly equal intervals, and empty into the San Joaquin. With such irrigation, the whole valley would be, perhaps, the most fertile district in the world."

In such a state of things the limits of the power of individuals and of the States to divert and consume the water of these streams is one of the greatest interest. Prof. Pomeroy, a writer who always helped forward any discussion upon which he entered, threw much light upon the questions here suggested. After stating the common-law rules upon the subject of water-rights, he examined the peculiar local doctrine of "appropriation," under which a first occupant, although not a riparian owner, may divert water from a stream or inland lake, situated upon the public lands, for any purpose, and wholly consume it, and this even though he should take the whole of it. As regards the rights of owners on what are called private streams, where no such appropriation had taken place, it appears that in seven of the Territories statutes make these owners liable "to have perhaps the entire stream appropriated and diverted away for the benefit of a proprietor whose land is situated at any distance from the stream." In California and Nevada this legislation had not taken place; and, in considering what laws should be adopted there, Prof. Pomeroy urges that the natural rights of riparian owners should be preserved, while all relief consistent with these should be afforded to other landowners needing irrigation. He appears to think it not altogether clear that irrigation for the benefit of any number of landowners, not constituting a separate municipality, would constitute a public purpose within the meaning of our constitutions, in regulating the exercises of the right of eminent domain. But that seems a refined sort of a doubt. The immense importance of irrigation in the States of which the writer is speaking is well set forth, and the total failure of the principles of our inherited common law to meet the matter; it would be difficult to state a thing which is more distinctly one of public concern, in such a country, than securing irrigation for vast tracts of land otherwise a desert.

It is singular to read of the slowness of courts and legislatures to check the operations of the hydraulic miners. This, as formerly carried on, seems now to have been declared a public nuisance; but the editor tells us that the first case of importance was decided in 1884. In that case it appeared that this terrific process of washing away whole tracts of country into the rivers had "filled up the natural channel of the Yuba above the level of its banks and of the surrounding country, and also of the Feather below the mouth of the Yuba, to the depth of fifteen feet or more. It has buried with sand and gravel and destroyed all the farms of the riparian owners on either side of the Yuba, over a space two miles wide and twelve miles long." A great deal more it had done of the same sort; and these evils were increasing. The reader wonders what kind of a population of saints and angels it was that lined these rivers, that they should submit to such things so long.

The law of sales of personal property still offers an excellent field for a thoroughly searching

book. Mr. John F. Baker, in his 'Treatise on the Law of Sales of Goods, Wares, and Merchandise as affected by the Statute of Frauds' (Chicago: Callaghan & Co.), has chosen one of the most perplexed parts of the subject, and he has produced a useful book. The practitioner will find here the important cases, down to the latest ones; and the author's method of making large quotations and statements from the cases in his text puts the reader in possession of much material towards the formation of correct opinions. But Mr. Baker has very imperfectly mastered his own material, and is but a poor guide through all this maze. He shows little apprehension of the historical relation of the cases, and small sign of any deep study of his subject. Yet the lawyer in search of cases, and the student who has already got the clue to them, will find the book of real service.

The second edition of Mr. S. W. Worthington's 'Treatise on the Statutes of Elizabeth against Fraudulent Conveyances, the Bills of Sales Acts, 1878 and 1882, and the Law of Voluntary Dispositions of Property' (London: Stevens & Haynes; Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), has been adapted to the considerable changes of the last fifteen years and largely rewritten. It contains references to American cases and to some of our treatises, as Bump on Fraudulent Conveyances and those of Story and Kent. An appendix has the full text of both the statutes of Elizabeth and of the Bills of Sales Acts of 1878 and 1882; and also nine short cases (1700-1733) "from the Coxe and Melmoth MS. reports." This book appears to have been prepared with thoroughness and minute care. Indeed, the author says of the present edition, "No pains have been spared . . . to include every [English] case which may appear to bear upon its subject-matter." A valuable feature of the index of cases is the citation of various places where the case is reported—a thing of great service to one who has occasion to make a thorough study of a case. It seems a pity that the author did not carry this a little further and make it include every place. In point of printing, this is a fine specimen of a law book; and, in the substance of it, it appears to be what its author aimed at, "a complete and trustworthy book," as regards the main topics of which it treats.

A very important and interesting topic is dealt with in Mr. Lewis Hochheimer's 'Law relating to the Custody of Infants' (Baltimore: John Murphy & Co.), a valuable and highly useful book. The author has quoted largely from the cases, and he gives good reasons for it:

> "In the discussion of a branch of the law that, to a greater extent than any other, calls for the direct application of legal principles to the facts and circumstances of particular cases —where, in other words, the place occupied in other branches of municipal law by fixed general rules and settled doctrines is to the greatest extent superseded, in the determination of controversies, by direct reference to legal reason and legal principle—the facts of cases and the reasons advanced for judgments rendered assume unusual importance. Great care has, therefore, been taken in this book to state fully and accurately the facts of important cases, and the language of the courts is, in numerous instances, freely quoted."

The author has compared the English law with the freer American development of it, and has handled the cases with skill and judgment. This book illustrates the advantage there is in allowing to the courts a large discretion in administering the law. It is one of the greatest faults in our American legal administration that we tie up and hamper our judges so much—a sort of confession that we do not believe in their courage or learning, or fitness for their work. This, to be sure, is likely to be a fit and just confession, in a good proportion of cases, where judges are elective. This book is well printed, but it would have been well if something had been saved by having the paper less thick, and something spent in having the binding better.

Great improvements have been made in a new American edition of Benjamin on the Law of Sale of Personal Property, "Bennett's Edition" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). The last American edition was the fourth; we know not why the publishers now abandon the numerical name for the new edition—that is hardly one of the improvements, for several of the former editions have been edited by Bennett. The improvements alluded to are a considerable reduction in the size of the volume (by more than 140 pages), and the rewriting of all the previous American notes, and placing them in the form of monographs at the end of the different chapters. An index should be furnished to these American notes; they comprise, in all, something over 170 pages of pretty close print. Of these notes Judge Bennett, the editor, modestly says that they "may or may not be satisfactory to the reader, but they are the result of some honest personal work." They will certainly be very helpful to the reader, whose chief regret will be that the writer is too sparing of contributing his own effort to settle disputed questions and to explain differences. The extensive collection and convenient arrangement of the authorities, however, the clear statement of cases, the evident familiarity of the author with the important discriminations that belong to the subject, and his summing up of the general result of the decisions, make this large body of notes very valuable. It is much the best of the various editions of Benjamin's excellent book with which we are acquainted. It is strange not to find in this edition any reference to the recent English case of Page vs. Morgan, a very important, if somewhat dubious authority on the doctrine of "acceptance and actual receipt." There are a number of important misprints in the index.

Mr. A. Parlett Lloyd of the Baltimore bar has furnished a convenient and useful book, in his 'Treatise on the Law of Building and Buildings' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co., pp. li., 618). It belongs to a class of legal handbooks which aim to be of service to busy practitioners in a very practical way, without aspiring to help them by offering the results of any deep research or reflection. The absence of any special American treatise on this subject is regarded by the author as "possibly the most remarkable omission in the literature of law in this country." About a quarter of the book is devoted to "Building Contracts," somewhat less than that to "Building Leases," and, again, to "Easements relating to Buildings"; a still shorter consideration is given to "Mechanics' Liens." Added to all this, and of very great practical convenience, are a "Digest of Leading Decisions and Cases on Building Contracts in the United States," and, as regards mechanics' liens, the "Statutory Provisions of all the States and Territories." A serviceable appendix of some fifty pages contains a Glossary of Terms used by architects and builders, and a collection of forms. Much care seems to have been taken to make the book a helpful one. If the Glossary should be thought not merely serviceable, but superserviceable in offering a definition of "arch" and "pig-iron" and "vestibule," on the other hand, a layman may thank it for certifying him as to "astragal" and "strut," to say nothing of "scantling" and "ashlar."

The late Prof. Leone Levi's 'International Law, with Materials for a Code' of that topic (D. Appleton & Co., pp. xii, 346), is a valuable addition to the "International Scientific Series." The author wrote with the aim of helping "to reduce into the form of a code the leading principles of the Law of Nations," and of adding something to what others have attempted: "their works did not include the positive portion of the law—that resulting from treaties and conventions." The work seems to us happily devised, instructive, and calculated to be very useful. There are two preliminary chapters, one of an historical nature, and the second setting forth the "political condition" of the different states of the world, with statistics as to population and extent of territory. This last chapter, in the slight statements which it attempts here and there of the treaty relations of these different states, should perhaps have had more regard to the wants of readers in this country. The body of the work is made up of what the author modestly calls "Materials for a Code of International Law," consisting of 499 brief articles. Considerably more than half of this part of the book (fourteen chapters) relates to treaties, and to "treaty clauses on particular subjects." There is also a valuable chapter on private international law. This little volume has, of course, but a general and brief consideration of its subject; but within the limits which it has assigned itself, it seems to us a book of much value. In these days of telegraphs and treaties, and international postal unions and monetary unions, we are all, in a new sense, citizens of the world; in such a book as this we may easily come to a better understanding of our new relations.

'Pratt's Manual of Banking Law' (Washington: A. S. Pratt & Sons; pp. vi, 179) is said upon its title page to be "designed as a clear and accurate statement, in a small compass, of the general principles of banking law and the duties, powers, and liabilities of bank officers." The book appears to have been carefully prepared by a competent person, and to accomplish the design above set forth.

A commentary on the existing Federal legislation upon an important topic is furnished in the 'Removal of Causes from the State to Federal Courts,' by Emory Speer, United States Judge for the Southern District of Georgia (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.; pp. 136). It is called out by "the enactment of sweeping changes in the jurisdiction of the national courts by the Act of Congress of March 3, 1887." This act, and the other chief statutes of recent years of the same sort, belong to what the author calls "the ominous dates March 2 and March 3," and they justify his animadversions upon the habit of "our national law-makers to reserve for the feverish wrangle of the last hours of the Congress" the handling of such delicate and extremely important subjects. The details of this book are not for our columns, but we can speak cordially of the pains and good sense and thoroughness which are shown in its brief but, as it would seem, sufficient discussion of a perplexed matter. In appendices the author gives the Act of 1887 in parallel columns with the then existing legislation; a set of forms; and, in a very instructive and helpful tabular form, "the essential elements" of the jurisdiction of the Circuit Court of the United States under the Removal Acts of 1867, 1875, and 1887.

Mr. W. Hastie's 'Outlines of the Science of Jurisprudence' (Edinburgh: T. & T. Clark; New York: Scribner & Welford; pp. xliv, 282) consists of translations from the Juristic Encyclopædias of Puchta, Friedländer, Falck, and Ahrens. The translator quotes Prof. Sheldon Amos as saying that "modern jurisprudence is emphatically a German creation," and adds:

"To give an introduction to the elements, methods, and forms of that creation is the main purpose of the present effort." One may agree with Mr. Hastie as to the very great advantage that is likely to come to the English law from a better acquaintance with German authors than is common, and yet may heartily regret that he should have chosen the mainly arid and repellant articles which are here translated. One of them begins thus: "Science is a living organism, and has, as such, a supreme positive principle of life. The essential function of scientific encyclopædia is to show what is the idea that animates the several members of this organism," etc. *That*, we venture to think, is not the way to approach the colts that are grazing in the pastures of the English law, and still less their elders. And yet it is perfectly true that Germany has much to teach us before we shall thoroughly understand our own law; and we are glad to see that Mr. Hastie proposes soon to publish a translation of Brunner's 'History of the Sources of the Law of England.' Would that he might follow it up with the same author's incomparable 'History of Trial by Jury.'

The Rev. Dr. A. H. Lewis's 'Critical History of Sunday Legislation from 321 to 1888, A. D.' (D. Appleton & Co.; pp. x, 279) is an excellent addition to the literature of the Sunday question. The calling of the author might lead one to expect an endeavor to enforce certain opinions upon that subject; and, in his brief preface and at the beginning of the book, he does intimate a view that Sunday legislation is put upon too low a ground nowadays: "Either the people in the churches and out of them increase in wickedness, . . . or else there is something radically defective in the claims by which Sunday observance is supported. The explanation lies in this last fact. It is wise, therefore, to seek the origin and philosophy of Sunday legislation as they appear in history." And again: "Some now claim that Sunday legislation is not based on religious grounds. This claim is contradicted by the facts of all the centuries. Every Sunday law sprang from a religious sentiment. . . . To say that the present Sunday laws do not deal with the day as a religious institution is to deny every fact in the history of such legislation. The claim is a shallow subterfuge." But these passages are about all there is in the book which indicate that the author has a case to make out. It is a fair, learned, impartial, interesting, and instructive collection and summing up of Sunday legislation, from Constantine's injunction to rest on the day of the sun-god down to the present year. The last chapter has a brief summary of the legislation of all our States and Territories, and the work is crowned with a full index. A lawyer will find some questions raised in his own mind which are not here answered. How was it, after all the guards thrown around the Sunday by old decrees and laws, that the English courts used to do business on Sundays? In Bracton's 'Note Book' and in the new Selden Society volume several cases occur, of the thirteenth century, where the King's courts appear to have been sitting on Sunday. In the next century the 'Mirror' complains of this sitting on Sunday as an "abusion." And even as late as 1465, in the Year Book of Edward IV., it looks as if the same thing went on. Was this by reason of a dispensation, such as Blackstone mentions, or of special circumstances not recorded?

Prof. Christopher Stuart Patterson of the University of Pennsylvania has published a clear and useful book in his 'The United States and the States under the Constitution' (Philadelphia: T. & J. W. Johnson & Co.; pp. xxxi, 290). The author indicates the character of the work when he says: "Its only purpose is to show by a classification and an analysis of the judgments of the Supreme Court of the United States what the relations of the United States and the States are under the Constitution, as judicially construed by the courts of last resort." The reader will be struck with the intelligent and candid way in which controverted questions are discussed, and with the careful manner in which the cases have been collected, stated, and arranged. The book is a helpful guide to the doctrine of the Supreme Court on the leading topics of constitutional law; and rather more than half of it is contained in the two chapters that deal with the regulation of commerce, and impairing the obligation of contracts.

We will mention a few points in which the work seems open to criticism. In § 125 the statement seems inaccurate that "In the order of supremacy, treaties, duly ratified, are of inferior authority to . . . constitutional acts of Congress." Is it not rather true, as the Supreme Court (Swayne, J.) says, in The Cherokee Tobacco, 11 Wall, at p. 621, that "A treaty may supersede a prior act of Congress, and an act of Congress may supersede a prior treaty"? In § 12 the author says that, "Until . . . 1862, . . . neither statesmen nor jurists had asserted that Congress had . . . the power of making anything but gold or silver coin a legal tender." If this be so, nothing can show better how little close scrutiny had been given to the subject, for it is manifest upon the face of the Constitution that Congress is not limited to these particular kinds of coin. In §§ 12 and 13 the author seems to allow more force than it deserves to the argument that, if the power to "coin money" be regarded as an *express* power to issue a metallic legal-tender currency, it is an implied prohibition to issue a paper legal-tender currency. This point, like almost all others involved in the legal-tender controversy, was admirably handled by Judge Hare in a powerful but little known opinion, in 1864, in the case of Borie vs. Trott, 5 Philad. Rep., 366. "All that can safely be inferred," he says, "in the case of such an instrument [as the Constitution], from an authorization to use a particular means, is not that other means are forbidden, but that this should, if the case requires it, be used." The index of cases is somewhat carelessly arranged. Let any one try, for instance, to find the case of the Charles River Bridge vs. the Warren Bridges. But we will not leave so good a book with fault-finding as our last word; rather with the expression of a confident expectation that the author will hereafter build more upon so good a foundation.

Mr. Joel P. Bishop, the well-known legal author, has printed, with notes and a supplement (Chicago: T. H. Flood & Co.), his Address on 'Common Law and Codification,' delivered before the South Carolina Bar Association at Columbia last December. Mr. Bishop wages an irreconcilable conflict with the advocates of codification. In his view, it was the sin of codification that brought death into the Roman world, and all their woe. Codification seems to him to put an end to reason in the law, and to jurists. It is, he says, the function of jurists, as distinguished from judges, to ascertain just what and how many are the elementary principles of the law, reduced to their smallest proportions. He is very severe upon a class of legal writers whom he terms "pirates," and he speaks of himself as having passed "about forty years, not in writing the jurist works I am calling for, but in contributing thief-food, which, I trust, is performing its humble part in the fattening for a slaughter, whereby the advent of jurists will become possible." His opposition to codification *now* we take to be wholly sound: "If our common law is to be turned into statute law, in all decency let it first be made ready for the metamorphosis. Give it jurists, and let them discover and set before us, duly arranged and condensed, its principles. Do not codify a medley." The jurists, it may be added, will have much to do in the way of an ordered historical exploration of our cases before they can do their work properly. This business is quietly going forward now, and it is putting a soul under the ribs of death. Ignorant jurists are not what we want.

HINSDALE'S OLD NORTHWEST.

The Old Northwest: With a View of the Thirteen Colonies as constituted by the Royal Charters. By B. A. Hinsdale, Ph.D., Professor at the University of Michigan. New York: Townsend MacCoun. 1888. 8vo, 440 pages, 11 maps.

THIS is a centennial volume, published one hundred years after Gen. Rufus Putnam and his forty-seven associates landed on the site of Marietta, April 7, 1788, to live under the "Ordinance of 1787." The "Old Northwest" is defined, in a note to page 280, as embracing the States of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, and Wisconsin, Minnesota east of the Mississippi, and the Erie purchase in Pennsylvania—in all, 265,878 square miles, with a population in the five entire States alone of 11,206,668 by the census of 1880. A country of such extent, and which has in one short century filled up with so many millions of human beings and their teeming wealth, studded over with schools, colleges, and churches, crossed by 50,000 miles of railroad, is worthy of a history. A hundred years ago it contained a few squalid settlements of French *habitants* at Detroit and Sault Ste. Marie in Michigan, at Vincennes and Terre Haute in Indiana, Kaskaskia and Cahokia in Illinois—oases in a desert of roving red savages. With good old-fashioned Fourth of July patriotism, our author has devoted his last and longest chapter to the startling figures denoting this progress, drawing freely on the compendium of the last United States census.

In the opening words of his preface, Prof. Hinsdale thus justifies his undertaking: "Save New England alone, there is no section of the United States, embracing several States, that is so distinct an historical unit, and that so readily yields to historical treatment as the 'Old Northwest.'" Although our author does not pursue the story of the several States beyond their admission into the Union (except in noticing the attempt made in 1823 to turn Illinois into a slave State), the reader of his volume will charitably assume that his group of States does not readily yield to historic treatment as a unit, rather than conclude that the author was unequal to an easy task. He has produced not so much a book as a medley of detached historic essays, reaching back to the first discovery of the North American continent. There is no attempt at or any pretence of independent research. The matter of the story is taken from easily accessible sources—the best passages from Bancroft's History, from Hildreth, or from McMaster; in fact, a few literal extracts from Bancroft are the most readable parts of the book. The style, at its best, strikes us as a studied imitation of the splendid antitheses and clever transitions of Macaulay; often it sinks into newspaper gush, sometimes into slang. Of Macaulay's great art of exciting

admiration of historic personages, our author possesses but a very slight share. The maps are mainly copied from Labberton's New Historical Atlas; they are neatly executed and easily understood.

With all its want of originality, of style, and of historic method, the book is both useful and entertaining. Very few people read Bancroft; McMaster, though treating of the weightiest events in American history and entertainingly written, is in comparatively few hands. The one merit of Prof. Hinsdale's book is, that it fixes the reader's attention on the three "providential" turns in the history of the Northwest —for he maintains that whoever does not see the hand of Providence here, will see it nowhere in the annals of mankind.

First, that the Northwest, explored and conquered by French priests, soldiers, and trappers, became English. He says (p. 68) rather effusively, and giving credit to Mr. John Fiske for the conception:

"We must not allow our admiration of what the French had done in the West to blind us to the fact that the British cause was the cause of the Northwest of America. . . . Montcalm and Wolfe were both gallant soldiers and able commanders, . . . but they stood on the Heights of Abraham that September day for very different things: Montcalm for the old régime, Wolfe for the House of Commons; Montcalm for the alliance of King and priest, Wolfe for habeas corpus and free inquiry; Montcalm for the past, Wolfe for the future; Montcalm for Louis XV. and Madame de Pompadour, Wolfe for George Washington and Abraham Lincoln."

After having, by the Treaty of Paris, driven the French not only out of the country between the Ohio and the Great Lakes, but out of Canada too, the British Crown, by proclamation, forbade any new settlements or appropriations of land west of the Alleghanies, on the pretext assigned by its advisers of avoiding war with the powerful Indian tribes who occupied the great West; but, as American patriots believed, from fear that the colonies might become too populous, too strong, and too independent. After long-continued efforts, Doctor Franklin in 1772 induced the British Ministry to modify its policy, and to authorize the establishment of two colonies west of the mountains; but before the charter passed the seals, revolt broke out in Boston, and British initiative in America ceased for ever. However, Lord Dunmore, the royal Governor of Virginia, holding large interests in Western lands, pushed to the last moment of his authority the Virginia settlements beyond the Kanawha. Yet when the war broke out, there were no English settlers beyond the Ohio, and the recognition of American independence could not, on the usual rule of *uti possidetis*, have entitled the Americans to an acre of that magnificent heritage of freedom.

Here came the second turning point in Northwestern history — the expedition of George Rogers Clark, who left the falls of the Ohio for the Wabash in June, 1778, with two hundred men, and occupied Kaskaskia and Vincennes with the assent of the *habitants*. He was anxious to proceed to the conquest of Detroit, but could not obtain the needful force; and that point remained in British hands till evacuated in 1796 under the Jay treaty. A footnote to page 155 tells the sad story of Señor Vigo, a St. Louis merchant who advanced $12,000 to Clark upon drafts on New Orleans. These were protested. The loan enabled Clark to conquer the Northwest for the great Republic, which was so ungrateful that Vigo's heirs were not repaid till 1876.

Of course, the fate both of the Northwest and of the Southwest was decided by the negotiators at Paris, in the weary months which passed between the news of the surrender of Yorktown and the definitive peace. The courts of France and Spain were but too willing to betray their American allies, and proposed to annex the Northwest to British Canada, while turning the South between the Alleghanies and the Mississippi into a sort of neutral zone, an Indian territory, partly under Spanish, partly under American, protection. The map at page 176 of our volume shows the slender proportions which this proposal would have given to the new nation. The firmness of Dr. Franklin and Adams, aided by the good will of the British Whig Ministry, saved the West to freedom and to prosperity. Lecky says on this subject (vol. iv, p. 273):

"The question of boundaries, however, presented great difficulty, and Shelburne determined, probably wisely, that he would if possible lay the foundation of future friendship by acting as liberally as possible in this concession. The vast unsettled Western country was acknowledged to be part of the United States, England only retaining the right of the free navigation of the Mississippi, which was made the western boundary."

The third question in the fortunes of the Northwest was still open. It was American, not French nor British. But the territory was claimed by New York, Virginia, Connecticut, and Massachusetts, while the statesmen of the small seashore States, especially of Maryland, Delaware, and New Jersey, insisted that the unsettled West, having been conquered by the common blood and treasure, belonged to the United States. This contention had gone on during the war of the Revolution, and had caused Maryland to stand out until 1781 from joining in the Articles of Confederation. Our author is pretty full, and often tries to be eloquent, in speaking of the long contest of the sea-to-sea colonies among themselves and with their less fortunate sisters, and of the land cessions made by New York, Massachusetts, Virginia, and Connecticut, which closed it; but his highest pitch of enthusiasm is reserved for the crowning act in the Northwestern drama—the ordinance of July 13, 1787, which for ever excluded slavery from the vast expanse between the Ohio River and the lakes. The two heroes whose praise is sung by Prof. Hinsdale are Dr. Manasseh Cutler, founder of the Ohio Company, by whose efforts the ordinance was carried through Congress, and Arthur St. Clair, the first Governor of the Territory. St. Clair was removed by President Jefferson in November, 1802, a few weeks only before the recognition of Ohio as a State would have put an end to his Federal Governorship. He was removed for "offensive partisanship," in fact, "for observing in an address lately delivered by you," as Secretary Madison writes to him, "to the Convention held at Chillicothe, an intemperance and indecorum of language towards the Legislature of the United States, and a disorganizing spirit and tendency, of very evil example." St. Clair retired to his "Hermitage," near Ligonier, Pennsylvania; but his creditors, men who had lent him money for the service of the Government, swept it away; they took even the pension, tardily granted him for his gallant services in the war.

"Pathetic in the extreme are the glimpses that we have of his last years. Hon. Lewis Cass, who had known him in happier days, found the old soldier and civilian in his rude cabin eking a livelihood by selling supplies to the wagoners on the road. . . . To him who is acquainted with St. Clair's history, the name always suggests a striking example of ingratitude of men and of republics" (p. 313).

Not to speak of the other merits of the Ordinance of 1787, its chief glory rests on its well-known sixth article of *compact:* "There shall be neither slavery nor involuntary servitude in the said territory otherwise than in the punishment of crimes whereof the parties shall have been duly convicted." The high importance of this short clause can only be estimated when we consider the efforts which were made first in Ohio, then more than once in the Territory of Indiana, and finally in Illinois, both as a Territory and as a State in the days of the noble Governor Coles, to legalize slaveholding. The restraining influence of the "Compact" decided the long and often doubtful battle in favor of freedom. With a slaveholding Northwest, with slaveholding Illinois, the days of emancipation might even now lie in the dim future. Our author does not tell the glorious deeds of Gov. Coles as eloquently as do Lincoln's biographers in the *Century*, yet he says of him: "All in all, it does not seem extravagant to say that Mr. Coles's arrival in the State, in 1819, was more important in its results than the arrival of any other man since Clark summoned Kaskaskia to surrender in 1778" (p. 363).

A separate chapter treats of the Connecticut Western Reserve. When first speaking of the strip of 120 miles along the lake, of which Connecticut reserved to herself the soil, our author, with much pride and small gratitude, points out a blunder in Bancroft. "Grayson (who opposed the acceptance of the cession) can be excused for magnifying 3,250,000 acres of land into 6,000,000, as the geography of the Lake Erie was not then carefully (!) known; but what shall we say of Mr. Bancroft, who repeats the blunder in the last edition of his history?" (p. 248).

American Fishes: A Popular Treatise upon the Game and Food Fishes of North America, with especial Reference to Habits and Methods of Capture. By G. Brown Goode, Assistant Secretary of the Smithsonian Institution. New York: Standard Book Co. 1888.

THERE is certainly a need for just such a book as this of Mr. Goode's for popular use, for the angler as well as the ichthyologist, and treating of the humble as well as of the aristocratic fishes. Of course, it would be impossible to discuss in one volume the 1,750 species of fish that Mr. Goode says are indigenous to our continent, and he has excluded all but those which have value for sport or food. The tarpum or tarpon is mentioned in the former class, to which he has of late been discovered to belong most emphatically. Strange to say, the sturgeon is left out, though in addition to his economic uses he has, within the last year or two, shown instances of his capacity for yielding great sport to the angler. The opening chapter is on the perch, which Mr. Goode thinks does not hold a high enough place as a food or a sport-affording fish.

The chapter on striped bass is worthy of the high character of this fish, and an interesting feature is an illustration from a photograph of twelve bass "caught off S. W. Bridge, Newport, in two hours and five minutes with rod and line—average weight 43⅝ pounds." The spelling of bridge with a capital B gives a desirable flavor of uncertainty as to whether they were all taken with the *one* rod and line which appears in the picture. Among the most entertaining chapters to the general reader are those on the sheepshead, the bluefish, the squeteague or weakfish (called on the southern coast the sea-trout), and the black bass. More is generally known about the qualities of these fish for the angler than of many other kinds, and one ought from the book alone to know how, when, and where to catch them. Mr.

Goode in the "pike" chapter has, along with all other angling writers, been unable to resist quoting Gesner's well-worn tale of the nineteen-foot fish.

The last fifty pages are devoted to the salmonidæ, and begin with a most interesting instantaneous photograph of a salmon leaping up a waterfall. There is, on page 447, a statement made by a Norwegian observer, of the height to which salmon can leap, which appears incredible. Dr. Landmark, who is quoted, says that two masts have been placed across the Drams River. These masts are three and a half feet apart horizontally, and the Professor states that he has seen a salmon jump from the river sixteen feet below across both masts. This is about twice as great a leap as any of those recorded by trustworthy British or American observers. Mr. Goode says:

"I am inclined to the view that the natural habitat of the salmon is in the fresh waters, the more so since there are so many instances—such as those of the Stormontfield ponds in England—where it has been confined for years in lakes without apparent detriment. . . . The salmon of Lake Ontario and its tributaries are thought not to enter salt water," etc.

How can the "natural habitat" of any anadromous fish be either fresh or salt water? Does Mr. Goode mean that the salmon violates his natural tendencies when he goes to the sea, and is in a manner forced to migrate thither? and can he name a single instance in which a salmon has failed to go to the sea after spawning, when possible to do so? Do the salmon which he says are confined in the Stormontfield ponds without detriment, ever breed there the second time? and what authority has he for saying that the Lake Ontario salmon are thought not to go to salt water? There is easy access to the sea from Lake Ontario through the St. Lawrence, and salmon were formerly abundant there. Their way to the upper lakes is shut off by Niagara Falls, and no salmon are or ever have been found in Lake Erie or the lakes about it. Of late years some of the depleted rivers tributary to Lake Ontario have been restocked by the Canadian authorities with the result of again bringing salmon there. A number of streams tributary to the upper lakes have also been stocked with salmon fry within the past ten years, but no salmon has been seen. It has also been established in the past few years that salmon do not, with any uniformity, return annually to "their natural habitat," fresh water, but sometimes stay in the sea two years and perhaps longer. On page 446, Mr. Goode says: "The absenteeism of salmon [from fresh water] is due principally to the dearth of desirable food in the rivers"; therefore we may suppose that the prevalence among salmon of conduct supposed to be peculiar to Irish landlords is justifiable, though the term does convey a tinge of reproach.

These statements on the interesting question of the habits of the salmon are astonishing for any scientific man to make, and detract much from the authority of an otherwise excellent book.

Taxation. Its Principles and Methods. Translated from the 'Scienza delle Finanze' of Dr. Luigi Cossa, Professor in the University of Pavia, Italy. With an introduction and notes by Horace White. Together with a compilation of the State Tax System of New York and Pennsylvania. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1888.

If one may distinguish between the books that teach and the books that educate, Prof. Cossa's 'Science of the Finances' belongs to the latter class. The author never dogmatizes, and never attempts to suppress or belittle the arguments which weigh against his own conclusions. The student must constantly estimate the relative weight of opposing considerations. Those who allow that "the principal and most characteristic difference between one human intellect and another is the ability to judge correctly of evidence," and who also recognize how little the training of this faculty is attempted in our colleges, will appreciate at once the educational value of Prof. Cossa's method. The many-sided treatment which he gives is peculiarly desirable in considering the questions relating to taxation. No subject affects individual and class interests so vitally, and hence none has been so distorted by special pleading. The false and confused views to which this special pleading has given rise are largely removed when all sides are given a fair hearing. No remarkable judicial acumen is then needed to discern many principles as clear as the law of gravitation, and which would have been admitted long ago had not their recognition played havoc with certain vested "rights."

The faults of Prof. Cossa's work are those of style. It is constructed upon the German model. The author has the German professor's love of keen discrimination and elaborate classification. In making clear and distinct the outlines of his subject, his method is that of the anatomist, and not that of the artist. He dissects instead of portraying; and though he always cuts at the joint and never into the bone, it is only the scientific student who can appreciate and enjoy his work. The absence of literary flavor is further occasioned by the severe condensation which is one of the admirable characteristics of the work. Then, too, the treatment of the subject is always abstract. The fact that the book is written from the point of view of an Italian does, indeed, often lend a peculiar interest; but one misses the concrete statement of significant facts regarding the economic condition of Italy.

Turning for a moment to the matter of the book, one notes that the author rejects the Manchester doctrine that the duties of the state are simply those of protecting life and property, yet does not belong to the new school which teaches that taxation is a practicable and desirable method of bringing about a more equitable distribution of wealth. One of the duties which he assigns to the state other than those of "the night-watchman" is the control of railways and telegraphs. Yet he is so far from being Socialistic in his tendencies, that he classes the school taxes among those to be paid upon the principle of fees, to be fixed precisely by the expense occasioned by each recipient. To Professor Cossa as to Professor Roscher, the American idea of supporting the public schools by taxing merely the property-owners would probably appear "dangerously Socialistic."

Prof. Cossa does not in this volume deal specifically with the question of protection, though he lays down the principles necessary to its solution. When he urges that no person or corporation should be exempt from taxation; when he declares that there should be "a minimum of difference between the amount turned into the treasury and that obtained from the contributors"; when he shows how indirect taxes burden unjustly the incomes of the poor, he destroys the foundations of the protective system. In one respect, however, he is not in sympathy with most free-traders. The fact that indirect taxation may be made to yield immense revenues without the people being aroused to consider the extent, or the justice, or the necessity of their burdens, is not even mentioned as an argument against the system. In an American writer, Prof. Cossa's leaning towards indirect taxation would indicate a student of political extravagance, and not a student of political economy. His view, however, is fully explained by the extreme fiscal necessities of the Italian Government.

Regarding the problems of local taxation, perhaps the most interesting view maintained by Prof. Cossa is that in levying the tax upon dwellings the smallest house-rents should be exempt from taxation, and in general the rates should increase with the rental value. In America the taxes upon dwellings fall indirectly upon the renters, and for this reason their justice or injustice has never been considered. The brunt of our local taxation falls upon the property-owners; yet in a city like New York, where 96 per cent. of the people are renters, we cannot doubt that that part of the local taxation which does not fall upon the land is in a large degree borne by these renters, the poorest obtaining no exemption and the richest paying no increased rate. Prof. Cossa's view on this question is by no means new, since the French Constitutional Assembly incorporated in its legislation an extreme form of the same idea, and, in the avowed attempt to tax all incomes equally, assumed that rents below 100 francs indicated incomes only twice that sum, while rents above 12,000 francs indicated incomes twelve times that figure. Of course, Prof. Cossa would favor no such progression as this, since he is anything but radical in his political ideas, and rejects the principle of progressive taxation, except that he would exempt an *existence minimum*. The consideration for the incomes of the working classes, which he shows in considering the tax on dwellings, is more than neutralized by his defence of the *octroi* or municipal customs duties. We regret to notice that Prof. Cossa believes that, on the whole, the *octroi* duties are being increased, though some cities have abolished them. This indicates the continued backwardness of Italy's political development. Absurd as our national tariff may be, Americans have always had municipal free trade.

The American notes to the volume constitute nearly a fourth of it, and contain brief discussions of our American problems, such as the taxation of mortgages, of personal property, of corporations, etc. The method of treatment is historical and statistical rather than mathematical. In addition to these notes there is an appendix to the volume containing a bibliography of the science of finance.

Volcanoes and Earthquakes: A Popular Account of their Nature, Causes, Effects, and Geographical Distribution, from Personal Observation in the Hawaiian and Philippine Islands, Japan, Iceland, the Mediterranean Basin, Spain, and the United States. By Samuel Kneeland, A.M., M.D. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. 1888. 8vo, pp. 220, 16 plates.

In this book Dr. Kneeland has given a series of interesting sketches of his personal adventures and more or less scientific observations on several of the most important volcanic districts of the world, some of which have rarely been visited by intelligent observers. The volume is intended for the use of the popular reader rather than the man of science; indeed, from the point of view of geology it is without importance, except from occasional observations of certain phenomena connected with volcanic ejections. The most interesting parts of the work are those which record the author's personal observation in the Philippine Islands, where he had an opportunity of seeing the district of the Laguna which lies to the southeast of Manila. Such, for instance, is his account

of the eruption of the volcano of Mayon. The chapters on earthquakes give a tolerable account of the well-known phenomena exhibited in a number of the more important modern disturbances.

There is nothing in the book of any particular scientific value, but it may well serve the purposes of the reader who wishes a brief story of the principal facts connected with such disturbances. The illustrations of the book are numerous, and some of them which are reproduced from photographs are good. Those of a diagrammatic nature are generally poor. They are particularly faulty in that they very much exaggerate the slope of volcanic cones.

The book is handsomely printed, and has a sufficient index.

In Nesting Time. By Olive Thorne Miller. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1888. Pp. viii, 276.

MRS. MILLER is already pleasantly known to the lovers of "bird-life" as the author of a book with that title, and this volume continues a series of observations in a style which John Burroughs has rendered somewhat distinctive. It is the reverse of formal or technical ornithology, and all the more agreeable to most persons on that account. The sketches in the little collection are the record of careful observation, and scrupulously true in every particular. Few, if any, of the observations are "new," but they have that interest which attaches to all genuine studies from life. Many of our common birds, those which are too common for the professional ornithologist to notice particularly, are brought into the pages as real live feathered individuals, "honestly 'brothers of ours,'" whose personal peculiarities stand out in strong relief under the author's sympathetic pen. Some of her epithets are very happy, as "flutterbudget" for the brown thrush, and "a bird of affairs" for the blue jay. Any one could look at the same things if he would but look out of the window, or make a pet of one of our native birds; but there are many of us who do not see what we look at till some one like Mrs. Miller points it out, and many of the most charming bits of bird-life would escape us without some such reminder as we are here given.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

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Bridgeman, G. T. O. The History of the Church and Manor of Wigan, in the County of Lancaster. Part I. Manchester, Eng.: The Chetham Society.
Cook, Prof. A. S. Judith: an Old Epic Fragment. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Corbett, J. For God and Gold. Macmillan & Co. 50 cents.
Dewey, Prof. J. Leibnitz's New Essays Concerning the Human Understanding. Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co. $1.25.
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Reeves, Marian C. L. A Little Maid of Acadie. D. Appleton & Co. 25 cents.
Remains, Historical and Literary, Connected with the Palatine Counties of Lancaster and Chester. Vols. XIII. and XIV. Manchester, Eng.: The Chetham Society.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 28, 1888.

The Week.

PRESIDENT CLEVELAND'S speech in acceptance of the Democratic nomination was necessarily brief. When a President accepts renomination, there is no need of his explaining or propounding a policy. People judge of the way in which he will discharge the duties of the office during the second term by the way in which he has discharged them during the first. He knows well that nothing he can say will add to or take away from the materials for a popular judgment furnished by his official record. What Mr. Cleveland had to do on Tuesday, therefore, was simply to show, both in matter and manner, that he felt the responsibility of the situation in which his renomination has placed him. This he unquestionably did. His answer to the Committee was grave nnd dignified, as the occasion required that it should be, and he made it weighty by one or two references to his official experience. He said, with a touch of pathos, and doubtless as a plea in extenuation of his shortcomings:

"I knew then that abuses and extravagances had crept into the management of public affairs; but I did not know their numerous forms nor the tenacity of their grasp. I knew then something of the bitterness of partisan obstruction; but I did not know how bitter, how reckless, and how shameless it could be."

And then, rising into real solemnity, both of thought and expression, he added:

"I shall not dwell upon the acts and the policy of the Administration now drawing to its close. Its record is open to every citizen of the land. And yet I will not be denied the privilege of asserting at this time that in the exercise of the functions of the high trust confided to me, I have yielded obedience only to the Constitution and the solemn obligation of my oath of office. I have done those things which, in the light of the understanding God has given me, seemed most conducive to the welfare of my countrymen and the promotion of good government. I would not if I could, for myself or for you, avoid a single consequence of a fair interpretation of my course.'

Was there ever in the history of American or any other politics a more thorough picture of a charlatan than Mr. Blaine has presented during the session of the Chicago Convention? While ostensibly upon a coaching trip in Scotland, totally indifferent to the work of a convention before which he had refused positively to be a candidate, he has been in reality standing at the end of an Atlantic cable, learning through constant communications with his managers at the Convention just what was happening there during every hour. Instead of holding aloof in dignified indifference, awaiting a unanimous call to take the leadership of his party, in case it came, he has shown the utmost eagerness to hurry it along, and hourly anxiety lest after all it should fail to come. One moment he "authorizes" denials that he holds any cable communication with his friends in Chicago, and the next moment he requests a friendly correspondent in London to send a message which shows he is fully informed as to what is going on at the Convention. When asked if he would accept a nomination, he declines to answer, and a few minutes later he allows his host, after consultation with him, to give out a statement that he would accept. When this announcement is seen to have been damaging, since it disclosed his plot too soon, his host is put forward to deny that the statement was made. When the correspondent who sent it confronts the host with that statement in his own handwriting, the host reluctantly confesses that he did give it out. Lying and humbug have surrounded him and his coaching party like a fog for a week, making him and his kind of politics a laughing stock upon two continents.

There were two significant indications on Thursday that Mr. Blaine was keeping as close an eye upon the Chicago Convention as he was upon the scenery of Scotland. He had an opportunity to read in the London newspapers of the previous morning sufficiently full accounts of the Convention's proceedings to learn of Mr. Thurston's allusion to his renomination as a "political crime" and the approval of that remark by the delegates. He was able to learn, also, that the effect of the speech had been to greatly lessen the chances of his renomination, and that the balloting in the Convention was to begin the next day. In view of these facts it was, to say the least, a little queer that for the first time since the Convention assembled he should be heard from as to its work and his opinions about it. He evidently put himself at once in connection with the London correspondent of the *Tribune*, for the following despatch appeared in that paper:

LONDON, June 20.—Mr. Blaine *asks me to say* that all rumors in the United States pretending to give letters or despatches from him or any of his party touching political topics of any kind, may be promptly discredited unless signed by Mr. Blaine himself. He has sent nothing whatever on the Presidential question except his Florence and Paris letters, and has had no correspondence of any kind with any gentleman named in connection with the Republican nomination. Mr. Blaine is now on the borders of Scotland pursuing his coaching tour.

This was headed by the *Tribune* with the line "Refusing to Lend Aid to Booms," which meant that Mr. Blaine did not favor or oppose any particular candidate.

The second indication appeared in a cable despatch from Bellingham, England, where Mr. Blaine and Mr. Carnegie's party passed Wednesday night, which was printed on Thursday in the *Sun* of this city and the *Press* of Philadelphia. In the despatch occurs this passage:

"Mr. Blaine does not speak of political matters in any way, but Mr. Carnegie, who is, of course, well able to express the feelings of his guest, said:

"'If Mr. Blaine is nominated, he will not refuse.' Then Mr. Carnegie wrote the following for publication:

"'If the Republican party finds it cannot agree upon a leader, and then calls upon its former leader to lead it again, it goes without saying that it would be his duty to do so (and Mr. Blaine has never failed to do his duty), more especially since it is now clear that the campaign is to be fought upon the issue of protection versus free trade, the former of which Mr. Blaine feels to be essential to his country's prosperity. It is not anticipated that this call will be made upon him; but if made, it must be accepted.'"

This was much more to the point than the *Tribune* communication, but, taken together, the two utterances completely sustained the course of the Blaine-or-nothing boomers.

Col. Ingersoll's speech for Gresham before the Convention on Friday evening would not have angered the Blaine men so much as it did but for the fact that he was in 1876 the favorite Blaine orator. It was in the convention of that year that he put Blaine in nomination in a speech which gave Blaine the permanent title of the Plumed Knight, and which made Ingersoll the idol of the Blaineites for several years. Now Ingersoll has changed sides, and, like everybody else who has done so, it is extremely difficult for him to praise any other candidate without casting reflections upon Blaine. Every word which he said in praise of Gresham as an honest man, of high character and unblemished reputation, was inevitably taken as an imputation upon Blaine. Thus, when he said that "no single man, whatever his services may be, is of the slightest importance compared with the success of the Republican party," it was naturally inferred by the Blaine men that he did not believe defeat with Blaine to be preferable to success with any other candidate. His whole speech was as antagonistic to Blaine's candidacy as was its closing declaration, that, "wishing and hoping for success," he was in favor of Gresham. That is why the Blaine boomers filled the air of the Chicago hotels with complaints of Ingersoll's "bad taste."

Of all "wise and well-directed efforts for the promotion of temperance and morality," the one which of late years has most commended itself to the support of the American people is the policy of restricting the sale of liquor by making it expensive. In his "Paris Message" of last December Mr. Blaine pointed out that "the tax on whiskey by the Federal Government, with its suppression of all illicit distillation, and consequent enhancement of price, has been a powerful agent in the temperance reform by putting it beyond the reach of so many"; and he ascribed to this policy largely the fact that "the amount of whiskey consumed in the United States per capita to-day is not more than 40 per cent. of that consumed thirty years ago." Everybody of common sense knows that, as Mr. Blaine said, "to cheapen the price of whiskey is to increase its consumption enormously," and, consequently, that "there would be no sense in urging the reform wrought by high license in many States if the National Government neutralizes the good effect by making whis-

key within reach of every one at twenty cents a gallon." Indeed, the whole philosophy of the matter was summed up in the declaration of Mr. Blaine that the removal of the whiskey tax "would destroy high license at once in all the States." The free-whiskey plank of the Republican platform commits the party to this deadly assault upon the high-license system, and we do not think that the Chicago *Tribune* exaggerates when it predicts that this "frightful blunder," which the Convention deliberately refused to correct, "will cost the Republican party tens and possibly hundreds of thousands of votes."

The amendment of the Republican platform, which was made at the last moment, is only comparable to the performance of a drunkard who should shout between drinks that he really at heart favored temperance. The anti-saloon people pleaded so hard for some recognition that Mr. Boutelle was persuaded to offer a milk-and water declaration on the subject of temperance, which, after considerable opposition, was adopted. But the earnest appeal of the Chicago *Tribune*, repeated with the utmost urgency, that the free-whiskey plank should be taken out of the platform, was not heeded, and the party therefore goes before the country upon two planks which are diametrically opposed to each other, as follows:

The first concern of good government is the virtue and sobriety of the people and the purity of the home. The Republican party cordially sympathizes with all wise and well-directed efforts for the promotion of temperance and morality.	If there should still remain a larger revenue than is requisite for the wants of the Government, *we favor the entire repeal of internal taxes* [whiskey and tobacco] rather than the surrender of any part of our protective system at the joint behest of the whiskey trusts and the agents of foreign manufacturers.

The declaration of the Republican platform regarding education must be a bitter pill to Senator Hawley and the Republicans who have stood with him in opposition to the Blair bill. It is not an out-and-out endorsement of that measure, but it is an admission that the principle upon which it was framed is good Republican doctrine, and that Congress may properly interfere in the matter of education in the States. A year ago Senator Hawley expressed the opinion that "one of the future missions of the Republican party, if it is to be true to the Constitution and to its own history, is to securely preserve the rights of the States" by opposing such schemes as the Blair bill. The party refuses to accept this mission, and it follows that it is no longer "true to the Constitution and to its own history." The only way of insuring the defeat of schemes of centralization is to reëlect a President who can be trusted to veto the Blair bill and all other measures showing the same "tendency towards a consolidation of the entire powers of government," which, as Senator Hawley truthfully declared in his Detroit speech last year, "is one of the strongest to-day, and one of those most dangerous to the republican experiment, as our fathers understood it."

The high-tariff plank of the platform is received with equal amazement and indignation among the farmers in the Northwest. All through that region the agricultural population has come to understand the injustice of the present system, and their demand for reform has been repeatedly illustrated by such action as that of the Minnesota Farmers' Alliance, an organization comprising members of both political parties, which last March adopted resolutions endorsing President Cleveland's views on the tariff issue, denouncing the protective tariff, and calling for its immediate repeal on all raw materials and the necessaries of life. When the Republican party denounces President Cleveland's views as "free trade," and proposes to make the tariff still higher, its managers show a remarkable blindness to the temper of the voters in the West. The Omaha *Bee*, one of the most prominent Republican papers in Nebraska, and an earnest supporter of the policy of tariff reform advocated by the Republican platform of 1884, condemns severely the tariff plank in the platform of 1888, and says that "a great many Republicans, particularly in the West, will regret the extreme position taken on this subject, and many such may be forced by their confirmed views respecting the necessity of a fair and wise revision of the tariff to withhold their support from the party." The *Bee* says that it had been hoped by tariff-reform Republicans that the Convention would show some advance in this matter, that it would give some heed to the large and growing sentiment in the party in favor of reducing the war tariff and giving the people the relief they require from this form of taxation, and concludes as follows: "The failure to do this will be a great and serious disappointment to these Republicans, who are more numerous than the extreme advocates of the protective system doubtless suppose. How many of them will be alienated from the party by reason of its extreme position on the tariff is a most important question, which may only be determined by the result in November."

It will be a great relief to national politics to get rid of Gov. Foraker as a conspicuous figure. As soon as he thought there was danger of McKinley's nomination, Foraker hastened to show that the suspicions which had been general in regard to his loyalty to Sherman were true, by coming out openly for Blaine and endeavoring to take half the Ohio delegation with him. Of course, McKinley's nomination would have put an end to Foraker's ambition to be candidate for Vice-President on a ticket with Blaine, and he accordingly broke his pledge to Sherman, and began to work for Blaine to defeat McKinley. The net result was such a storm of indignation in Ohio that he was forced to take the back track and promise to keep his pledge to Sherman. He can never more acquire fame by getting himself snubbed by people of consequence, because snubbing will henceforth be the treatment which the popular voice will say belongs to him.

"Some fellow like Phelps of New Jersey." We fear that the favorite son of New Jersey has been dubbed by the favorite son of Kansas for all coming time, and we are moved to protest against the derogation from the former's dignity implied by the slighting epithet used by the latter. It would seem that when something occurs to remind the presiding officer of the United States Senate of the existence of the New Jersey statesman, he thinks of him as a frisky, light-minded, well-meaning, and perhaps windy person, to whom serious people naturally apply the word "fellow." This word has several different meanings. When we speak of a "good fellow," for example, we mean a man of agreeable social qualities, a good companion, a true friend, one brimming with the milk of human kindness. The phrase always has a complimentary significance. It is not inconsistent with the possession of statesmanship and solid qualities, but implies that these merits are crowned and ornamented with the finer sensibilities of the heart. A "nice fellow" is understood to be one against whom nothing can be said, a man of obliging disposition and graceful exterior, but without striking or showy qualities. Another grade of fellow is the English variety, known as "not half a bad fellow." This means that the first impression made by him is that of a good fellow, but that further acquaintance may modify the opinion, and that it is best to hold one's judgment in suspense for the present, but with a favorable leaning. When we speak of a "fellow" pure and simple, there are also shades of meaning which can only be interpreted by the context. We may mean that he is a good-for-nothing, that he is a social encumbrance, a person with whom we do not care to associate; or we may mean merely that he is a person to whom we have no kind of objection, but who is not to be taken seriously. Looking at Mr. Ingalls's use of the phrase as applied to the Hon. William Walter Phelps, we cannot resist the thought that it was in the latter sense that he employed it. Hence our protest. We protest against any implication, whether from Ingalls or anybody else, that the favorite son of New Jersey is not to be taken seriously, except as he may be of service in raising money from manufacturers and Wall Street.

It is the unanimous opinion of the newspapers that Harrison's nomination aroused little enthusiasm in this city. The labor politicians, so far as heard from, expressed dislike of Harrison because of his record in the Senate against the restriction of Chinese immigration. The Irish Republicans were divided in opinion, the majority of them knowing little of Harrison, and evidently waiting to see what provision would be made towards paying the rent of their "headquarters" in case they were inclined to support him. Most of the Republican Boys had not returned from Chicago, but the few of them who had remained here appeared to

take a gloomy view of the future and of the outlook for the protection of their kind of American industry.

The President sent in another batch of vetoes of private pension bills on Friday. One of the bills proposed to grant a pension to Charles Glamann, who left the service in 1865 without having made any claim of disability, but in 1880 alleged that he had been struck with a brick by a comrade with whom he had got into a row, and injured in his left arm! Mr. Cleveland concludes his message in this case with the remark: "I believe that if the veterans of the war knew all that was going on in the way of granting pensions by private bills, they would be more disgusted than any other class of our citizens." Only blindness on the part of the Republican managers could put them in the attitude of condemning the President for vetoing pension bills, and pledging themselves to give a pension to every man who got hit with a brick in a quarrel.

The statement of Secretary Fairchild in reference to the investigation of the civil service in the Custom-house discloses a total misapprehension of the attitude of the Civil-Service-Reform Association in this matter. He goes upon the assumption that the Association has made charges against him, and states that the Association, through its officers and attorney, appeared before the Senate Committee as the medium by which certain charges affecting him and his administration of the Treasury Department were presented, and explains that his statement is published "because the sponsors for the charges against me are of such high standing and reputation, and because the charges themselves are such as to weaken the faith of those who believe them in the faithful administration of this Government." As a matter of fact, the Association has made no accusation against Mr. Fairchild, and the charges which he seeks to refute can only have been inferred by him from the character of the testimony elicited by the Senate Committee, or from publications for which the Association is not responsible. An examination of the testimony would also have shown the Secretary that he was mistaken in supposing that the sugar division possessed any peculiar or extraordinary interest for the Association, other than that which the Association had in any division or department where it is believed the Civil-Service Law has been violated. The testimony shows that the Surveyor's Department, the Weigher's Department, and the offensive partisanship of Deputy Collector Davis and others in the matter of the Binghamton Post-office, received no less attention from the Investigating Committee than the Appraiser's Department. Of the fifty witnesses who were examined, but thirteen were questioned as to the Appraiser's Department, and of the 288 printed pages of testimony, only 92 relate to that Department.

The *Iron Age* prints an article some columns in length from a correspondent who pleads for a lower duty on steel wire rods, the raw material of wire fencing, which is so largely manufactured in this country. We can faintly imagine the distress of Judge Kelley, and Mr. Thomas B. Reed, and Major McKinley, and in fact all of the Republican members of Congress except three or four, when they read this appeal in a newspaper which is perhaps the best exponent of protectionist sentiment in the country as regards the iron and steel industries. It is true that the *Iron Age* does not editorially endorse the argument of its correspondent, but it gives him a hearing, and thus virtually lends its sanction to the heresy that a man *may* favor lower duties on some things without putting all American industry in jeopardy, lowering wages of workingmen, and pauperizing everybody between the two oceans. The argument of the writer in the *Iron Age* shows that the manufacturers of fence wire are taxed 6-10 of a cent per pound, about 70 per cent. ad valorem, on their raw material, in the name of protection to American labor, "in behalf of rod mills less than half-a-dozen in number and *employing in the aggregate about one hundred men*," and that these half-dozen concerns are now demanding an increased duty —in behalf of labor, of course. "It seems a fair proposition," he continues, "that the duty shall be such as to give rod mills which have chosen eligible locations, where fuel is cheap and freight to distributing centres low, a liberal return on their investment after allowing for contingencies and the payment of their present rates for labor. This protection they should have, and they are entitled to no more. It can hardly be contended that the duty shall be put so high that a profit can be made on plants erected without regard to economy of production or facilities for distribution. To do this would be to put a premium on incapacity, and protect the fool against the consequences of his folly." This is the embodiment of common sense.

The Court of Appeals has made a decision in regard to the legality of boycotting which completely sustains the position of Judge Barrett and of the General Term, and affirms their decision, that strikes for any other purpose than for securing an increase of wages or preventing a reduction of wages, are illegal, if the effect of the strike is to injure the trade of the employer. Persons who direct such injurious strikes are guilty of conspiracy. The case upon which this important decision is based was that of Ober M. Hartt of this city against an Executive Committee of Knights of Labor. The employees of Gardner & Estes went on a strike to compel the firm to discharge Hartt, an obnoxious "scab" foreman. The strikers were successful, and Hartt was discharged. After being discharged, Hartt brought suit against the Executive Committee who had directed the strike, on the charge of conspiracy to prevent him from exercising his lawful trade or calling. The defendants set up the law of 1870, which forbids the construction of laws defining conspiracy in such a way as to restrict the peaceable assembling or coöperation of persons employed in any trade or handicraft, for the purpose of securing an advance in the rate of wages or for the maintenance of any such rate. The decision is squarely against the defendants, and is so comprehensive that boycotting in this State is going to be very risky business hereafter.

In addition to the new Ballot Law, the Massachusetts Legislature passed an act regulating the management of caucuses. It is not a mandatory act, apparently, for it applies only to such caucuses as desire to be governed by its provisions, and so state in their calls. Ten or more persons, qualified to vote, in a caucus called in accordance with the provisions of the act, are sufficient to make it obligatory for all voting in the caucus to be upon the last published voting list, with such written additions as may be certified by the registrars of voters. The act provides a penalty of $50 or three months' imprisonment for voting or attempting to vote without right; and wrongful voting is defined as that of a person who is not a legal voter or is not "included in the terms of the call under which the meeting is held." The object of this is to prevent caucuses from being packed by voters who have no right to be there. Nobody in the State appears to have much faith that the act will be of practical value. The opinion appears to be gaining ground in all our large cities that reform of the primaries is an impossibility, and that the only effective remedy is their abolition, nominations being made directly by committees, as they are made indirectly now. The only check which the voters can exercise is at the polls by voting against all bad nominations, without regard to their party name.

By the death of Mr. Sydney Howard Gay the country loses another of the old-time abolitionists of the ante-war period, and another of the old school of journalists contemporary with Greeley, Raymond, and Bryant. Mr. Gay was a man of retiring nature, but of the purest life and of stubborn loyalty to his convictions. He had held successively the position of managing editor of the New York *Tribune*, the Chicago *Tribune*, and the New York *Evening Post*, and that of the chief editor of the *National Anti-Slavery Standard*, contributing to each of these journals, during his connection with them, a literary flavor of the best character, and a moral tone which was inseparable from his own standards. His most considerable work was Bryant's 'History of the United States,' so called, published by the house of Scribner. This was almost wholly the production of Mr. Gay, and is now a standard work. A later production of his is the life of James Madison in the American Statesmen series. Mr. Gay had been in ill-health for three years, and in the last year of his life had been entirely helpless, suffering greatly, but awaiting with infinite patience the summons of the last messenger that comes to man.

THE REPUBLICAN NATIONAL PLATFORM.

We remarked upon the platform adopted by the St. Louis Convention that it was not chargeable with ambiguity in its method of dealing with the tariff question, since it endorsed the President's message and the Mills bill without variableness or shadow of turning. The Chicago platform is entitled to like commendation, for it goes further in its sanction of what its framers call protection and what we hold to be tariff robbery than any other platform ever adopted since the Government was founded—further, we think, than any party in any government ever went before. The Republicans in Congress have been hesitating all these months since the President's message was delivered, doubting whether they should attack the surplus by lowering the sugar duties or by repealing the internal tax on intoxicating liquors. Hitherto nobody but Judge Kelley has avowed himself in favor of the latter policy. The Convention has resolved all these doubts by demanding the repeal of the whiskey tax rather than that of any protective duty great or small.

It almost takes one's breath away to read such a platform. It is so at variance with all former deliverances of the party, with scores of resolutions of State Legislatures under Republican control, with hundreds of speeches and votes of Republican statesmen now living, with the report of the Republican Tariff Commission only five years ago, and with the recommendations of successive Republican Presidents and Secretaries of the Treasury, that the party can be likened only to the man who made a monster of which he became the unhappy victim. Protection is the Frankenstein of the Republican party. It has taken possession of and will destroy its maker as utterly as any party was ever destroyed in all history. We have the utmost confidence that this insensate platform will array the intelligence, the common sense of the country on the opposite side. It is an appeal to stupidity, ignorance, and prejudice. Consequently, it was stronger the first hour of its promulgation than it will ever be again. All institutions of learning will work against it, consciously or unconsciously, day by day. Even the manufacturers whose interests it is intended to support, cannot unite in favor of a platform which proposes to petrify the existing tariff, and allow no reductions and no changes except in the way of an increase of duties. By so petrifying the tariff without regard to its character or its effect upon particular industries, particular classes or sections, but taking the whole thing as a "Thus saith the Lord," the Chicago Convention has passed the bâton of Progress over to the Democratic party, and has made itself the representative of inertia as well as of excessive and unjust taxation.

We confess that the platform goes much further than we had supposed it was possible for any party to go. It has been a common saying that when it became necessary to reform the tariff, the Republicans would do the work if they should then be in power. But this platform binds them *not to do it* even when they are in power; and logically they cannot, because the vote that carries them into power will be a vote in support of a platform which declares the present tariff to be exactly right, or not susceptible of amendment except in the way of increase. Now, if this sort of doctrine is to be defended through a long campaign, and in other campaigns to come, there will be many a seat in Congress, now securely occupied by members who have held out the hope of some moderate amendment by and by, that will be lost, in spite of all the money the protected classes can raise for political ends. And yet we would not have the platform different if we could. We like a "square fight," and there can be none unless the issues are sharply drawn. Free whiskey versus taxed necessaries of life is a plain issue, one that everybody can understand, and the one that Mr. Cleveland invited in his last annual message. His supporters can ask nothing better.

Nothing matches the high-tariff and free-whiskey plank in the platform better than the demand for large appropriations to carry off the Treasury surplus. For the first time in the history of parties extravagance is declared to be a good thing. For the first time economy in the public service is deprecated, and by the plainest inference denounced as inapplicable to national administration. More pensions, more river and harbor bills, national aid to State education, fortification bills, navy bills, and everything else that will take money out of the Treasury, are either openly demanded or plainly hinted at as part of a desirable national policy. Need we say that all this points the way to the very saturnalia of corruption in public life? Does it not add startling force to all that has been said about the dangers of a surplus revenue? Does it not give new point to the saying of James Russell Lowell that a public surplus is "a Pandora's box of infectious demoralization"? It is astonishing beyond measure that a great party, embracing at a former time by far the larger share of public intelligence and virtue, should declare itself in favor of schemes whose purpose is to squander the public revenue in order to make opportunity for high and unnecessary taxes. We do not believe that such a policy will ever be ratified by the American people.

"The Republican party is in favor of the use of both gold and silver as money, and condemns the policy of the Democratic Administration in its efforts to demonetize silver," further says the platform. This is about as unmeaning as anything in the literature of finance, but it conveys, nevertheless, a compliment to President Cleveland's Administration. The use of gold and silver as money is tolerably well established in this country, and nobody is now seeking to discontinue it. As silver has not been "monetized" in this country, and cannot be until free coinage of that metal is established by law, neither Mr. Cleveland nor anybody is likely to demonetize it. But Mr. Cleveland has shown sufficiently and repeatedly that he is opposed to free coinage, and also that he is opposed to the coinage of any more Bland dollars than there is a public demand for. It will be considered by all intelligent men of business in the East, and by scholars and financiers everywhere, a fine compliment to Mr. Cleveland that the Chicago Convention has drawn attention to his position in this important matter, although the platform does not state the position of the Republican party on the silver question, except by inference. So far as inference goes, the implication is that the Republican party differs from Mr. Cleveland as to silver coinage. If any strong impression to this effect were made by the platform, it would add a great many votes to the Democratic ticket in New York and New England this year. On the other hand, it is easy to see that this plank is not the kind of deliverance that the silver-producing States and Territories wanted.

The plank relating to the fisheries is not only a menace to the peace of nations, but, argumentatively considered, is in conflict with the recent speech of Senator Frye on the same subject. The platform affirms that the pending treaty is "a pusillanimous surrender of the essential privileges to which our fishing vessels are entitled under the Treaty of 1818, and the reciprocal maritime legislation of 1830, and the comity of nations." Mr. Frye said that the Treaty of 1818 was itself a pusillanimous surrender of those privileges. It is not denied by anybody, except these platform-makers, that the pending treaty gives us more privileges than the Treaty of 1818 did. The platform to this extent asserts a downright falsehood. And why? Can the reason be anything else than a desire to catch the votes of the Irish dynamite faction? Probably the party would not declare war against Great Britain. The vote in the Senate the other day in favor of arbitration of international disputes would seem conclusive that war is not intended by keeping open the fisheries question. But the platform means that the war spirit shall be fanned, that disturbers of peace shall be encouraged, and that the country shall take the chances of peace or war during an exciting political campaign. This, we say, is a crime against civilization. If the country gets through the next five months without a breach of international peace, the good fortune will be due to the prudence of President Cleveland, and the good temper which the pending treaty itself has cultivated between the peoples of the two countries.

THE REPUBLICAN CANDIDATES.

The ticket nominated at Chicago after such prolonged agony is not of a kind to excite much enthusiasm, but is, nevertheless, a very respectable one, and for this we return thanks without reserve or stint to the Republican Convention and the Republican party. It is an ideal condition in politics when the public have reasonable assurance that, whichever party is successful, the dignity of the nation will receive no harm from the character of the occupant of the Presidential office. When it is remembered how much has been escaped, how narrowly one great party has avoided a candidacy which would have again

made the personal issue the absorbing one of the campaign, the feeling of thankfulness is deepened. Mr. Harrison is a fair representative of his party—not the best one, not so good as Gresham would have been, not so commanding a figure as Sherman, but infinitely better than Blaine. He has not the personal qualities that attract the multitude, nor has he accumulated the renown which belongs to an extended public career; but, on the other hand, he has made none of the antagonisms which are usually inseparable from a long period of public service, and since his "record" is comparatively brief, his opponents will find few points of attack and his supporters will have little to defend. In brief, Mr. Harrison is not stronger than his party, but he is not weaker than his party. His nomination leaves the field open for the freest discussion of the principles which divide the American people. Mr. Cleveland is stronger than his party, but not so much stronger that the issues are likely to be obscured. It will be the merit of the coming campaign that it will be fought more distinctly on principles than any other since the first election of Gen. Grant, which determined the reconstruction of the Southern States.

The most important speech made by Mr. Harrison during his Senatorial term was that in which he attacked President Cleveland's civil-service record. This was a strong speech, regarded merely as an attack, but it gave no promise of betterment in case the Republican party should succeed in overthrowing the present Administration. All its implications and intendments were of the opposite character. The principles of "a clean sweep" were, if not fully avowed, at least clearly implied, and certainly Mr. Harrison is the man who might be most confidently expected to carry out this principle to the letter, for he was reputed to have the most insatiable appetite for offices that ever haunted the departments at Washington. So rapacious was his quest for places for relatives and friends that Mr. Blaine, when Secretary of State, is reported to have said that "Harrison had asked for thirteen more first-class missions than there were on the diplomatic list." So far as civil-service reform is concerned in the campaign, we should expect, in the event of Mr. Harrison's election, to see the practices of Andrew Jackson's first term repeated with something bordering on fury.

But the civil-service question, important as it is, will not be the decisive one of the campaign. The real question is the tariff and the surplus. It may be assumed that the American people are in favor of sufficient protection to counterbalance the higher wages paid in manufacturing employments here as compared with like industries abroad, but not sufficient to create monopolies, trusts, and "combines." The impression has been cultivated, as the Oregon election has shown, that the Mills bill, which still leaves 40 per cent. average duties on manufactures, as against 47 1-10 per cent. now prevailing, is a free-trade measure, and that the whole tariff is coming down by the run. This is so gross a perversion of facts that it cannot last through a campaign. The Republicans have done much in their platform to dissipate the illusion and to prove that protection is not upheld for the sake of wages, but for the sake of protection. Their doctrine, stated broadly and without disguise, is, that if there were no Government expenses at all, it would still be desirable to tax imports by as much as 47 1-10 per cent. average and without much regard to the kind of property imported. There could not be a fairer issue, or one offering better opportunity for national education. We think that Mr. Cleveland and the Democratic party will gain votes continuously as the campaign proceeds and the truth is made clear to the people that taxes, however laid, are burdens on industry, and that the country cannot get rich by increasing and multiplying such burdens.

Of Mr. Morton we have only to say that while he is an eminently respectable man, who would fill the place in which it is proposed to put him with dignity and tact, it is probably not to his fitness, so much as to his wealth, that he owed his selection. The Republican "workers" in this city are more in need of funds than they have been at any time since their organization; but we trust Mr. Morton has had sufficient experience of them and their ways to see that his contributions to campaign expenses are sent to the Chairman of the National Committee only.

A PARTY OF SPECIAL INTERESTS.

"GOVERNMENT of the people, by the people, for the people," was the ideal which Abraham Lincoln, in his Gettysburg address, presented as the highest aim of our institutions. The party which had elected Lincoln to the Presidency was an organization which might well profess such an aim, for it was in its origin a party of the people, by the people, for the people. Its great object, its sole excuse for existence, indeed, was the restriction of slavery, which was in itself a crime against the people. It was the conviction of what Lincoln called "the plain people" that slavery was a wrong to them as well as to its victims, which brought the Republican party into being and carried it into power.

In his 'Twenty Years of Congress,' Mr. Blaine clearly points out this distinguishing characteristic of the Republican party in the days of its youth. In speaking of its National Convention in 1856, he says: "The Democracy saw at once that a new and dangerous opponent was in the field—an opponent that stood upon principle and shunned expediency, that brought to its standard a great host of young men, and that won to its service a very large proportion of the talent, the courage, and the eloquence of the North." Of the Chicago Convention of 1860 the same writer well says: "It was a representative meeting of the active and able men of both the old parties in the North, who had come together on the one overshadowing issue of the hour. Differing widely on many other questions, inheriting their creeds from antagonistic organizations of the past, they thought alike on the one subject of putting a stop to the extension of slavery. In the entire history of party conventions, not one can be found so characteristic, so earnest, so determined to do the wisest thing, so little governed by personal considerations, so entirely devoted to one absorbing idea."

It would be hard to imagine a greater contrast than that between this picture of the Convention of 1860 and the spectacle presented at Chicago last week. The personnel, the officers, the tone of the gathering were those of another party. The delegates were, more largely than usual, men unknown beyond their own districts or States, and who had no claim to be better known. Flanagan himself was there—the immortal Flanagan, whose inquiry in the Convention of 1880 has become historic, "What are we here for except for the offices?"—and with him a host of Flanagans, whose only idea of politics was to get a share of the spoils, which is all that a party victory ever means to them. Another numerous class was composed of the men whose only request of the party is, that it shall adopt a policy which shall put money into their pockets — the protected classes, who, as President Foster of the Republican League has frankly confessed, are the persons "who are most benefited by our tariff laws," and as a United States Senator, quoted by Mr. Foster, says, are "getting practically the sole benefit, or at least the most directly important benefits, of the tariff laws." A third class consisted of the men who represent great corporations which seek unfair advantages from the Government. Take out these three classes—the professional politicians who are after the offices, the representatives of the protected classes, and the representatives of the corporations, all of whom are "governed by personal considerations"—and but little of the Convention would have been left.

The Convention was called to order by a manufacturer whose firm is one of the seven members of the combination which, by the help of a high tariff, fixes the price of steel and iron beams. Its temporary Chairman was a man whose only prominence has come from the unsavory reputation he has acquired as counsel of a Pacific railroad. Among the candidates for the Presidential nomination was a millionaire who had gained the wealth which alone made him a candidate, by the unjust tariff upon lumber.

Incidents illuminate the character of an assembly. Two may be cited which reveal the low tone of the Chicago gathering. The character of the delegates from the Pacific Coast, who were the loudest Blaine howlers, was thus described: "The Pacific Slopers are a noisy lot. They are furnished with ammunition enough to keep up a howling racket for a month. A space 10x20 in their headquarters is the magazine. In it are scores of cases of Burgundy and gin and brandy stacked up to the ceiling. It's as free and untrammelled as the humidity of the Queen City. It's rum in thirteen different ways, and more rum if wanted." For a companion picture, take the night

scene in the room of the Committee on Credentials on Tuesday, when Mahoneites and anti-Mahoneites, each a crowd of selfish and unprincipled politicians, got into a row which could only be quieted by the help of the police. As a man is known by the company he keeps, so a party is known by the delegates who are chosen to its national convention. The boisterous crowd from the Pacific Coast, the quarrelling bullies from Virginia, are not the sort of men who attended Republican conventions in 1856 and 1860.

In 1856 and 1860 the Republican party was an organization of unselfish men, who appealed to the intelligence of the nation. In 1888 it has sunk to be a party of special interests, based upon the selfishness of men who want to make money or get offices out of it, and it goes before the country upon a platform which "insults the intelligence of the people"—to quote Mr. Depew's characterization of Mr. Blaine's "rebel-debt" speeches in 1872—by yelling "free trade," when the Democrats propose to carry out the very policy of lowering taxes and reducing the surplus which the Republicans themselves advocated in their better days.

THE COPYRIGHT BILL AND "PROTECTION."

THE question of international copyright has nothing to do with free trade or tariff protection. So far as this country is concerned, it is simply a question whether we will be an honest or a dishonest nation. And as regards legislation, the question is, Shall we enact a law to surround the literary property of the foreigner with such legal safeguards as will prevent the appropriation of it by any one without the consent of its owner? It is, in truth, merely a question whether the national conscience is so far aroused that it will ask Congress to blot out from our statute-book the legislative enactment which says that the legal protection which has been accorded to the productions of our own authors, shall not apply to works brought into this country by authors who are not citizens of the United States—an infringement of the principle of the equality of aliens and natives before the law which does not disgrace the literary-property legislation of any other nation, but which (to the unenviable notoriety of our country) has existed in our copyright statutes for nearly a hundred years. There is, therefore, aside from the desire for a clear conscience upon the part of the people at large, but a single interest concerned in international copyright legislation, namely, that of the foreign author. And as the thing desired is simply the extension to the foreign author of the *property* protection now accorded by our copyright statutes to the native author, the simplest enactment which will remove the limitation of such protection to citizens of the United States is entirely sufficient. The fourth section of the Copyright Bill drawn up in January, 1885, by the American (Authors') Copyright League, may be quoted as the ideal international copyright act under present circumstances:

> Be it enacted, etc., That section 4971 of the Revised Statutes of the United States is hereby repealed; section 4954 is amended by striking out the words "and a citizen of the United States or resident therein," and section 4967 is amended by striking out the words "if such author or proprietor is a citizen of the United States or resident therein."

This brief enactment is amply sufficient to extend every privilege conferred upon native authors by our present copyright laws to foreign authors, and to place all authors, the world over, upon exactly the same footing as regards the security vouchsafed their literary productions within the limits of the United States. Moreover, it will enable our authors to obtain in all the important countries of Europe a reciprocal protection for their productions, for a more liberal spirit has pervaded the copyright legislation of foreign States than has prevailed in our own laws. France and Belgium grant copyright security entirely without respect to nationality, while Great Britain, Germany, Italy, Switzerland, and Hungary extend protection to all works first, or simultaneously, published within their borders; and the laws of each of these countries (except the one last named), as well as those of Spain, Portugal, Austria, Sweden, Denmark, and Norway, contain reciprocity clauses which guarantee protection to the works of the authors of such other countries as have enacted reciprocal protection to the works of their authors.

But an examination of the copyright bill which was passed by the Senate on May 9 discloses the curious fact that while its first section includes all three of the provisions of the brief act quoted above, they are almost lost to sight among a number of stipulations which, when not simply repetitions of provisions already contained in the present copyright law, have nothing to do with the simple granting of an honest security in this country to the foreign author's property. The question may well be asked, therefore, For what purpose, or for whose benefit, are these carefully framed stipulations made a part of the copyright bill? And possibly the answer will disclose the reasons why this bill has been called a "protection" measure. The report from the Committee on Patents which accompanied the bill, contained the following paragraph concerning its provisions. The italics are ours:

> "It is believed that in its present shape *all interests* are carefully guarded, and the Committee are gratified to report to the Senate that at the public hearing held in regard to this subject *every interest* was well represented, and an extraordinary degree of harmony prevailed in regard to it."

But an examination of the appended stenographic report of the hearing referred to shows that while American authors, American publishers, American printers and typesetters, and American booksellers were on hand to urge the advantages *they* were to derive from the passage of this bill, the foreign authors—in whose behalf the international-copyright agitation is supposed to have been created—had not a single representative present; and in the fifty pages of the printed report of this hearing there is not to be discovered anything beyond cursory reference to the fact that the American public demand of Congress international-copyright legislation upon the sole ground of *justice to foreign authors!* In short, this document gives evidence that the primary object of the measure was lost sight of in a strenuous endeavor to convince the Committee that, in framing this bill, "all interests," as the report cautiously puts it, were "carefully guarded."

In their previous report, however, the same Committee were not so guarded in their language, and plainly stated therein that the provisions of the bill were designed to "carefully *protect* the American publishers and the American artisans who make the books in this country," which protection would only insure to the latter, according to the report, that which they "now possess, the labor put upon the publication of foreign books." In other words, the argument is that a certain amount of work now accrues to American publishers through the reprinting of English books which, under an unrestricted bill like that set out above, would be lost to them, because English authors would arrange with their publishers in England for editions of their books to supply the American demand, owing (so says the report) to the existence of "a peculiar and insular anti-American prejudice in the minds of many English authors." In view of the admission made in the same paragraph of the additional cost of manufacture in this country, this would seem to be only ordinary good sense upon the part of English authors; but doubtless the result predicted would follow, and, "in that case," the Committee argue, "our tariff would become inoperative as a protection to the American publisher and the American workman." That is to say, the cost of manufacture is so much less in England that the present tariff tax of 25 per cent. upon that cost would not be large enough to induce English authors to have their books made in this country. The Committee were, therefore, constrained to devise some method to counteract the practical results of the first section of their bill; and as an increase of the duty upon books was not a tenable proposition, the short cut was adopted of *compelling* the English author to give his books to American publishers for manufacture, as a return for the privilege of copyright conferred; and that this should be no half-way measure in the latter's behalf, it is forbidden any one in this country to use copies not made by an American publisher, unless he shall have obtained first the gracious permission of the latter (who becomes the "copyright proprietor" of the bill) to import the foreign edition. Moreover, as certain native authors had had the temerity to have their own works printed abroad (in face of the plain intimation implied in the imposition of a duty of 25 per cent. upon imported books that there was a moral obligation upon their part to support American book manufacturers), the convenient opportunity was seized to make entire manufacture in the United States *compulsory* upon the part of American authors also, with the alternative of no copyright security for their books in their own country.

Certainly, in the face of these stipulations, the naïve assertion contained in the report that "the duties might be entirely removed

from books or other copyrighted articles without in any sense affecting the operations of this bill, or they might be doubled or quadrupled and still be without such effect," may be acquiesced in; but it must by this time be plain to our readers that certain provisions of this bill, which are repeatedly admitted in the first report of the Committee to have been formulated for the express "protection" of American publishers and printers, secure to them a monopoly far beyond anything it is possible to obtain by means of legitimate tariff legislation.

COSMOPOLITAN MADRID.

SEVILLE, May 31.

SPAIN ought to be the favorite resort of those Anglomaniacs who turn up the ends of their trousers in New York or Boston when it rains in London. In Spain they would be *inevitably* taken for Englishmen even if they did not ape the latest London fads; for the Spaniard makes no distinction between Englishmen and North Americans, but labels them indiscriminately as "Ingleses." "American" here means South American, and if you tell the natives you are an American, they are apt to express surprise that you do not speak Spanish as fluently as they do. This misunderstanding seems to extend even to South Americans who visit the "old country," and who not infrequently apply to the "American" Ministry in Madrid for assistance or advice. In view of the close relations between Spain and South America, all this seems natural enough; but it is not flattering to one's national vanity to be thus summarily sponged out of existence. What is particularly aggravating is to find a number of American inventions utilized in Spain and invariably placed to the credit of the "Ingleses." I was annoyed to find that street cars are supposed to be an English invention; but my indignation rose to fever heat when I entered a place marked "English Drinks" and found—a genuine American soda-water fountain, an article positively unknown in England!

The word "Ingleses" meets the eye at every corner in modern Madrid. There are for sale English hats, English cravats, English biscuits, English candles and matches, etc. One also comes across German goods occasionally—a lithographic establishment, or a Wagner opera in the window of a music store by the side of "Carmen"; but the English predominates, even over the French, which has always hitherto made its influence felt in Madrid. In fact, the Spanish capital has never been a thoroughly Spanish city. Though known to history almost a thousand years, it remained a mere village until Charles V. made it his occasional residence, and Philip II., in 1560, his capital; and even then it did not grow with special rapidity, for of its 500,000 inhabitants, 300,000 have been added within the last thirty years—consequently a large part of the city has an essentially modern aspect, resembling other European cities. This is especially true of the heart of the city, the square known as the Puerta del Sol, where ten streets and all the tramway lines meet, and whence they diverge in different directions, like so many arteries. By taking each of these tramway lines in succession one can get in a few hours a general impression of the city, at a most insignificant expense, for the fare is only two cents. The cars are moved by mules who are always urged to run, even up hill; but in steep places an extra mule is attached. These tramways pass through some streets that are tortuous and narrow enough to remind one of southern Spain, but as a rule the streets are wider than in the southern cities, and the houses higher, since there are no earthquakes to guard against in this part of Spain. The streets are very badly and roughly paved, and therefore exceedingly noisy, but otherwise they are kept in excellent condition, free from dust and filth; the inhabitants having learned a lesson or two in hygiene since the days of Charles III., whose efforts to clean the streets were opposed on *sanitary* grounds!

An inestimable boon to the city from this point of view is its abundant supply of water, with which the streets are sprinkled with hose at intervals sufficiently frequent to lay the dust. This water is brought to the city from the Guadarrama Mountains, a distance of thirty-two miles, by means of an aqueduct which cost nearly $25,000,000. The introduction of this water deprived Madrid of one of its most picturesque features, the water-carriers; but it gave it instead not only cool and clean streets, but gardens and parks and good drinking water. Three hundred years ago, we read, Madrid lay in the midst of dense forests, in which kings hunted boars and bears. Subsequently these trees were cut down, so that to-day the same regions are bleak and barren as a desert. But since the building of the new water-works, green oases of groves have sprung up again, and these, it is said, are already beginning to modify the climate, so that it is probable that if the present policy is continued, irrigation may restore to Madrid its former pleasant climate, instead of its present one, which is described as consisting of nine months' winter and three months' hell. Shade is the one thing Madrid needs, and if this were supplied, its trying and sudden changes of temperature would not be so great. The neighborhood of a range of mountains which even in summer are crowned with snow, renders the winter exceedingly cold, all the more since Madrid itself lies at an elevation of almost 2,500 feet above the sea. But from an æsthetic point of view these mountains constitute one of the greatest charms of the Spanish capital. In walking along the superheated streets of Madrid, nothing could be more delightful than the occasional glimpses one gets of these snowy summits, which make the tourist fancy himself in Innsbruck or Interlaken, instead of in sunny Spain. Altogether, I think the surroundings of Madrid have been too much depreciated by tourists and guide-book makers. From the neighborhood of the chapel of San Isidoro, across the river, one overlooks a wide expanse of dreary but sublime plains, interrupted by hills, with the chapel which marks the exact centre of the Iberian Peninsula on one side, and the Snow Mountains on another. I know of few more picturesque situations for a capital; and the rapid increase in the population of Madrid, together with the healthy appearance of the inhabitants, indicates that the climate is not quite as bad as its reputation.

Returning to the Puerta del Sol, and subjecting it to a closer scrutiny, one cannot but wonder at first why it should be such a famous place. It is an ordinary square, such as may be found in almost any city of a hundred thousand inhabitants, and is not even the finest square in Madrid. Its importance lies in the fact that, as already intimated, it is the heart of the city and the centre of its traffic and amusements. The buildings which frame it in are the principal hotels in the city, and here, too, are situated several of the principal cafés, in which the gossips discuss and the politicians settle the affairs of the nation. These cafés are very large, but not so elegant as the Parisian and Viennese cafés, nor is the coffee as good. But the chocolate is excellent, and still better are the various sherbets and compounds of lemon, sugar, and water, in the brewing of which the Spaniards exercise as much ingenuity as the "Ingleses," *i. e.*, Americans, in their mixed drinks. There are no newspapers at the disposal of frequenters of the cafés, but they can buy the local sheets at the door, where there is generally a small news-stand. Most of these Spanish newspapers sell at one cent, and they contain very little of interest to foreigners.

The Madrid cafés give one a vivid sense of the fact that the Spaniards are the most democratic nation in the world. In Paris or Vienna one hardly ever sees a peasant or an ill-dressed city loafer enter a café; but in Madrid all classes meet in these places on equal terms, the peasant thinking he has as much claim to the title *caballero* as the politician or officer. In this democratic atmosphere it strikes one as all the more odd that the guests should call the attention of the waiters by clapping their hands—which may be a relic of Moorish days in Spain.

The hotels in Madrid and other Spanish cities are becoming modernized so rapidly that one has to go to the cheaper ones if he wishes to see what a Spanish *fonda* is like. In the larger hotels the *menu* is printed in French, and the cookery is French too. Certain dishes peculiar to the country continue, however, to give a local flavor to the meals, and the Spanish hours are always retained. For those rare and eccentric beings who get up before ten o'clock a *desayuno* is provided, consisting of chocolate or coffee, with bread and butter. It is a most unsatisfactory way to begin the day, because it leaves one hungry all the forenoon, even if one can swallow the bread and butter. Spanish bread is, perhaps, not unwholesome, but it is unappetizing and heavy, and the crust is almost as hard as a cracker. Of the butter a little goes a great way. The Spaniards need what little pasturage they have for their bulls, so that cows are scarce, and goats have to be depended on for the breakfast requisites. Goat-milk to me is an abomination, yet it is the only kind one can get here. It is quite unwholesome in summer to foreigners, and hardly less so to the natives, who have a not very charitable proverb to the effect that in March milk is good for yourself, in April for your brother, and in May for your mother-in-law. If the guide-books would condescend to mention this matter, many a tourist might be saved a few days of discomfort, such as I suffered from until an Englishman, who has long lived in the country, advised us to drink our coffee without milk, or take chocolate, and quoted the proverb just referred to.

Much more satisfactory are the other two meals which are served in this country—the *almuerzo* or breakfast, and the *comida* or dinner. The latter is generally served as a table d'hôte at a fixed hour, while the almuerzo must be a sore trial to cooks and waiters, since it lasts from ten to one o'clock. Every one drops in when he feels hungry, and orders, from a list of a dozen or twenty, three dishes, which are cooked to order in ample portions. The first course generally consists of eggs in some form or other, or some kind of sea-food, of which there is a great variety. Kidneys, beefsteak, and mutton cutlets are always on the list. For dessert there are cheese, oranges, cherries, strawberries (small but good), apricots, roasted almonds, etc. Strawberries are eaten with sugar and the juice of an orange squeezed over them, which I find better (*i. e.*, with a *Spanish* orange) than the French way of adding claret, or the American of adding cream. At the

table d'hôte one occasionally, but not often, gets opportunity to taste the famous national dish, the *puchero*, of which De Amicis happily says that "it is, in regard to the culinary art, what an anthology is to literature: it is a little of everything and the best." There are slices of beef, ham, smoked sausage, fowl, and other kinds of meat, and little piles of various kinds of vegetables heaped around the plate. The guest helps himself to one or all of these as he chooses. A decanter of red wine, Val de Peñas, is placed between every two plates, and if emptied is filled again, without charge. But it rarely is emptied unless two Frenchmen happen to get hold of the same bottle. Spaniards drink very little of their wine (although it is good and much purer than French wine), and tourists soon follow their example, whatever may be their habits at home. The climate of Spain is antagonistic to strong drink, and a temperance question does not exist here. Indeed, I do not think a Spaniard could be more astonished than by the question whether there was a temperance or total-abstinence movement in his country.

I believe that not a few persons who would like to see the art treasures of Spain are deterred from visiting the country by their belief in the old myth that fastidious strangers must starve here, because everything is fried in unpalatable oil and seasoned with garlic. This apprehension is to-day as groundless as the fear of meeting with highwaymen. Since the Government placed the country under the protection of the "civil guards," who are to be seen in couples at every station, etc., Spain is as safe as any country in the world to travel in; and since French—or rather Swiss—methods have been introduced in the hotels, garlic and bad oil have become memories of the past, and one fares as well in Spanish hotels, at least in the cities, as anywhere, while the charges are remarkably reasonable, rarely exceeding $2 to $3 a day, everything included—$2.50 being the average, at the best hotels. Nor are Spanish trains so slow or so inconvenient in their hours as they have been represented by tourists who know of no other way of spicing their letters than by exaggeration. The fast train from Paris to southern Spain necessarily traverses part of the way at night. But one sees the Pyrenees scenery, and subsequently, by selecting the proper trains, one can traverse the whole of Spain by daylight.

The only real ground for complaint which tourists have is that the natives stubbornly refuse to modify their climate and their habits to suit the convenience of strangers. It is embarrassing, on arriving in Madrid, to find that, roughly speaking, the inhabitants sleep in the daytime, and live and move about at night. Now, a tourist wants to see both the city and its inhabitants. But the city can only be seen comfortably from 8 to 10 A. M., before the sun becomes unbearable, and the inhabitants can only be seen from 7 P. M. to 2 A. M. The only way out of the dilemma is to "do as the Romans do": take a two-hour nap, or siesta, in the afternoon; then you can get along with six hours' sleep at night, and rise early to see the sights. The afternoon is of no use anyway, as the heat is too enervating to allow any mental or physical exertion. But the Spaniards, not content with their siesta, devote the golden morning hours also to sleep, and herein, I am convinced, lies the main cause of Spanish decadence. The five hours from 8 A. M. to 1 P. M. are worth more for solid work of any kind than all the other nineteen hours, and these precious hours the Spaniards waste, partly in sleep, partly by an untimely, heavy meal at eleven or twelve. No amount of night work can ever atone for the hours thus sacrificed. "Morgenstunde hat Gold im Munde."

Yet it cannot be denied that there is a peculiar fascination in Spanish night life; and a nation which lives more for pleasure than for business cannot be blamed for its customs in this respect. Sun-worship could never have originated in Spain. The most delightful thing in Spain is the wonderfully blue sky, the most detestable thing the sun that causes it. No Spaniard would ever have sold his shadow to the devil, like the German, Peter Schlemihl, for such a paltry thing as a purse of gold which never became empty; for, much as he likes gold, he likes shade more. An "ombra" seat in the bull ring costs twice as much as a seat in the sun, and in walking about during the day time along their tortuous streets, the natives constantly cross and recross them in order to utilize every yard of shade. No sooner has the sun set than the deserted streets become populous, and everybody hastens to the Prado, or public promenade, to enjoy the cool and fragrant breezes and greet his friends. All who can afford it—and many who ought to spend their scant income in a more sensible way—come out in their carriages. No other city in the world can turn out so many teams of Andalusian horses, as proud and as graceful as their masters and mistresses; but nowhere, on the other hand, would one see the ignoble mule team amid such a procession of aristocratic carriages. The mule may be a noble animal, but, by the side of the Andalusian horse, he looks very uncouth and utilitarian. Yet those who sit in in the carriage behind the two mules appear not a bit less vain than the occupants of a four-horse carriage, and doubtless consider themselves a degree higher in the social scale than those who walk along the Prado. On Sundays and holidays there is such a dense throng of pedestrians that one can move along but slowly—which is just what you want, since there is much to see. Reserving my remarks on Spanish women for a special letter, this much I may say here, that I saw more feminine beauty in one week in Madrid than I ever saw anywhere else in four weeks. And it is pleasant to notice that there seems to be a reaction in favor of the mantilla, at least in the middle classes, whose heads are not so often disfigured as ten years ago by the hideous Parisian hats.

The procession—and public reception—in the Prado is a bit of genuine Spanish local color in cosmopolitan Madrid. To see more local color one has only to go to Toledo Street and the older quarters of the city to find it in abundance. I was so fortunate as to be in Madrid on May 15, when the principal festival of the year is celebrated by the lower classes and the peasants who come from neighboring villages. It is the festival of San Isidoro, the patron saint of Madrid, a bishop of the seventh century, who is also by some considered the inventor of harmony in music. I had no idea where the festival was to be held, but simply went into the Puerta del Sol and followed the crowd, in the afternoon. Thus I got across the Manzanares, in the meadow along the bank of which, for a mile or so, a most interesting sight presented itself. The road was lined with men and women offering their "aqua fresca" from large jugs. The street-cars, 'busses, and miscellaneous vehicles (some with as many as six mules) emptied their crowded cargoes, and soon the meadow was like an ant-hill, except that ants are always in mourning and do not wear such bright colors as the peasant women and the soldiers in this crowd. There were innumerable booths for eating and drinking, carrousels, and other common features of folk festivals. More unique were the family groups scattered everywhere, eating their slices of cold meat, salad, red-pepper, and oranges. Many had their wine in the same old pig-skins of which one reads in 'Don Quixote.' Every hundred yards there was some sort of primitive music—often simply a drum—to the rhythm of which the young men and women danced with an expression of intense delight. Indeed, the whole crowd wore a look of indifference to the past and future, and determination to make the most of the passing moment. A greater number of happy faces I never saw together in my life, nor a more good-natured crowd. Further up the hill were long rows of booths with pottery, toys for children, cakes, etc.; and further up still was the Saint's Chapel, into which all crowded, to kiss a silver image held by a priest, to receive a printed picture of the saint, and to drop a copper.

HENRY T. FINCK.

MADAME DE GENLIS ON THE RIVIERA.

ALBENGA, June 6, 1888.

WHO and what were the ancient Ligurians? is a question much more easily asked than answered. Their language left a strong influence on the varied dialects of this coast; and if any one can tell us what that language was, it is probably Mr. James Bruyn Andrews, an American scholar, now resident at Mentone. About all we know of the inhabitants is that they were brave and warlike, with a desire for independence; that they lived chiefly on the produce of their herds, milk, and some drink made of barley. They sold their excellent and beautifully veined timber, as well as their cattle, hides, and honey, at Genoa for oil and wine, since the little wine which they produced tasted of pitch, used probably—as now in Greece and Portugal—to preserve either the wine or the skins in which it was kept. They bred an excellent race of mules, wove tunics, and, according to Strabo, collected amber on the seacoast. Their two great tribes, the Ingauni and the Intemelii, had their common boundary somewhere near Taggia or San Remo. The capital of one was Albium Ingaunum (Albenga), and of the other Albium Intemelium, now Ventimiglia. Strabo considers the word "Albium" as related to Alps; the changing of the *b* to *v* is very common in modern Italian dialects, and explains how the Greek *β* is now pronounced *v*, as probably it always was, and makes us wonder whether a similar pronunciation were not the rule in Latin.

So much did the Ligurians love their independence, and so much did they hate the conquering Romans, that they were willing to ally themselves with every enemy of Rome. Mago, the brother of Hannibal, made what is now the plain, and was then the port, of Albenga, the station for the Carthaginian fleet during the second Punic war. Mago, by the way, should be remembered pleasantly by us all, because, by having given his name to Port Mahon, he has been immortalized by Richelieu in Mayonnaise sauce. So obstinate were the Ligurians that, according to Pliny, the boundaries of their possessions had to be resettled thirty times; and every victory over them was reason for a triumph at Rome. It was probably this obstinacy, this refusal to remain subdued, which caused the Romans to apply to them epithets as bad as "Punica fides." Even Virgil could not resist the temptation to bring in Aunus,

> "Yet, like a true Ligurian born to cheat,
> At least while fortune favored his deceit."

And he makes Camilla exclaim,

"On others practise thy Ligurian arts;
Thin stratagems and tricks of little hearts
Are lost on me."

From this descends a whole series of proverbs, culminating in that Tuscan one of "Sea without fish; mountains without trees; men without faith, and women without shame"; and in the lines of Dante in his 'Inferno':

"Ah, Genoese! ye men at variance
With every virtue, full of every vice!"

In order to keep down the Ligurians as well as to civilize them, the Romans made several colonies along the coast; and among the early inscriptions found at Albenga, we may notice the names of several well-known noble families from Rome itself. We see traces, too, of their villas in ruined walls of *opus reticulatum* along the old road leading to Alassio; and further on over the hills to the great sacred forest of Neptune (the Lucus Bormanni), which covered the sites of what are now Andora, Cervo, and Diano. Albenga equally with Alba claims to be the birthplace of the virtuous Pertinax, though the genuineness of the inscription which would seem to prove it is doubted by many. But if there be no right to the real Emperor, there is no question with regard to the origin of the usurper Proculus, whose prowess, though not always in the combats of Mars, is undoubted. This family was the richest in Albenga, though wealth had been acquired by piracy; and Proculus was able to arm two thousand of his own slaves, and probably a great number of his sons. The fertile plain did not at that time exist, and the town was on the slope of the nearest western hill; the River Centa often changed its course, leaving broad stretches of swampy land. Gradually this was rendered more solid, until Constantius, the great general of Honorius, and afterwards the husband of Placidia, stopped here long enough, in 414, on his way from restoring order in Gaul, to put walls about the new town which had been built on the plain, and to construct—or at all events repair—the Pontelungo, that picturesque old Roman bridge which now stands on dry land. When the river changed its course again, cutting between the town and the hill, with great destruction of property and probably of life, we do not exactly know, but there is no mention of the Centa running in its present bed until somewhere in the eleventh century.

But neither the old bridge, nor its sanctuary at one end, nor the Baptistery—equally an old Roman work—nor the cathedral with the old lions behind it, and the Mosaic pavement which President De Brosses admired so much, will detain the visitor long. Albenga needs to be seen from a distance; and after looking at the lovely view from the new bridge, both landward and seaward, the tourist goes sufficiently far on the hillside to see in an amphitheatre of hills and mountains, some of which have snowy tops even to midsummer, the walls and towers of the city standing up in the midst of vineyards and well-cultivated vegetable gardens and meadows full of orchids. These towers of old noble houses add greatly to the picturesqueness as well as to the historical interest of Albenga. Certainly no town on the Riviera, and probably not one this side of San Gemignano, possesses so many.

In looking over the list of podestàs and other officials, one is struck with the number of good family names—such as Doria, Spinola, Scotti, Visconti, Fieschi—and one finds among the nobles of the first class of 200 years ago even such familiar names as Americo, Cepolla, and Tomato. In the middle of the fifteenth century there was a bishop named Napoleone Fieschi; and at the same time a podestà, Napoleone Lomellino, a fact which may interest students of the history of the Bonapartes. What are now wretched villages along the Riviera were in the Middle Ages flourishing and rich towns, so great was their commerce; and the diocese of Albenga, which extended almost from Savona to San Remo, had revenues sufficiently great to render its possession an object of ambition. We need not be astonished, then, to find that Cardinal Giulio de' Medici consented to accept the See, rich as he already was. The Cardinal, afterwards Pope Clement VII., who had four years before been made Archbishop of Florence, found no time to come to his diocese, and resigned it after a few months. There was also one other Bishop of Albenga, Sinibaldo Fieschi, who became Pope as Innocent IV. in 1243.

Otherwise the ecclesiastical history of Albenga has little interest. The curious island opposite, called still, as of old, Gallinaria—according to Varro and Columella, from its having once abounded in barn fowl in a wild state—and which had been sanctified by having served as a refuge for St. Martin of Tours, was the seat of a great Benedictine monastery. Subsequently the Benedictines founded abbeys on the hill above Albenga, the ruins of which are so prominent in the landscape, at the picturesque Cape of Santa Croce and at Alassio. Gradually they abandoned the island, which shows now hardly a trace of the monastery, confined themselves to their more accessible establishments, and led such riotous lives that with great difficulty, after several inquests, the Pope succeeded in suppressing their houses.

Far more interest attaches to the secular history of Albenga during the Middle Ages, when the town was in frequent conflict with the Counts della Laigueglia, who, through the favor of the Emperors Maximilian and Charles V., were the great lords of the country, from the village of Laigueglia beyond Alassio, whence they derive their name, to their stronghold of Garlenda, in the hills, the church of which is still visited by tourists curious to see an excellent picture by Domenichino, and a very bad one attributed to Nicolas Poussin. The neighboring village of Alassio, situated in a bay protected from most winds, with an excellent beach, which was considered by the inhabitants of Albenga as quite their own—having been built for their country residences—began to rival the mother city in trade and wealth as well as enterprise. One Alassian sea captain, Luca Ferrari, was a contemporary of Columbus in his discoveries in the Indies, and was granted great privileges by Ferdinand of Spain. Worst of all, the colony turned against its mother, and one fine morning the impatient Alassians, who desired their independence, nearly captured the town of Albenga by a sudden attack. Among those who fell in the fight was a Napoleone d'Aste. Albenga wisely gave way, and conferred on Alassio an independent civil and criminal jurisdiction. Spurred on by this success as well as by danger from the Turkish and Barbary pirates, the inhabitants of Alassio began to surround their town with walls, the expense of which was borne by the richer inhabitants, many of the women contributing their jewels. The first bastion was consecrated by the Bishop in 1521. Thanks to these, Albenga and Alassio were saved from the calamities which overwhelmed San Remo, Taggia, and other towns during the wars between Charles V. and Francis I., after the French had made an alliance with the Turks. After Laigueglia had been taken and pillaged by the pirates in 1546, a captain from Alassio, named Berno, sailed out, took a Turkish ship, rescued the captives and their goods, and took prisoners eighteen stalwart Mussulmans, who, one is glad to know, were set to work on the fortifications.

Albenga furnished hospitality at various times to the great Admiral Doria, to Charles V., to Emmanuel Philibert, and much later on was the headquarters for a while of the army of Napoleon, as well as a shelter for Pope Pius VII. But the great local celebrity is, of all persons in the world, Mme. de Genlis; and at the little neighboring village of Lusignano they will show you a house where she lived and wrote. This legend seems to me a pure product of local gratitude for a pretty description of Albenga, and some compliments on its situation, in her novel of 'Adèle et Théodore.' In a note she added that the description was not exaggerated, and was extracted from the diary which she wrote on the spot. More than that, she lays at Albenga the episode of the imprisonment in a cell for so many years of the Duchess of Cerifalco, which she had heard at Rome from the Duchess herself and her father, the Prince Palestrina. In the same story she makes the Duchess of Belmire leave Nice and reside for some years at Albenga, for the purpose of recovering her health. As two of the princely pupils of Mme. de Genlis amused themselves by taking the names Adèle and Théodore, this was apparently sufficient in connection with other things to make passages in the book appear like bits of autobiography.

The journey of Mme. de Genlis along the Riviera was in attendance on the Duchesse de Chartres, who had gone as far as Toulon with the Duke when, in his capacity of an officer of the navy, he was about to take a cruise in the Mediterranean. The ladies planned a journey into Italy without the previous permission of the court; for which excuses were made, when they were already on the road, by saying that the Duchess was suddenly taken with a desire of seeing her decrepit old grandfather, the Duke of Modena. From Antibes the party went by sea to Nice, escorted by a felucca carrying a whole regiment in order to protect them against the pirates. Apropos of Nice, Mme. de Genlis says that "the fashion of sending consumptive persons thither is strange and pernicious. The air is indeed very pure, but too sharp for delicate chests; the most frequent diseases there are affections of the lungs, and then the local doctors hasten to send their patients to the neighborhood of Lyons." Smollett says much the same. From Nice they travelled along what was then the frightful mule path of the Cornice, with an occasional bit of sea, to Genoa. Thence they went to Modena, Mantua, Rome, and Naples, of all of which journey Mme. de Genlis has left a very entertaining account in her memoirs. Before and for some time after the publication of 'Adèle et Théodore,' her duties as governess kept her at court, and after the Revolution the marches and countermarches of armies made any journey or stay in the Riviera impossible. As 'Adèle et Théodore' is not a book which is in everybody's hands, and in any case would not stay there long enough—such is its insipidity—for the proper page to be reached by the reader, I may perhaps be allowed to quote the description which has called out so much local gratitude:

"The road from Porto Maurizio to Albenga is full of frightful passes, but it has admirable points of view—especially that from the top of the hill above Laigueglia, the descent from which is very steep and dangerous. We came down on foot—I might even say barefoot, for the rocks that we had been walking over for three days had so worn our shoes that the soles were nearly gone; and as we had not expected to walk we had not taken the precaution of bringing several pairs. At ten o'clock in the morning we made our chairmen stop on a hill

from which we saw the town of Albenga in the midst of a delicious plain; this is a remarkable singularity on this coast, as all the other towns are on the rocky hillsides. At the foot of the hill is an immense fertile plain, surrounded by rocks and majestic mountains, some of which were covered with snow. The aridity of the rocks, the imposing aspect of the mountains, form a singular contrast to the smiling beauty of the plain; the meadows are covered with violets and lilies, the oleander grows wild; all the fields are surrounded by long arbors of vines through which you see verdure, flowers, and fruits enclosed by these light trellises, where every arch is ornamented by graceful grape wreaths that sway with the slightest breeze. In this delightful abode it seemed as if the earth were cultivated, not for the needs of man, but only for his pleasure. Everything one met was agreeable. We saw there real shepherdesses; all the young girls were bare-headed, with a few flowers stuck in their hair on the left side. They are nearly all pretty, and especially remarkable for the elegance of their figure."

Unquestionably Mme. de Genlis, in spite of her affected prudishness, must have had great personal attractions. Her pupil, Louis Philippe, told Victor Hugo (although all Hugo's statements must be taken with allowance) that when he was still a gawky youth he suddenly awoke to the fact that he was in love for the first time, and with his governess. Madame was at that time interested in some one else, and sent the future King out of the room, telling him not to make a fool of himself. "'Tis a pity" (Hugo goes on) "that when she had taught him so many useful and useless things, she would not explain the meaning of the verb Love." She was certainly right if the celebrated Pamela were her daughter and the sister of Louis Philippe. Mme. de Genlis tells a long story to show that her adopted daughter Pamela was really a little English girl of low parentage, introduced into the Palais Royal merely for the sake of giving the Orleans children a chance of practising their English. But Moore, in his 'Life of Lord Edward Fitgerald,' written from family papers, says positively that Pamela was the daughter of the Duke of Orleans (Égalité) and of Mme. de Genlis, and her descendants all seem to admit it and to be proud of it.

After Lord Edward Fitzgerald's death in the Irish insurrection of 1798, Pamela married Mr. Pitcairn, a Scotchman by birth, who generally resided in New York, and was for some time American Consul at Hamburg. Whether Pamela ever came to America it is hard to say at this distance, but there is a bit of family history which interests many other people than the author of 'A Girl's Life Eighty Years Ago.' Pitcairn once, at a theatre in New York, in jesting with a young lady, having asked what he should bring her on his next visit, she answered, "A Scotch husband." The man was brought and was married, and years later, when they were quietly living at Canandaigua, Louis Philippe and his two brothers arrived on horseback from Niagara with letters of introduction, and asked for hospitality. It was on a Sunday. The princes were in rags, and the larder of the family was so empty that it was necessary to send to the nearest neighbor's in order to borrow sufficient, not only to eat, but to wear.

E. S.

Correspondence.

THE PEOPLE'S PALACE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have just seen a paper in the *Nation* of April 26 on the "People's Palace." Will you allow me to point out a grave mistake made by the author? He says that the audience at the Sunday organ recitals, held at the Palace, is not an audience of genuine workmen. Permit me to say that the whole of the audience on Sunday morning, almost without exception, consists of genuine workmen. Your writer, "N. N.," judged by the dress, which he thought to be that of clerks and shopkeepers. The better class of workingmen, as a fact, dress in London as well as the clerks and shopkeepers. The men in corduroys, whom "N. N." found outside, are not the sort of men for whom the Palace is designed. They are the lower class, the men who hang about bars and drink all their wages. The respectable workman puts on his corduroys and ties a handkerchief round his neck on week days. On Sundays he goes in broadcloth and white collar.—I remain, sir, your most obedient servant,

Walter Besant.

Hampton, London, June 16, 1888.

MAINE POLITICS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of this week are some statements regarding the Republican nominee, Hon. E. C. Burleigh, and Maine politics which should not pass unprotested. The writer of this has no sympathy with the Machine or machine politics. Mr. Burleigh was not the choice of the Ring, and was not brought forward by it. Of the sixteen members of the State Committee—one for each county—Mr. Burleigh had the support of only two. Gov. Marble is an accidental Governor, and but for this would never have been brought forward as a candidate. He is, moreover, seventy years old, and has always been an active politician and chronic office-holder. To suppose any ring could pack a convention of 1,448 delegates from more than five hundred cities, towns, and plantations, with three active candidates in the field, is absurd. The delegates from Mr. Burleigh's own city were elected without an opposing vote. Of the 1,638 votes cast in the Convention, Gov. Marble received 190, Mr. Cleaves 473, Mr. Burleigh 775. Mr. Burleigh's plurality over Mr. Cleaves 302, over Gov. Marble 585. In his own county, whose delegation numbered 131, Gov. Marble received 6 (one of them being a proxy delegate, who, after being overwhelmingly defeated in his own city, went as proxy for a plantation which cast only 3 Republican votes at the last gubernatorial election), Mr. Cleaves 18, and Mr. Burleigh 107.

I think I have given you figures enough to show that he is the people's candidate. The question of his eligibility was fully discussed before the Convention as well as at it, where Judge Symonds made a lengthy plea against it. As to the articles in the Waterville *Mail* and Portland *Press*, if you had known the writers, I am sure you would have attached little weight to them. For many years I have been a reader of your paper, which I deem the fairest of any I have ever read, and I think I know your idea of political machines; and I can and do most emphatically say Mr. Burleigh is not the candidate of the Machine.—Yours, H.

Augusta, Me., June 23, 1888.

A SUGGESTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Now that the issue of the taxation of raw materials and necessaries of life seems to be fairly well defined between the two great political parties, would it not be well to make the exact figures and percentages of the tax upon a few of such articles a matter of common knowledge with the people?

A brief tabulation of the tax on wool, blankets, clothing, sugar, salt, lumber, iron, lead, copper, etc., together with a statement of the amount of the surplus, kept in type and prominently displayed in the newspapers, and in posters at the corners and cross-roads throughout the country, would be a quiet and effective argument that would pay in the long run, even should it become necessary to curtail the expense of club uniforms, pyrotechnics, and brass bands.—Very respectfully yours,

George B. Upham.

Boston, June 23, 1888.

Notes.

The new volume of the "Chandos Classics" of Frederick Warne & Co. will be 'Selected Essays from the *Tatler*,' with an introductory essay and notes by Alex. Charles Ewald.

A 'Manual of Astronomy,' by Prof. C. A. Young of Princeton, is announced by Ginn & Co.

Lee & Shepard, Boston, have in press 'Mexico, Picturesque, Political, Progressive,' by Mrs. Mary Elizabeth Blake and Mrs. Margaret F. Sullivan; and 'Methods and Aids in Teaching Geography,' by Chas. F. King.

An addition to the literature of Chautauqua comes to us in the account of the Nebraska Summer Assembly at Crete, by Anna E. Hahn (Boston: Congregational Sunday School and Publishing Society). It is cast partly in the form of a story, the experiences of a family during their attendance; but it contains specimens of the lectures given, and notes of the various ordinary proceedings. The moral effects of the work, as a kind of sociable camp-meeting, are most brought out. One of the minor advantages in this case was that the daughter accidentally met with a long-lost lover, whom she had left in the East; but generally the story is a mere blind for good words for Chautauqua circles, Crete College, the *Youth's Companion*, and various eminent or obscure orators, among whom we notice Mr. Thurston of the Chicago Convention. From the extracts here given from his address on Grant, one sees that his "eloquence" is something of which he has a stock always on hand.

Another series of 'Books that have Helped Me' papers, from the *Forum*, has been brought out by D. Appleton & Co. The confessions are nearly all from prominent persons, and serve the usual purpose of letting the world know how the writers began life, with more or less of circumstance and local color.

We praised last year 'The Musical Year-Book of the United States' (Boston, 152 Tremont Street: G. H. Wilson), and the new issue for the musical season of 1887–88 is now before us. The excessive attention formerly given to Boston as compared with New York has been measurably overcome. But Mr. Wilson prefers not to compete with Mr. Krehbiel's 'Review of the New York Musical Season,' to which he refers his readers for further particulars. First performances are indicated in this record of programmes, and especially valuable is the index of titles, under the composers' names. Beethoven and Wagner vie with each other, each filling rather more than a page of the index.

The second part of vol. i of Mr. Henry F. Waters's 'Genealogical Gleanings in England' has been published in Boston by the New England Historic Genealogical Society. To the later 'Gleanings' are prefixed the introductory notes which accompanied them in the *Register*, where they originally appeared, and were commented on by us from time to time,

The John Harvard researches are of prime interest in this as in the previous issue, and the view of his mother's home and facsimile of his autograph adorn the volume. But the index of persons shows the extraordinarily wide scope of Mr. Waters's explorations, and should attract to his support a great many adherents. Every one, in short, inclined to speculate and inquire about his English connections must hereafter turn first of all to these 'Gleanings.' An index of places is added, and has a peculiar value on the English side as preserving the names of localities now either lost or forgotten.

In line with the foregoing is the *Index Library* edited by W. P. W. Phillimore, Queen's College, Oxford, of which the sixth part has come to hand (London: Charles J. Clark). This number unlocks Chancery proceedings in the time of Charles I., and Northamptonshire and Rutland wills of the period 1510–1652. Reference has thus far been made to more than 10,000 wills, and upwards of 3,600 names occur in the portion of the Signet indexes already printed, while more than 16,000 references have been already made to the Royalist Composition Papers. An entirely new index to Sussex wills is in active preparation, and will probably include a series of marriage licenses. In short, this enterprise has strong claims for support in this country as well as in England.

"Elocution and Oratory" is the subject of the second number of the *Bibliographer and Reference List* (Buffalo, N. Y.: Moulton, Wenborne & Co.).

In No. 45 of the Proceedings of the U. S. Naval Institute (Annapolis), occurs the second and concluding portion of Notes from the Journal of Lieut. T. A. M. Craven, U. S. S. *Dale*, Pacific Squadron, 1846-49. These throw some light on the history of that period of conquest and annexation, and on the state of the navy, and are readable also for their pictures of places now transformed by the Anglo-Saxon settlement of California.

The photogravure after Mr. Thornycroft's "Mower" is the leading pictorial feature of the June *Portfolio* (Macmillan). Mr. Walter Armstrong furnishes the accompanying text, which is devoid of fulsome praise, so far as this statuary is concerned, and, for the rest, gives a glance at the progress of the art of sculpture in England since Banks and Flaxman.

There has probably never been a period in the history of printing when more experiments in book-making were ventured upon than the present; and there is no country where these experiments are more abundant and, in the main, more successful than France. One of the latest is 'Le Rosier de Madame Husson,' by M. Guy de Maupassant (Paris: Quantin; New York: F. W. Christern). M. de Maupassant is a masterly writer of short stories; but this is not one of his best—though a tale of Normandy, wherein he is generally seen to most advantage. Yet the 'Rosier de Madame Husson' serves its purpose well enough as a peg for the illustrations of M. Habert-Dys, who has provided one for every page, about thirty in all—sometimes a "landscape with figures," sometimes a decoration more Japanese, always apt and ingenious and interesting. As in Mr. Vedder's 'Omar Khayyám,' the design fills the whole page except a space left blank for the text. The letter-press is soberly printed in black, while the border changes color with every page. A frontispiece, etched by M. Abot from a design by M. Jules Desprès, seems a little out of keeping with the richer and more varied drawings of M. Habert-Dys.

Two more volumes of the "Œuvres inédites" of Victor Hugo were published June 1 by Hetzel-Quantin under the title 'Toute la Lyre.' It is a collection of about 1,000 pages of unpublished poems left by Victor Hugo among his manuscripts, for publication by his literary executors. The poems are of all the periods of his poetic life, and are written in his customary manner; but, as might be expected, when it is considered that they were rejected by the author from his previous collections during his lifetime, they are generally not of a quality to add to his reputation.

Among the late publications of Hachette & Cie. is a volume with the attractive title, 'Points obscurs et nouveaux de la vie de Pierre Corneille: Étude historique et critique, avec pièces justificatives' (Boston: Schoenhof). The author, M. François Bouquet, published in 1880 'La Troupe de Molière et les deux Corneille à Rouen en 1658.'

Félix Alcan has just published 'Lavoisier (1743–1794) d'après sa correspondance, ses manuscrits, ses papiers de famille et d'autres documents inédits,' by Édouard Grimaux.

A book which may prove to be very interesting was announced by Charpentier for publication June 4. It is 'Le Journal de Stendhal: mémoires inédits,' published and annotated by MM. de Nion and Stryenski.

The third volume of the 'Mémoires du général Cluseret' has been issued by Jules Lévy. It has for its especial title 'La Fin de l'Empire' (Boston: Schoenhof).

In consequence of a law passed at the last session of the Sobranye appropriating 60,000 francs for literary and scientific works, the Bulgarian Government has drawn up regulations for the study of literature and history. It is proposed to give a reward to all persons who bring to light ancient manuscripts or literary documents of value, as well as those who send copies of popular songs, proverbs, riddles, etc., hitherto unpublished, or descriptions of usages and customs. These will be published in a collection edited by the Minister of Public Instruction. Assistance will also be granted to the publication of literary and scientific works in Bulgarian, and of works written in foreign languages if intimately relating to the history and literature of the country. Another regulation provides that all antique objects discovered in Bulgaria belong to the State. It is forbidden to make excavations and searches for antiquities without official permission, on pain of confiscation of all objects found. There is the same penalty for attempting to export antiquities without permission. If, however, antiquities are discovered accidentally, or after due permission obtained, their value is estimated; one-third is given to the finder, and one-third to the owner of the land on which they are found.

The 'Etymologicum Magnum Romaniæ,' or Dictionary of the historical and popular language of the Rumanians, published by the Rumanian Academy, and edited by Mr. B. Petriceicŭ-Hasdeu, has reached the first number of the second volume, ending with the word *Apuc*, and, unlike many dictionaries, seems to increase in value as it goes on. Some of the names of towns—as, for example, Antina—are illustrated with maps, views, and cuts of the archæological objects found there. The Academy has recently published its Proceedings for the year 1886-87, second series, vol. ix, which contains much interesting matter; an edition of the verse-translation of the Psalter—both in Slavic and Latin type—made by Dosotheus, Metropolitan of Maldavia, according to the original manuscripts, and the edition of 1673, which is invaluable for the study of early Rumanian forms; and the works of Miron Costin, a Rumanian historian and statesman who lived from 1633 to 1691. This last book is richly illustrated with the facsimiles of manuscripts and autographs, and is edited by V. A. Urechia, Professor and formerly Minister of Public Instruction.

Every one who has read in the English or German translation the tales and fairy-stories of Ion Slavici, one of the most eminent Rumanian writers, will regret to learn that by a decision of the Court of Hermanstadt (Nagy Szeben, as it is called in Magyar) he has been condemned to imprisonment for a year on account of a press offence committed in his newspaper, *La Tribuna*. He has been found guilty of a too violent attack on the Hungarian Government. Slavici was a native of the Rumanian portion of Transylvania, where he passed his early years. After settling in Independent Rumania, he devoted himself entirely to literature. His return to Transylvania a few years ago to edit a political journal was lamented by all his friends, literary and other, except those who desired him to be the corypheus of the Rumanian Irredentist movement in Hungary.

The Deerfield, Mass., Summer School of History and Romance will reopen on July 5, and close on July 31, sitting Tuesdays, Thursdays, and Saturdays. There will also be classes in Folk-lore and in American Literature, open to members only. The manager is Mr. L. J. B. Lincoln.

—The July *Atlantic* continues the admirable series of classical papers by a second article upon Cicero as he is most delightfully known to us in his Letters. The period covered is that subsequent to his exile, and the passages translated are rendered with an exquisite literary touch, though they make no pretension to exact scholarship. The personality of Cicero on his companionable side—and he is one of the most companionable of the ancients, as Montaigne's appreciation proves—vitalizes and irradiates this somewhat slight study of him, but it has not that charm of completeness in the impression which distinguished the previous paper upon Pliny. Another interesting article of an unusual kind is Mr. Downes's first instalment of a series upon the artists of Boston. He deals with the early colonial portrait painters, and with Copley, Trumbull, and Stuart, in a style at once appreciative and restrained. The most important paper, however, is a sketch of the conditions of factory life in the Blackstone Valley of Rhode Island by Lillie B. Chace Wyman. She examines the system that has grown up under the hereditary cotton-mills in that district with regard principally to the feature of tenement-ownership, and to the arbitrary and practically autocratic control of the superintendents over their employees. It is an older but less developed type of the town of Pullman that appears in her pages, and its workings are not found to be entirely beneficent. The sanitary condition is said to be bad, and the tendency to develop a floating in place of a settled population to be marked. The control of the liquor traffic, on the other hand, is reckoned a gain. On the whole, however, no compensation is found in this form of "the industrial group" for the lack of the sentiment of home that springs from proprietorship, and the absence of the invigorating conditions of independence which belong to the American ideal of a small community. Furthermore, the opportunity of the superintendents to act capriciously, harshly, and inconsiderately is represented as very great. The only check seems to be the necessity of business gains; but this is a slender reed for justice to rest upon. Mrs. Wyman closes her article with an opinion of Senator Chace's: "Pecuniarily the factory is a

success, but in my judgment the sanitary and moral influences are bad." The number contains no poetry.

—Green's 'Short History of the English People' seems to belie its name when expanded into two octavo volumes and styled 'Histoire du Peuple Anglais' (Paris: E. Plon, Nourrit & Cie.). The translation has been made by M. Auguste Monod upon the text of 1882, but with the benefit (at least for corrections of errors) of the revision lately published by the historian's widow in a single compact volume. It is a not slavish translation, and occasionally retrenchment has been employed in the case of repetitions or contradictions. The maps have not been reproduced, on the ground of their insufficiency—a just censure, but it would have been natural to provide better, especially in view of a foreign audience. The table of contents has been bettered, the index has been reduced to one of proper names; yet here again there was a good opportunity to improve on the original. A welcome addition is an introduction, of about twenty pages, from the pen of M. Gabriel Monod. Its sketch of the author's career is infused with the warmth of personal acquaintance and admiration. M. Monod pays a high tribute to Green's impartiality, but offers some criticism, whose weight will be generally acknowledged, on behalf of Continental countries as against the overpraise of England's world-wide influence; and he concludes with a careful parallel between the course of monarchy and political freedom in England and in France, with its instructive antitheses. M. Monod hopes that the emancipation of his own country from centralization will yet be witnessed, and that the traditional feud between France and England will die out, while he regrets the evidences of repugnance on the latter's part to a closer understanding. The translation of Green must be of service in promoting the desired international harmony, and is indeed a patriotic performance. The publishers have made a handsome work of it.

—The Historical Manuscripts Commission is doing admirable work in bringing to light many precious documents relating not merely to English, but likewise to American history. Besides the reports on the papers of the Marquis of Landsdowne relating to colonial affairs during the years 1766–1783 (Fifth Report, 1876), those of the Duke of Manchester relating to the colonization of Virginia (Eighth Report, 1881), and those of the Marquess Townshend concerning the history of Carolina, Georgia, Massachusetts, and other parts of America, in the first half of the eighteenth century (Eleventh Report, App. iv., 1887), we now have a report on the manuscripts of the Earl of Dartmouth, which are very valuable for the study of American colonial history during the eventful years 1765–1779 (Eleventh Report, App. v., 1888, pp. 331-423). The second Earl of Dartmouth was Secretary for the Colonial Department from August, 1772, until November, 1775. His chief correspondents, abstracts of whose letters are given in this report, were, at first, Gov. Hutchinson of Boston, and Joseph Reed, the latter writing from Philadelphia. When the war for independence began, Gens. Gage and Howe, Admiral Graves, Govs. Carleton and Wentworth, Franklin, John Wesley, Lord North, and others are among the writers. We can here give only a few of the many instructive comments on the state of public affairs which these letters contain. Gov. Tryon, writing to the Earl of Dartmouth from New York, May 5, 1773, says: "His Majesty's instruction and his Majesty's interests are not at all times one and the same thing, and he who in America follows implicitly the letter of the instructions will not best serve the King" (p. 336). Joseph Reed to the Earl of Dartmouth, September 25, 1774: "No King ever had more loyal subjects, or any country more affectionate Colonists, than the Americans were. I, who am but a young man, well remember the former to be always spoken of with a respect approaching admiration, . . . [but] unless some plan of accommodation can be speedily formed, the affection of the Colonies will be irrecoverably lost. . . . What seemed a little time since a spark which, with prudence and wisdom, might have been extinguished, is now a flame that threatens ruin to both parent and child" (p. 362). The same correspondent writes, February 14, 1775: "Notwithstanding all which has passed, much remains of that old affection to the parent State which distinguished our happier days, [so] that a contest with her is regarded as the greatest possible evil, next to the loss of what we esteem our rights. . . . There is scarcely a man in this country, my Lord, in or out of office, not of immediate appointment from England, who does not oppose taxation by the British Parliament" (p. 373).

—One of the most interesting letters of the whole collection is that sent by John Wesley "In the way to Dublin," June 14, 1775, to the Earl of Dartmouth, protesting against the American war:

"All my prejudices," he says, "are against the Americans, for I am a High Churchman, the son of a High Churchman, bred up from my childhood in the highest notions of passive obedience and non resistance; and yet, in spite of all my rooted prejudice, I cannot avoid thinking (if I think at all) that an oppressed people asked for nothing more than their legal rights, and that in the most modest and inoffensive manner which the nature of the thing would allow. But waiving this, waiving all considerations of right and wrong, I ask, is it common sense to use force towards the Americans? . . . They are divided among themselves? So you are informed by various letters and memorials. So I doubt not was poor Rehoboam informed concerning the ten tribes. So (nearer our times) was Philip informed concerning the people of the Netherlands! No, my lord, they are terribly united; not in the Province of New England only, but down as low as the Jerseys and Pennsylvania, the bulk of the people are so united that to speak a word in favor of the present English measures would almost endanger a man's life."

He then discusses the dangers of an attack from abroad on Ireland while English resources are engaged in America:

"But we have our militia, our valiant, disciplined militia; these will effectually oppose them. Give me leave, my lord, to relate a little circumstance of which one then on the spot informed me. In 1716 a large body of militia were marching towards Preston against the rebels. In a wood which they were marching by a boy happened to discharge his fowling-piece. The soldiers gave [up] all for lost, and by common consent threw down their arms and ran for life. So much dependence is to be placed on our valorous militia!"

Mr. Wesley then draws a parallel between the time at which he is writing and the years 1640-1650—the dearness of provisions, the depression of trade, and the hatred of the poor for the rich all being similar. He concludes thus:

"Upon the whole I am really sometimes afraid that this 'evil is of the Lord.' When I consider (to say nothing of ten thousand other vices shocking to human nature) the astonishing luxury of the rich and the *profaneness* of rich and poor, I doubt whether general dissoluteness of manners does not demand a general visitation. Perhaps the decree has already gone forth from the Governor of the world. . . . But we Englishmen are too wise to acknowledge that God has anything to do in the world! Otherwise should we not seek him by fasting and prayer before He lets the lifted thunder drop? O, my lord, if your lordship can do anything, let it not be wanting! For God's sake, for the sake of the King, of the nation, of your lovely family, remember Rehoboam! Remember Philip the Second! Remember King Charles the First! I am, with true regard, my lord, your lordship's obedient servant, John Wesley" (p. 379).

—The Hungarian Academy of Sciences held its annual public meeting at Budapest on May 6, at which it elected as active member Mr. Benjamin Kállay, the Austro-Hungarian Finance Minister, and the author of a history of Servia; as honorary members, Mr. Tisza, the Hungarian Premier, and Count Julius Andrássy, and the Archduke Joseph—the two first simply for honors, the Archduke not only for his gypsy grammar, but for his botanical works; as foreign members, Mr. E. T. Atkinson, President of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, and MM. Ilminsky and Radloff, distinguished Russian Oriental scholars. During the last year the Academy has published thirty volumes and fifty-six memoirs, and has given subventions to twelve scientific reviews and four scientific publications. Its revenues in 1887 amounted to $97,618, and its expenses to $61,557. Its whole property amounts to nearly a million. Since its foundation in 1831, the Academy has spent more than $2,000,000, four-fifths of which have been voluntary gifts of private persons, only $224,000 having been contributed by the State; while during the absolutist period private gifts were forbidden by the Austrian Government. The Academy offers, during the next three years, thirty-one different prizes, chiefly relating to Hungarian history and literature, but two of which may be of interest to Hungarians established in America—a prize of 100 ducats on alcoholism, its consequences and its remedies, and one of 500 florins on the question of legal tender and the premium on gold and silver in America.

—The May Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society opens with an interesting account of Suanetia, a district of the Central Caucasus, by Mr. D. W. Freshfield. The inhabitants, numbering about 12,000, have preserved their separate national identity since the time of the Emperor Augustus, and "may fairly be described as reverted pagans." They were converted to Christianity before the tenth century, and the country is still covered with small stone churches and chapels, "dating probably from the eleventh and twelfth centuries." But these have been closed, being used principally as treasure-houses, and containing chests in which are "the sacred books and images, some of them beautiful works of art, Persian silks, strange three-sided pieces of wood carved with old Georgian inscriptions, flint-headed spears and arrows," among other things. The priests have disappeared, and their place is taken "by an hereditary class of local elders, who superintended the funeral feasts and sacrifices." This latter ceremony is thus described by Prof. Kovalevsky: "One of the nearest relations of the deceased follows the body to the grave, leading by the horns a fat ox. Immediately after the burial the ox is killed, and the heart and liver are placed on a wooden platter. This is taken by one of the local elders (who are not consecrated or in any way recognized as priests by the Georgian Church), who lifts up the plate, using at the same time the following words: 'O God, accept this our sacrifice.'" They are said to worship the heavenly bodies, and some of Mr. Freshfield's porters appeared to pray to and praise the sun directly. In the discussion which followed the reading of the paper before the Society, Prof. Bryce, M.P., said that it was a "remarkable and almost unique fact" that "a

people who had reached the level of Christian monotheism should fall back into heathenism." It ought to be said that Mr. Freshfield does not make it quite clear in all cases whether he is describing a condition which has passed away or one still existing. He refers to some reforms introduced by the Russians in recent years, especially in restraining the robber proclivities of the wild mountaineers. To such an extent was freebooting once carried that apparently every hamlet has its stone tower-of-refuge from forty to eighty feet high, which forms a "strangely fantastic" feature in the landscape. The remainder of the paper is taken up with a description of the mountains and glaciers of this region, which the writer strongly recommends to vacation tourists and scientific students.

—Polybius has recently attracted much attention in scholarly England, usually averse to work in post-classic Greek. Mr. Capes, who is well known for his historical monographs, has published selections from Polybius under the title 'The History of the Achæan League,' in which he has tried to do justice with unequal success to the side of language and to the historical side; Mr. Shuckburgh has in hand a complete translation of the remains of the great "pragmatical" historian; and we have before us, arrayed in all the beauty of the Clarendon Press, Oxford, Mr. James Leigh Strachan-Davidson's 'Selections from Polybius.' These selections, we are told, comprise about a third of the remains of the author, and the gaps have been filled up by brief narratives in English. The prolegomena discuss a variety of Polybian matters without going very deep into any one, the most interesting being the short essay on the scene of the battle of Cannæ, which, like the appendix on the site of Carthage in Spain, has the unfailing charm of autopsy. The comparatively few notes are very thin, and consist largely of translations of easy passages. The beginner in Polybius, we must say in all candor, will learn much more from the unpretentious work of Mr. Capes than from the sumptuous and ambitious book of Mr. Strachan-Davidson.

RECENT FICTION.

Bonaventure. A Prose Pastoral of Acadian Louisiana. By George W. Cable. Charles Scribner's Sons.

The Story of Keedon Bluffs. By Charles Egbert Craddock. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

A Phyllis of the Sierras, and *A Drift from Redwood Camp.* By Bret Harte. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

The Argonauts of North Liberty. By Bret Harte. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Black Ice. By Albion W. Tourgée. Fords, Howard & Hulbert.

The World's Verdict. By Mark Hopkins, jr. Boston: Ticknor & Co.

An American Penman. From the Diary of Inspector Byrnes. By Julian Hawthorne. Cassell & Co.

Mona's Choice. By Mrs. Alexander. Henry Holt & Co.

A Life Interest. By Mrs. Alexander. Henry Holt & Co.

Wessex Tales. By Thomas Hardy. Harper & Bros.

A Castle in the Air. By Gen. Hugh Ewing. Henry Holt & Co.

A Man's Will. By Edgar Fawcett. Funk & Wagnalls.

John Ward, Preacher. By Margaret Deland. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

THE noble simplicity of a life like Bonaventure's would be welcome from any hand. From Mr. Cable's it is doubly so; for, with the example of a worthy life full of sincerity, of elevation, and of sacrifice, made only the more lovely because of the unconsciousness with which it is given, one at the same time enjoys the pleasure of surrendering one's imagination to Mr. Cable's, and following the threads of his simple story, benefiting by his exquisite workmanship, his minute observation, and his artistic feeling, without a thought behind. It is a pleasure which is afforded one only too seldom in the fiction of the day. The number of writers now making novels whose work it is safe or at all possible to read with one's critical judgment left to one side, may be numbered on one hand. Even Mr. Cable has faults: refined and subtle as his humor is, to some he may seem a little over-fond of it. Though he imagines comprehensively, and observes with closeness and fidelity, it may justly be complained, nevertheless, that his imagination now and then strains a point, while at other times his faculty of observation has everything its own way. Yet, for all that, one cannot seriously find fault with the story of Bonaventure, or, rather, the cluster of stories growing out of his, and beautifully showing the breadth and power of influence which a simple, sincere, and high-minded man may wield. They are so unpretentious, so devoid of the claptrap and sensationalism which the public demands—and generally gets, one must sorrowfully admit—that a sympathetic reader is not only pleased by reading them, but also elevated and made better. This not alone because the stories are unaffected in their simplicity, and free from the taint of melodrama, of course, but because at the same time they are pervaded with a spirit of faith, a faith in the nobility of truth, however homely, in the beauty of unselfishness, however simple.

Mr. Cable's power of seizing on the points of a character, otherwise commonplace, and conveying along with the sense of its highest attributes the homely aspects of its environment, the every-day life of an untutored, unambitious people, and never once lapsing into sentimentality or bathos, is an invaluable one, especially when it is joined with the deep respect for his art which Mr. Cable shows in every turn. It is due to two things: the belief which the writer has in the things he places highest, and in his sense of humor. The one enables him to write sincerely, the other prevents him from writing foolishly. For the rest, his charm, his interest, his freshness—they come from his materials and his workmanship, rather than from his native power and talent. But, with these qualities all combined, he gives us stories for which we can freely feel thankful.

Miss Murfree's work cannot be complained of for lack of earnestness, either. The impression one forms after reading 'The Story of Keedon Bluffs' tends rather in the other direction—perhaps it is too serious. At least, its seriousness is unrelieved by any such delicate humor as so often saves Mr. Cable from coming to grief. There is a strong tendency noticeable in all Miss Murfree's writings to exalt the commonplace—a tendency which, when coupled with an equally strong one for forcing dramatic situations, is sufficient to destroy the effect of whole chapters of simplicity and uncouth dialect. One who meets the kind of people Miss Murfree writes of on an equal footing, and sees much of them, is finally forced into the belief that nobility of nature is not apportioned to the uneducated and superstitious in any greater ratio than to the rest of mankind, and that the coat and dialect of the rural laborer are not of themselves unfailing guarantees of honesty and manhood, any more than the dress and actions of a gentleman are signs of his rascality. Perhaps the qualities of character and truth, as well as of light and color, are only relative, after all, and one must make allowances for the degree of knowledge with which another acts, and for the force of their surroundings and traditions. One may reasonably expect more of *Colonel* Esmond than of Tom Jones, and one does. It is therefore a waste of effort, as well as a false straining of art, to attempt the illustration of the highest truths with characters for whom one must make allowances, and at the same time adhere to the "natural" method.

There is one American story-writer who is bothered with no limitation of art or questions of ethics, but whose sole province is to tell his tale and have done with it. Mr. Bret Harte probably writes "out of his head" as much as any novelist except the purely imaginative or the entirely sensational ones. His landscapes, naturally and completely as they are drawn, with all their briefness, are taken from only the most indistinct kind of memories, or from nothing at all, and his people come from anywhere and everywhere. It is true that they usually bring up on the Pacific Slope, and that they invariably have something interesting and amusing happening to them. There are enough surprises and complications, for instance, turned off in the short tale 'A Phyllis of the Sierras' to furnish many a writer with material for volumes. But we have seen nothing of late which can at all compare with 'The Argonauts of North Liberty' for brief directness, for sustained and exciting interest, or for subtle, strong suggestiveness. The story "tells itself," and in an hour's reading one compasses the entire existence of three persons by simply knowing how they acted at three important periods of their lives. There is no need for minutiæ or details; the drama is played, the curtain is rung down promptly, and one's curiosity is satisfied. The last sentence of the book completes the first chapter of the story, and the circle is finished. The tale is too neatly told, the coincidences aud contrasts are too effectively wrought, and the action too rapid and culminating to bear marring by abridgment. But if one cares for a story that is just simply a story, for characters that have nothing to recommend them but their human failings and passions, and can put up with a very small portion of wickedness which is never carried quite beyond the verge of respectability, one will surely read the history of Deacon Salisbury's daughter of North Liberty and her two husbands.

Judge Tourgée has finally written a novel which has nothing to do with politics or the "'question of the day." As the printed slip which the publishers so considerately provide says: "The book appears in a neat and attractive form, and will doubtless meet that welcome that Judge Tourgée's fictions are sure to find." But, after all, the book is quite unremarkable. There is one of Thomas Hardy's characters—a writer of reviews—who remarks that most novels are neither good enough nor bad enough for the purposes of reviewing. He would undoubtedly put 'Black Ice' in this category. For while the book contains a story with a certain interest, it is told in such an offhand way, so many of the characters play their part of padding out the tale in such a perfunctory way, the surprises are so lacking in the element of surprise, and so many things require long personal narrations to explain them,

that the effect is quite unsatisfactory. Mr. Tourgée writes vigorously, and, if one may say it, with abandon. He is not afraid to tackle a page or two of fine writing nor a harrowing situation now and then. But he fails to select and arrange his materials to a good enough advantage to secure an effective and uniform result.

But for a novel that is quite without a redeeming feature one is recommended to 'The World's Verdict.' It is unnatural, confused, and amateurish to the last degree. The scene is laid in Paris, and shifts to Nice; the characters are "Americans and otherwise," and the story, if placed at all, is to be classed as "international"—though that seems a very heavy epithet to apply to a piece of work so unimpressive and lacking in promise.

Mr. Julian Hawthorne is treading close on the heels of other writers of detective stories, both in the popularity and in the volume of his productions. The books that have come from his pen and the diary of Inspector Byrnes are not distinguished as much from the common bank-robbery and mysterious-murder cases as the reputations of the two men would lead one to expect. 'The American Penman,' indeed, is almost a complete disappointment. Perhaps even in detective stories ingenuity alone is better than half facts and half fancies.

'Mona's Choice' and 'A Life Interest' show the facility with which Mrs. Alexander can write a three-volume novel about nothing in particular and a good many things in general. They are chiefly remarkable for this, and for the astonishingly hazardous way in which the writer will plunge her stereotyped heroines into unheard-of difficulties and complications, and the providential avenues which always open for their escape. It is impossible for one who writes so much to avoid repetitions, both of characters and situations as well as of tricks of style and diction. Mrs. Alexander is far from doing so; but she succeeds on the whole in giving enough color and individuality to her works to enable one to recall the main points of a story from its title without too much of an effort.

When a man deliberately says that he prefers the insipid little crab-apple to the fine-flavored and fully developed pippin, it is tolerably safe to conclude either that he is devoid of taste or that he enjoys opposing the general opinions of mankind from what is called "pure cussedness." And a somewhat similar conclusion must be reached in regard to the reader who deliberately prefers the short story, which must necessarily depend for its interest almost entirely on incident, to the full-fledged novel, in which the author has space and opportunity to elaborate those psychological studies which have made certain novels great and memorable books. Nor can the writer who has in times past shown abundant capacity for dealing with all the subtleties of the novel of character, be regarded as blameless when he voluntarily abandons that higher plane, and seeks the easier successes that attend the novel of incident.

On a certain well-known occasion the "Thunderer" fell foul of Thackeray because he had written the 'Kickleburys on the Rhine.' The criticism was badly worded and in bad taste, and the irritated author was consequently enabled to make a telling reply; but, nevertheless, the critic was, in the main, right. What he intended to say was, that the man who had written 'Vanity Fair' ought not to have wasted his time and his brains on the 'Kickleburys.' To no human beings does "noblesse oblige" apply with so much force as to the author and the artist. Having once struck a high level, they owe it to themselves and to their reputation to avoid anything that may tempt them to

> "Seek baser plaudits and a meaner prize."

And, inasmuch as Mr. Hardy has reached the front rank of living novelists by reason of his command of language and his ability to delineate the fine shades of character, it becomes a solemn duty to protest against his wasting his time on 'Wessex Tales.' This protest having been entered, all that remains to be said is, that the tales are well told, that they are full of delightful pictures of rustic life in the west of England during the early part of the century, and that they will aid the reader who is satisfied with incidents, "strange, lively and commonplace," to pass a pleasant evening.

'A Castle in the Air,' though the history of a lawsuit, might be called a military novel because of a certain soldierly directness in narration, and of the bristling march of incidents which, wholly without comment, make up the story. It reads as if one in boots and saddle, weary of life as portrayed in the modern novel, its complexities, subtleties, and analyses, its love and its tea-tables, had dashed off his facts and written his finis and pursued his ride, like a well-conducted person. The result is, a collection of more or less interesting legal incidents of which, unfortunately, the more entertaining come first, a quite irrelevant collection of details relating to a ghost and a bundle of papers, the recital of a vast amount of plotting and cheating—a story unsatisfactory as a whole, but not without interest in parts, a style defaced by inaccuracies and provincialisms, but direct and crisp to the point of crackling. There is an approach to individuality in the persons and language of Sam and Mirandy, a blustering coward and a masterful young woman. Otherwise, the characters are mainly lay-figures draped in circumstantial evidence. The introduction of ghosts and sulphur into a novel written in the dust of law offices and tied up with red tape, has a curiously incongruous effect, and suggests a wonder whether the story may not have been the inspiration of a nightmare produced by reading the reports of a recent *cause célèbre*.

Inasmuch as Mr. Fawcett has lent his brain and pen to the cause of temperance, he is to be applauded; and inasmuch as he has made a repetitious and dreary novel, he is to be forgiven. Some day, perhaps, the novel will be written which shall do for temperance what 'Uncle Tom's Cabin' did for anti-slavery, what 'Nicholas Nickleby' did for the cause of kindness. Perhaps, till Fiction has set her mighty engine in motion, Philanthropy will lack her best ally. All honor to Mr. Fawcett for the attempt, failure though it is. His story, to begin with, is tiresome where it should be terrible, and mincing where it should be passionate. His characters are wooden, his atmosphere too laboriously that of the Élite Directory, his style cursed with adverbs, pompous and viscid. To call it an empty book would be to deny its authorship, as well as to question its ability or its strength in parts. That it will help the cause it pleads is unfortunately improbable; that it will be widely read for its interest as a work of fiction is, we should suppose, impossible.

In 'John Ward, Preacher,' the author has given a picture of that *rara avis*, a logical Calvinist. Any real Calvinist is at this hour rare; one who accepts the full consequences of his faith always has been. John Ward believed in the damnation of the heathen, and more, in the damnation of all who disbelieved in damnation—of all who, to quote one of his elders, were not "grounded on hell." This is also professedly the belief of thousands to-day, yet who eat, drink, and are merry. John Ward believed, suffered, crucified himself, and fell a martyr to his faith at his own hands, in a fashion logical, but hardly natural. One must admire the sublime acquiescence and loyalty of his wife; yet, in following her course, it is impossible not to feel that the alloy of a little natural self-assertion furnishes a necessary working quality in the imperfect affairs of humanity, and that Helen Ward was nearly as great a foe to domestic peace from one extreme, as were, from the other, Psyche and Elsa of Brabant. John Ward's concerns, however, are not the only, perhaps not the main, interest of the book. The village of Ashurst supplies some charming scenes of country life, drawn with the tender grace and quaintness in which the poet of 'The Old Garden' dipped an earlier pen. Dr. Howe's figure is an especially individual one. He is the genial rector of the village, whose theology is wholly perfunctory, whose kindness of heart is wholly real. It is as impossible not to be fond of him as it is to feel that in any crisis he would prove a stronghold. Mammon has no temptations for him, but common sense has, in situations where common sense is a blunder, or at least a crime. About the village spinsters and the elderly village bachelor, and the loves and rivalries and incompleted lives of Ashurst, hangs an old-time fragrance, as of a grandmother's rose-jar; but only a modern novelist (or a Greek poet) could have stated and left unsolved so many questions touching on tragedy.

RECENT PHILOSOPHY.

The Sensualistic Philosophy of the Nineteenth Century. By Robert T. Dabney, D.D., LL.D. 8vo, pp. 415. A. D. F. Randolph & Co.

Introduction to the Study of Philosophy. By J. H. W. Stuckenberg, D.D. 8vo, pp. 419. A. C. Armstrong & Son. 1888.

The Ethic of Free Thought. By Karl Pearson, M.A. 8vo, pp. 446. London: T. Fisher Unwin. 1888.

The Religious Sentiments of the Human Mind. By Daniel Greenleaf Thompson. 8vo, pp. 176. Longmans, Green & Co.

Dr. Dabney does not embody the characteristics we require of a philosopher. He seems to have begun life with certain conceptions, perhaps obtained from the Westminster Catechism, which he has apparently resolved never to modify. No discoveries of science will move him, and he decides the merits of a doctrine solely by its consequences to some preconceived conviction which had been adopted only upon authority. He has two pigeonholes for all philosophers—one for the "sensualistic" and the other for the "a priori." The sensualistic school is the object of the most irreconcilable animosity—*est delendum*. Locke is held responsible for all the philosophic heresies that have come into the world since his time; and Spencer, Huxley, Darwin, Mill, Bain, and this school generally are refuted by proving them disciples of Locke, and then triumphantly repeating the old platitudes against his system. The author has a mortal antipathy to any man who lays stress upon sensations. The defence of his own position is very much as if he had been born to know things without any sensational experience at all. In distinguishing between sensations and intelligence, he does not realize that he is dealing with abstractions. If he had read Green's 'Introduction to Hume,' or was at all acquainted with modern psychology, he would not have committed such a mis-

take. But he discusses the problem as if intellectual activities were as independent of the sensible as visual is independent of tactual experience. Hence his persistent anathemas against every real or apparent approach to Lockian doctrine.

Now, we have no admiration for that philosophy. But we think it time to stop making a bugbear of it, and to allow its unfortunate author some relief from assault. The issues of life or death for present thought are hardly involved in the mould of two centuries. Philosophers are no longer seriously alarmed by attacks upon "innate ideas." Kant has taught them that there is no necessary antithesis between "empiricism" and "a-priorism," and they have begun to settle down at the problems of the present and the future, with no disposition to accept the verdict of the past as final. But the work under notice has the appearance of opposing every advance of the last hundred years merely because the author cannot reconcile the results of progress with the conceptions of his childhood. It can find circulation and support only among those who want something to quote in favor of doctrines they are unwilling to modify. The discussion of Positivism and Evolution is much after the style of the newspaper assaults upon them when they first appeared—much more characterized by passion than by reason. Of course in a book of 400 pages some true things ought to be said, and many sharp things are said. But they are as generally irrelevant as their spirit is provoking, and hence they convert nobody. We maintain that philosophy is nothing unless it makes men candid and reasonable.

We are glad to remark a complete contrast with the foregoing in the work of Dr. Stuckenberg. It must command the respect of all schools of thought. It is not a philosophy, nor a psychology, nor a book to defend any particular system of metaphysics. It is simply what it purports to be, an "introduction" to the subject. In this respect it supplies for teacher and student alike a much-felt want. The problems and relations of philosophy are clearly analyzed and set out before the student, so that he may gain some familiarity with its questions without having to plod through too many original systems or their history. But the most commendable feature of all is the truth-loving spirit of the author, and his resolution to encourage justice to theories which he does not accept. He does not conceal from himself, or from the student, that there are questions to be considered which may issue in very greatly modifying the views we have inherited from tradition.

We have no space to say much of the contents of the 'Introduction.' There are four chapters which discuss in their order the Theory of Knowledge, or Noetics, Metaphysics, Æsthetics, and Ethics. In that on noetics there are some interesting and even important remarks upon the relation of evolution to the question about the origin and the nature and validity of knowledge. The chapter on ethics is perhaps the ablest in the work, and may have been made so by the commanding interest which the present age is showing in that subject. The relation between utilitarianism and the imperative "ought" of Kantian fame is admirably adjusted, so that the student can approach the subject with Bacon's maxim as a motto: "Read neither to contradict and refute, nor to believe and take for granted, but to weigh and consider." The bibliography and list of subjects for "reflection," attached to each chapter, are very valuable.

The 'Ethic of Free Thought' is conceived in a negative attitude to the theological spirit, and attempts to throw light upon some pressing questions of the day. It is not a treatise upon ethics, but a series of essays having a general connection with religious and moral problems. It is interesting to notice the calm and, perhaps, impertinent assurance with which the author affirms the obsolete character of the "Christian verities." He says in the preface: "I set out from the standpoint that the mission of Freethought is no longer to batter down old faiths; that has been long ago effectively accomplished, and I, for one, am ready to put a railing round the ruins, that they may be preserved from desecration and serve as a landmark." But then, when we come to notice the influences which have determined his conception of religion, they are found to be the mysticism of such men as the scholastics, and Spinoza, Maimonides, Eckhart, etc., and certain insoluble speculations in metaphysics. He here evades some vital elements of its ethics. Nevertheless, the author's spirit is decidedly positive, and it is refreshing to observe a freethinker present something more than iconoclasm as the fruit of his labor. The book is worth our notice mainly as an indication of tendencies which are increasing in force, and which all social and moral efforts have to reckon with in the reconstruction of our beliefs. It is a little erratic, and betrays a want of unity that is desirable in such a work. Besides, there is more sympathy with metaphysical speculations about the nature of the universe than is required of one who is going to discuss some practical problems.

The chapter on Luther is depreciative of the man, and holds him up in a very bad light; but Mr. Pearson is not more one-sided than is usual with admirers of the Reformer. The discussions of most value are those upon Sociology in Part third of the work, which include "the moral basis of socialism," "the woman's question," and "socialism and sex," and are the most interesting of the five chapters. The second of these subjects is an expansion of some views advanced by John Stuart Mill, and its importance is made very clear. It is maintained that the social and political independence of woman, by which the ideals and activities of her life shall be as extensive as those of man, will produce, in a perfectly moral way, one of the checks so much desired by Malthus to limit the growth of population. Socialism is, of course, taken in its better sense, and the economic problems occasioned by large industrial operations and the concentration of wealth, with their concomitant of unequal distribution, are handled in an earnest and scholarly manner. Speculative theologians and philosophers need more acquaintance with such subjects, even if they must obtain their information from the much-abused freethinker.

The last work under notice needs only brief mention. It is but another illustration of the spirit and tendency embodied in the work of Mr. Pearson, although it does not attempt to discuss practical problems. The usual doctrines of philosophic theism, religious beliefs, and ethical codes are examined, but pronounced upon from the position of a freethinker. Science and naturalism are the author's deities, and we meet again an influence which theology seems powerless to counteract.

Social History of the Races of Mankind. Second Division. Oceano-Melanesians. By A. Featherman. London: Trübner & Co. 8vo, pp. xxxii, 420.

MR. FEATHERMAN'S book is a valuable summary of what the principal voyagers in the Pacific Ocean, from the time of Capt. Cook to our own day, have reported concerning the manners, customs, and traditions of the brown Polynesians, and of some other races; for the work is somewhat heterogeneous in its scope. The brown Polynesian tribes are twelve in number, and all of these are here described, except the Cook's Islanders, for whom space should have been found. The work might well have been restricted to the brown Polynesians proper, and the distinct races inhabiting the Pelew, Caroline, Marshall, Marion or Ladrone Islands, and Madagascar in the Indian Ocean, elsewhere treated of. Mr. Featherman's class of Oceano-Melanesians is defensible; but any one who knows the brown Polynesian well will recognize his physique, his language, and his customs as constituting a type that distinguishes him almost or quite as clearly from other Melanesians as the Spaniard is distinguishable from the Englishman.

The characteristics of these extremely interesting and fast-disappearing barbarians—their arts, their dress, their amusements, their creeds, their moral character, their governments, their religions, their superstitions, their physical traits, their sexual usages, their poetry, their history—all are here set down with care and fulness. Special pains have been taken to preserve the records of these different communities as they were first observed by the earlier voyagers, with which are given, by way of contrast, sketches of their present condition. Nothing is more remarkable, or more clearly brought out in this concordance of the facts, than the unity of the brown Polynesian race in all essential respects. The customs, the character, the language, and many of the traditions are the same from Hawaii to New Zealand, and from the eastern Fijis to Waihu (Easter Island), a stretch of 5,000 miles in one direction, and 4,000 in the other. The writer has stepped ashore upon Cook's Islands, after a voyage of 3,000 miles due south from Honolulu, and conversed with the Aitutakian in the Hawaiian tongue.

Especially interesting are the materials that are here brought together for the comparative study of character and customs throughout this vast expanse of island groups. In no other part of the world is sexual morality so archaic. Only in the Samoan Islands and in Rotuma is the least value set upon female chastity, at least in the unmarried. In general the brown Polynesian girl has equal liberty with the men, and disposes of herself as she pleases, continence on her part being usually reproached as "stinginess." After marriage—so called, for marriage in all these communities is but a slight and impermanent tie, usually dissoluble at the will of either party—after marriage the woman is held to chastity as long as the relation lasts; but a relaxation of the marriage bond, with the entire consent of the husband, is frequently made in favor of foreigners, or of domestic visitors of rank. No other publication known to us gives such a full and interesting conspectus of the marital and sexual usages of the Polynesian. Infanticide and cannibalism are also touched upon, though with less fulness. These topics, indeed, the Polynesian generally shows unwillingness to discuss with foreigners, being restrained by their severely critical attitude towards the practices in question—an attitude, it may be added, which the foreigner has not usually taken in regard to the sexual freedom of the South Sea Islanders. Charles Darwin found difficulty in collecting the data upon infanticide that were needed for his work upon the 'Descent of Man.' But in all social inquiries which turn upon sex, the

essential data are usually the hardest to obtain.

As to the missionary work and influence in Polynesia, Mr. Featherman takes a view which is undoubtedly correct, namely, that while the introduction of Christianity among the Polynesians was a well-intended work, and usually sincere on the part of the missionaries, if not on that of the Boards, none the less it has been a potent factor in the disintegration of the Polynesian race. The Easter Islanders, for instance, are now reduced to 150 in number, and are great thieves, but they "are most adroit in making the sign of the cross in the orthodox fashion." These natives, like other Polynesians, have passively consented to accept the creed which the missionaries profess.

The chapter upon the Hawaiians is full and excellent, though it is marred, like the rest of the book, by innumerable typographical errors in the Polynesian words. The defect is inevitable in any work of this sort, unless the proofs are read by a Polynesian scholar. It is unfortunate that the publishers did not secure the services of Mr. Stephen Spencer of London in this task, one which he performed admirably for Judge Fornander's work on 'The Polynesian Race.' Mr. Featherman cites—with approximate accuracy—the following curiosity of the Hawaiian language, one which could be easily matched in any other of the Polynesian dialects; it is a sentence composed entirely of vowels: "'*E i ai oe ia ia e oo ia.*' Literally translated, this means, 'Speak to him now that he may learn.'"

Should another edition of the book be called for, we would suggest more frequent references, in the shape of foot-notes, to Mr. Featherman's varied sources of information, of which, we must not fail to add, he is himself an intelligent critic.

Yankee Girls in Zulu Land. By Louise Vescelius-Sheldon. Illustrated by G. E. Graves, after sketches from life by E. J. Austen. Worthington Co. 1888. Pp. 287, 8vo.

THE brighter, sunnier side of life in South Africa has rarely if ever been more charmingly described than in this little volume. It is life, also, in its most varied aspects, not simply as seen in the older settlements of Cape Town and Port Elizabeth, but also in Kimberley and Pretoria. The young travellers visit an Englishman's ranch, and they board at a Boer's farm, and never appear to be more comfortable than when camping out on the desert plains of the Free State. They use every mode of conveyance, steamer, railway, coach, and ox-wagon, and show a very decided preference for the wagon. The object of these extensive wanderings is health—one of the three ladies being an invalid—and this is found in the dry and bracing atmosphere of the Transvaal. It is this fact, possibly, which leads the diarist of the party to write so enthusiastically of the Transvaal, not only as the most interesting country which they visited, but also, "with its undeveloped mineral wealth, its rich soil, the game which abounds there for the hunter, and, above all, with its glorious climate, the country of the future of South Africa." If all its towns were like Potchefstrom, there would probably be no dissent from this opinion. This place was "like a large orchard, so abundant are the fruit trees. Every street is a boulevard of orange and peach trees, which here grow side by side. The very hedgerows are figs and quinces, while everywhere may be seen grapevines, lemons, shaddocks, and bananas. Between the sidewalk and the street is a well-kept grass plot, with a stream of clear water running in the midst of it." Our travellers' experience of the health-giving qualities of the air of the uplands, especially when breathed from an ox-wagon, was not solitary. Among the passengers on the steamer which brought them to Africa "were two brothers, and one was so ill that we never expected to see him again in this life," but he turns up at Bloemfontein, "the picture of health, entirely owing, he said, to the wonderful effects of the climate" and six months in an ox-wagon. Natal, with its singularly beautiful coast and fine rolling, grassy plains, not unlike English downs, a genial land in which nearly everything seems to grow, was second only to the Transvaal in interest. At its capital, Pietermaritzburg, with its imposing public buildings and its lovely vine-clad villas surrounded by cactus hedges and camellia trees twenty feet high, with a theatre at which English operas are "as well mounted and sung" as in London, was found "much more social life . . . than in any other South African town."

With a stay of several months at this place ended the pleasant African life of our author and her sisters, and we close the book with as much reluctance as they finally turned their back upon the scenes amid which they had enjoyed so much. It should not be presumed, however, that Miss (or Mrs.) Vescelius-Sheldon entirely ignores the disagreeable part of travelling in South Africa, the long, wearisome coach-rides, and the wretched fare at the way-side stopping-places, the terrific thunder-storms, the strangely oppressive loneliness, of which all travellers speak; these are all apparent again and again, but only as inevitable discomforts to be made little of. The illustrations, apparently from drawings by one of the three "Yankee girls" (reproduced by the process with which recent French works have made us familiar), are admirably in harmony with the sprightly narrative, being, at times, like that, full of humor, and, in the case of the Zulu in the cactus bush, on page 272, unusually fine. The book, which is a very attractive specimen of typography, is disfigured by too many verbal errors, especially in the spelling of proper names. It lacks also even the meagre table of contents which one expects to find in every book.

An Elementary Treatise on Kinematics and Dynamics. By James Gordon Macgregor, M.A. Macmillan & Co. 8vo, pp. xvi, 512.

THIS is, in many respects, a remarkable book. It is, as Bishop Whately was fond of saying, "paradoxical yet true," that the work is full of novelties, yet contains little that is new. It is a treatise on Mechanics, taking that word in its widest signification, as including the whole theory of both motion and force. The work is elementary in so far as it does not assume the reader's knowledge of mathematics to extend beyond Algebra, Geometry, and Trigonometry; but one who has previously studied Analytical Geometry and the Calculus will read the book with incomparably less labor than one who has not.

Professor Macgregor does not use the word "Mechanics" at all, and, though his own work is the best possible evidence of the essential unity of the two subjects of which it treats, he suggests no other name in its place. Many modern writers on Mechanics, especially English writers, have, more or less completely, adopted the division of the science into two branches—"kinematics," which treats of motion without reference to the forces by which it is produced; and "kinetics," which treats of the action of force. Professor Macgregor adopts this distinction, but, for some reason which he does not explain, he retains the old term "Dynamics" in place of "Kinetics." For reasons which we have no space to explain, it would have been much better, if "Kinematics" is adopted, to take "Kinetics" also. The time-honored division of Mechanics into Statics and Dynamics the author rejects, regarding Statics as only a part of Dynamics. The distinction between Statics and Dynamics, though still maintained by even the most recent writers (see the works of Minchin and Greaves) has long been more formal than real; the true relation of the two was most elaborately and clearly explained, more than half a century ago (1830), by Comte in the first volume of his 'Philosophie Positive.'

Professor McGregor's book is full of new terms and expressions, new definitions of old terms, new names for old notions. Most of these have been suggested or proposed by other modern writers, but many seem to be of his own invention. Thus the expression "tubes of force" (p. 26 *et seq.*), we do not recollect having seen. At first sight the expression irresistibly suggests the idea of "putting up" force as dealers in artists' materials do paints. The word "velocity," which is used most frequently in scientific language in the same signification as in ordinary conversation, is superseded by the word "speed," and, by a new definition, is restricted "to a more complex conception." The result is that a point may frequently move with very great speed and very little velocity. So, for the usual signification of the word "acceleration" we have the phrase "rate of change of speed," or, more succinctly, "change of speed," the old word again being restricted "to a more complex conception"; at the same time the author says regretfully: "It is desirable that a name should be invented for the phrase 'rate of change of speed.' Hayward has proposed the term *quickening*" (p. 29). Why he does not adopt it the author does not tell us.

But with all its peculiarities we strongly recommend the work to the perusal of all those engaged in teaching Mechanics. It is evidently the product of long and careful labor and thought, by one who thoroughly understands his subject. It takes a very comprehensive view of the science; everything is presented in a strictly scientific form, and it leaves on the reader's mind a strong impression of consistency and unity of plan. Its constant use of the method of limits forms an excellent introduction to those portions of the science in which the employment of the calculus becomes indispensable. A very good index adds to the value of the work.

William of Germany: A Succinct Biography of William I., German Emperor and King of Prussia. By Archibald Forbes. Cassell & Co.

William I. and the German Empire: A Biographical and Historical Sketch. By G. Barnett Smith. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. 1888.

WELL-REGULATED newspaper offices are provided with biographical notices of distinguished men who are expected to die at any moment; and in the case of a man like the late Emperor William, whose great age had for some years past made him a shining mark for death, it is but natural that professional book-makers should lie in wait with biographies differing from newspaper articles in little but their length. The two books named at the head of this notice are favorable specimens of this class, and although both of them are useful and readable manuals of interesting information, it is hardly to be

expected that either will survive to attain any rank in the world of literature.

Mr. Forbes's book has the dash and picturesqueness of treatment which one expects from so famous a war correspondent. It is, as set forth in its title, a succinct biography, and leaves impressed on the mind of its readers a vivid picture of its hero, who is the central figure of the canvas, the historical accessories being merely accessories and nothing more. Along with the qualities of good newspaper work, the book has the attendant defects of style: it is disfigured by slang, some of it Carlylean of a particularly offensive brand, and some the ordinary British reporter's jargon. The publishers seem to regard the book as a mere catchpenny affair; they do not even put a date on the title-page, and, while the print is large enough and leaded, the whole physiognomy of the book is anything but attractive.

Mr. Smith's work is, as its title indicates, fuller and more ambitious; its mechanical execution is much more satisfactory, and, although bearing a Chicago imprint, it is of unmistakably English workmanship, besides being provided with an index. It is not only a biography of the Emperor William, but also a history of Germany since his accession. It has the great merit of not attempting to distort or conceal facts in the interest of its hero, and its plain narrative of events sets forth in a glaring light the unjustifiable and arbitrary course of Prussia in the war against Denmark in 1864, as well as the uniformly absolutist policy of the late Emperor. The brilliant achievements of the German armies in 1866 and 1870, however they may dazzle the generation that witnessed them, should not blind us to the many questionable methods which led up to and accompanied them. Such methods may be condoned by success, but they are not thereby justified. In the general patriotic chorus of praise of the Emperor William which his death awoke on both sides of the ocean, it is perhaps too much to expect a cold view of the actual facts from a German writer; hence Mr. Smith's book possesses a value beyond what its literary merits would confer.

Life of Walter Harriman. With selections from his speeches and writings. By Amos Hadley. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1888.

With all respect to the memory of Gov. Harriman and to the devotion of Mr. Hadley, we feel obliged to pronounce this book singularly devoid of interest. Those who were personally acquainted with Gov. Harriman will doubtless read it with pleasure, and those who care to follow the details of the State politics of New Hampshire will find here some information; but the book can be recommended to no others. The style is very little better than that of the ordinary correspondence of the country newspaper, garnished with quotations of colloquial English, and the substance is eulogy of the most undiscriminating character. Quite as indiscriminate is the collection of speeches, editorials, letters, etc., with which the book is padded. There are Thanksgiving proclamations and Fourth of July orations, Gubernatorial messages and political documents, and newspaper comments upon them all. There are even lists of the places where campaign speeches were to be made, and, what is most remarkable, Mr. Hadley actually prints the letters of recommendation which Gov. Harriman procured when seeking to be appointed Naval Officer at Boston. Lest this should not be enough, there is added a condensation of the book of travels which he wrote after his return from a visit to the Old World.

In spite of all this, it is possible to see that Gov. Harriman's life was in many respects a typical one. His early history resembled in its vicissitudes that of most of our self-made men. He was a farmer's son, then a teacher, then a Universalist preacher, then a merchant, and from a very early period a politician. He was a Democrat, but upon the outbreak of the war he loyally supported the Administration, raised a regiment, and did good service in the field. He became one of the most popular stump-speakers in New England, and though his speeches are not very readable, they must have been effectively delivered. He was twice Governor, and declined a renomination. His career, as traced in this biography, was manly and upright, and it is, after all, satisfactory to reflect that it is inconspicuous only because of the number of similar careers.

Elements of the Comparative Grammar of the Indo-Germanic Languages. By Karl Brugmann. Vol. I. Introduction and Phonology. Translated from the German by Joseph Wright, Ph.D. B. Westermann & Co.

The significance of this masterwork of Brugmann for the progress of science is to be measured, not so much by the new material it contains, nor by any definite settlement of long-disputed questions it may offer, as by its complete control of the entire existing material of the science, by its deftness in assorting it, and its priceless clearness in the statement of results. It represents the complete triumph of an orderly mind over the most distracted material. Seldom are united in one man as in the author so comprehensive and exactingly thorough an acquaintance with the detail of his subject, and so fine a sense for the relation of the part to a scheme of the whole.

That there existed a need for the book there can be no doubt. The fourth and latest edition of Schleicher's 'Compendium' was so far behind the times at the date of its appearance (1876), that the editors, Leskien and Schmidt, declined to essay any revision. The German edition of Brugmann's book appeared late in 1886, and has, by common consent, proved itself to be both an indispensable hand-book for the specialist and a convenient and eminently reliable resource for students of the related disciplines. A good English translation is therefore welcome. In a book of this kind, where the accessibility of the fact, and not the style of presentation, is of first importance, an English buyer will always prefer a good translation to the original.

We have before us a good, but by no means an excellent, translation. The rendering is faithful, and to a fault. The translator nourishes, fortunately, no ambition to better the author. He takes him as he is, for better or for worse—idioms and all. The German peers through many a phrase, stares barefaced through some; cf. "fall together with" (*zusammenfallen mit*), where 'be merged with' is meant; "occurs opposite to" (*steht—gegenüber*); "partly underwent contraction for—, partly, etc." (*theils verschmolzen — theils*). Many a barbarous "already" testifies to an ill-digested "*schon*"; cf. page 131, "dropped out already in primitive Baltic-Slavic"; page 175, "The nasal was often unwritten already in the oldest inscriptions." "After" is often a bad rendering of "*nach*," as, "The explosives after their form of articulation"; also "beside" for "*neben*." The German prototype is unmistakable in the future of, "κλόνις will also belong to this category" (*auch wird gehören*). On page 291 there is a curious mistranslation of *auch* ("also" instead of even); "Lat. *c* had the pronunciation *k* also before *e*- and *i*- vowels down to the Middle Ages."

In the difficult matter of finding equivalents for the technical terms, our translator has had, in general, good success. "Vowel-gradation" and "vowel-mutation" seem to be now accepted renderings of *Ablaut* and *Umlaut*, though the general method of our language in framing technical terms would have been better represented by "apophony" and "metaphony." The term "sonant" has been much used in this country and in England, *e. g.*, by Whitney, as the opposite to "surd"; our translator uses it as the opposite to "consonant," while "voiced" is his equivalent for *tönend*. This is justifiable. "Primitive" is only a half rendering of *ur-*, as in *urgermanisch;* "proethnic" is better. "New formation" does not translate *Neubildung;* 'neologism' is the word.

In spite of such blemishes, the translation seldom gives occasion to a positive misunderstanding of the original. The proof-reading has been carefully done. Minor errors of the original have been corrected, and slight additions made by the author.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Black, W. The Strange Adventures of a House-Boat: A Novel. Harper & Bros. 50 cents.
Boissier, G. Madame de Sévigné. (The Great French Writers.) Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.
Bynner, E. L. Agnes Surriage. Fourth edition. Boston: Ticknor & Co. 50 cents.
Caro, E. George Sand. (The Great French Writers.) Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.
Douglas, Amanda M. The Midnight Marriage. A Novel. A. L. Burt. 25 cents.
Du Bois-Melly. The History of Nicolas Muss: An Episode of the Massacre of St. Bartholomew. Harper & Bros.
Green, J. R. Histoire du Peuple Anglais. Traduite de l'Anglais par Auguste Monod. Paris: Plon, Nourrit & Cie. 2 vols.
Haggard, H. R. Mr. Meeson's Will: A Novel. Harper & Bros. 25 cents.
Hymns and Tunes as Sung at St. Thomas's Church, New York. Music by George W. Warren. Harper & Bros.
Nesmith, J. E. Monadnoc, and Other Sketches in Verse. Riverside Press.
Paris, Comte de. History of the Civil War in America. Vol. IV. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates.
Sage, D. The Restigouche and its Salmon Fishing. Edinburgh: David Douglas; New York: Scribner & Welford.
Stepniak. The Russian Peasantry: Their Agrarian Condition, Social Life, and Religion. Harper & Bros.
Verestchagin, A. At Home and in War. 1853—1881. Reminiscences and Anecdotes. Thomas Y. Crowell. $1.75.
Waters, Henry F. Genealogical Gleanings in England. Vol. I, Part 2. Boston: New England Historic Genealogical Society.
Wright, Julia McN. Sea-Side and Wayside. (Nature Readers. Nos. 1 and 2.) Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Wright, J. Middle High-German Primer. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Wright, T. F. The Realities of Heaven. Philadelphia: W. H. Alden. 15 cents.

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